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In addition to these words of praise from our English friends, we cannot refrain from quoting from a review from nearer home, which has just reached us:

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VOLUME LXXIII

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 4, 1901.

The Week.

Commissioner Evans has for once departed from his custom of ignoring the attacks made upon his administration of the Pension Office. He has made a statement which is as nearly crushing as possible, to all who have criticised him, and especially to Gen. Sickles, whose recent attack has been widely published. As to the latter, Mr. Evans produces a letter written by Gen. Sickles two years ago, declaring his (Evans's) administration "worthy of the highest commendation, and above all from the veteran soldiers." A little later, Gen. Sickles wrote an earnest letter to the President expressing the utmost confidence in the Commissioner, and "the same measure of contempt for your [his] critics." Now, unless Gen. Sickles can show that there has been a change in Mr. Evans's methods and spirit since those letters were written, he (Sickles) may be considered silenced. It appears, however, that one member of the Republican National Committee (Mr. Scott of West Virginia) did write a letter to Sickles during the last Presidential campaign, which the latter construed as a promise that Evans should be removed from office at the beginning of Mr. McKinley's second term, in consideration of the votes and influence of the insatiable pension-hunters. This bargain seems to be now fully established so far as Sickles and Scott are concerned, but of course it did not commit the President in any way. Nobody pretends that he knew anything about it at any time before the election. Now that it has been brought to his knowledge and to that of the whole people, he will undoubtedly sustain Commissioner Evans more strongly than ever, though it must be said that he has at no time been lacking in firmness in that particular. We look upon Mr. Evans as now secure in his place so long as Mr. McKinley remains in his.

Addicks, the true and the bold, has given us another glimpse of the moral heights which he occupies. He has done it by means of a public rebuke of President McKinley. In control of Delaware Republicanism as Addicks is, through the prowess of that good right arm of his with which he draws checks, he has "named" a Collector of the Port at Wilmington, but Mr. McKinley weakly shrinks from the merely clerical function of endorsing Addicks's selection. The reason is, says Addicks, as much in sorrow as in anger, "he is afraid of the newspapers." This is a form of cowardice unknown to the new breed of political buccaneers. Mayor Ashbridge of Philadelphia is far superior to it. Croker scorns such rabbit-like timidity. Addicks does not know what this fear means. Afraid of having your evil deeds made public? Dreading an exposure by a newspaper that does not own a single delegate or control a solitary vote in the Legislature? This is too good. The boss who has his machine well in hand, the politico-commercial promoter who has his street-railway "goods" already delivered, the man who has made his peace with Hanna in his attempts to burglarize his way into the Senate—why should they be anything but bold as lions in the face of purely moral perils? If some one were threatening to hang them to the nearest lamp-post, that would be different; but a mere organ of public opinion, a simple echo of what everybody is saying—namely, that hanging would be too good for them—why, Ashbridge and Addicks snap their fingers at such a contemptible opponent as loftily as Dick Croker himself.

The *Times* publishes an interview with President Schurman, in which he gives a definite and clear-cut expression of his views as to the future of the Philippines. In the first place, he is opposed to their admission to the Union at any time. He thinks that the American Union should be restricted to the American continent. He thinks, moreover, that the Filipinos are not capable of self-government. Then he adds:

> "Personally, I favor a continuation of American sovereignty for, say, two generations, and then allowing the people themselves to decide whether they wish to continue under our sovereignty or to maintain an independent government. We shall treat them fairly, develop their industries and resources, and I should not be surprised to have them express a desire to remain with us. In the interim I favor a government much like that now existing in Porto Rico—an American Governor, perhaps, with a legislative Council a portion of whose members shall be chosen by the people and the remainder appointed by the President."

This plan, if carried out, would fix the destiny, not only of the Philippines but of the United States, for two generations, presumably sixty years. It would make of the former a subject race, and of the latter a colonial empire, for so long a period that nobody of middle age would see the end of it. The conditions under which the two countries will exist will have an influence upon both far beyond the precepts of the most powerful educator of the present or of any other day. It may make us a grasping colonial empire. It may change the Filipinos from a brave to a cringing people. In fact, we do not know what may happen, except that President Schurman and his contemporaries now in middle life will not see the end of the experiment. And how does Mr. Schurman know that "we shall treat them fairly"? Are we likely to do better for them than we do for ourselves? Are we likely to give to Luzon a better government than Pennsylvania has at this present moment? Can we guarantee to Manila fairer treatment than Philadelphia receives at the hands of Mayor Ashbridge and his pals?

The outrages inflicted on the people of Philadelphia by their rulers have at last proved too much for the patience of that long-suffering community. At a very large meeting on Thursday evening resolutions denouncing the corrupt ring in the severest manner were adopted, and the present District Attorney, who is out of favor with the machine because he refuses to obey its orders, was nominated as an independent candidate. So great was the interest taken in this meeting that, in spite of the heat, nearly 5,000 people crowded into a hall that could seat only 3,000, and 5,000 more are supposed to have stood outside. These numbers are more significant than the speeches and resolutions. The political machine in Pennsylvania has prospered on denunciation, and thriven even on criminal charges and indictments. The only menace to its success is votes, and so long as the mass of the people contentedly vote for whomsoever the machine pleases to nominate, the protests and outcries of reformers are laughed at. As "T. B. S.," a citizen of Philadelphia, pointed out in a letter to the *Evening Post*, the people of that city are probably rather above the average in private morality, but their "political density" is extreme. When men will say, as a prominent business man did say, that they would vote for the devil if nominated by the Republicans, rather than for the angel Gabriel if nominated by the Democrats, they are likely to have rulers suitable to their servility.

Monday was the time for the change by which the important position of counsel of the Treasury Department before the Board of General Appraisers was transferred from an able and experienced incumbent, who had served six years with great credit, to a new man, who had no other claims than that he wanted the job. Senator Hoar's support of his colleague Lodge, in the latter's successful attempt to secure this position for a protégé, was a disagreeable surprise to the country. Mr. Lodge had already shown that there was no sincerity in his professions of devotion to civil-service reform, and he had an obvious motive for acting out his character in this case, because he wanted the

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$3,500 place in New York for his former private secretary in Boston. Mr. Hoar, however, did not appear to have any reason for demanding the removal of a faithful and experienced official, while he has never become known as a spoilsman. But it appears that Mr. Hoar was as deep in the mud as Mr. Lodge in the mire. The senior Senator wanted for a clerk of his committee the place in the Federal service at Boston which has been held by the junior Senator's ex-secretary who sought the New York appraisership, and when Mr. Lodge "landed" his man here, Mr. Hoar "landed" his in the Boston office. In short, dishonors are easy between them.

Ex-Secretary Herbert, in his address before the Alabama Bar Association on Friday, made a frank and crushing reply to the Republicans who cry out about negro disfranchisement in the South. The Ohio Republican platform adopted the other day, for example, worked up a high degree of moral indignation over the crime of depriving the negro of his right of suffrage. Why do you complain? asks Mr. Herbert. The South always contended that the Declaration of Independence does not apply to inferior races, and the Republican policy of to-day completely accepts that view. Why, then, all this heat about the Constitutional Convention of the South going to work to eliminate the negro vote? They are but doing, said the ex-Secretary, "precisely what the country is doing in its new island possessions—asserting the right of the superior race to govern savage tribes and mixed races.' Really, we do not see that there is any answer to this except to call Mr. Herbert an ex-rebel. But we suppose that he would simply go on asserting that the Southerners were always the true Expansionists and Imperialists, and would contend that the North, having now gone over to their view, ought at least to leave off abusing them.

The question of lynching is troubling the Alabama Constitutional Convention, the members of which are suggesting various remedies for this particular form of lawlessness. The whole debate is another indication of the present tendency to embody in State Constitutions numerous laws and regulations which are in reality proper subjects for legislative enactment. It is hard to see how a Constitutional provision can accomplish more than an ordinary law in putting an end to lynching. The difficulty South and North—for lynching is not confined to any one section of the country—is not so much lack of proper laws as lack of proper public sentiment. If a mob will defy the Legislature, it will defy a Constitutional Convention. Doubtless the discussion of the subject now going on in Alabama will help create a wholesome public sentiment, and is in that respect of value. Otherwise it would seem that the delegates had better spend their time and energy in other ways. A step for which the Alabama Convention deserves credit is the refusal to consider the plan of dividing the school fund between the whites and the negroes in the proportion in which each race contributes to it. This proposal has had the support, not only of the more prejudiced and noisy advocates of white domination, but even of men reputed to be temperate and judicial. The Convention is, therefore, to be congratulated on having resisted a certain amount of popular clamor, and on having responded to the eloquent appeals of Booker T. Washington and others, who feel that the welfare of whites and blacks would be imperilled by a curtailment of the negro's opportunities for education. Such fair treatment of one phase of the difficult race problem is certain to strengthen the feeling that the South must be left to settle the negro question for itself.

A recent decision by the Supreme Court of the United States concerning preferences in bankruptcy is causing something very like consternation among merchants. The Bankruptcy Act forbids preferences to creditors, requiring any creditor who has been preferred to surrender what he has received if he proposes to prove any claims or receive any dividends. By the recent decision it is established that the receipt of money by a creditor within four months of the time when a petition in bankruptcy is filed by or against the person making the payment, constitutes a preference. Thus, if A sells to B a bill of goods amounting to $2,000, and is paid in cash, and thereupon sells him another bill of goods for $4,000 on ninety days' credit, within which time B goes into bankruptcy, A becomes a preferred creditor. If he proposes to claim his $4,000, he must give up his $2,000. If he wants to keep his $2,000, he must give up his $4,000. The fact that he had no intention of obtaining a preference, or that his debtor had no intention of giving him one, is immaterial; the law presumes the intention from the mere fact of payment. Business men should bestir themselves to have Congress amend the law so as to lessen, if not completely do away with, the severity of this provision.

We confess our inability to discover a reasonable excuse for the red tape surrounding the redemption of unused revenue stamps. No doubt it will be argued that the Government is not responsible for the purchase of more stamps by the citizen than he needed for immediate use. If he bought a supply for the next month or the next six months, and the tax was revoked before he could use his stamps, the risk was his. He might have avoided it by buying stamps only as he needed them. This is a pretty enough theory, but every one knows that business could not be conducted on such a system. If users of stamps did not buy in quantity for future needs, the Government would have to double its selling agencies. But the merits of the case are quite independent even of this consideration. Stamps bought and paid for are, in our judgment, a legitimate claim on the Government, after the tax has been revoked. There is no more danger of counterfeits in these than there is in postage-stamps or Government currency. The whole provision for a series of affidavits by revenue officers, "first purchasers," and so on, impresses us as solemn nonsense; and the refusal to redeem in lots of less than $2 as a rather outrageous discrimination. It seems to us that a "business management" of the Treasury ought to have done better than this.

Indictments against a high Tammany official for neglect of duty and conspiracy afford ample ground for congratulations to the District Attorney on the part of all good citizens. Fire Commissioner Scannell is charged not only with neglect of duty, but also with evasion of the law and perpetration of fraud upon the city, each of which is accounted a misdemeanor and is punishable by a fine of $1,000 or a year's imprisonment, or both, while to be found guilty on either of the last two scores involves removal from office and renders a man incapable of ever holding office in the city again. The charges of conspiracy cover the relations between Commissioner Scannell and William L. Marks, the go-between who has had to be employed by people who wanted to sell supplies to the Fire Department. The methods pursued were set forth in great detail by Mr. Franklin Matthews in an article published by the *Evening Post* a few weeks ago, and the statements therein made were substantiated by the testimony before the grand jury of nearly all the manufacturers of hose and fire apparatus in the city, who showed that it was impossible for them to do business with the department unless they gave Marks a "rake-off" by raising the prices of their supplies above the market rate. District Attorney Philbin has been subjected to severe criticism for weeks past by people who complained that he "wasn't doing anything." The District Attorney's office is one which cannot be efficiently conducted by outsiders, who are not familiar with the facts at the command of the incumbent; and a man of high character and lofty standards is entitled to the presumption that his course is in the public interest, even if he is not "playing to the galleries." Mr. Philbin had a right to expect better treatment

than he has received. Fortunately, he is philosophical by nature, and was content to wait for time to furnish such vindication of his hard work and good sense as is afforded by these indictments.

Wayne MacVeagh never delivers an address without saying something worth hearing, and he was at his best in his Phi Beta Kappa oration at Cambridge on Thursday on "The Value of Ideals in American Politics." It is certainly true, as he remarked at the outset, that "there is no better work to be done at present by an American university than to again unseal those fountains of idealism where the human spirit has so often refreshed itself when weary of a too material age, to reawaken that enthusiasm for the moral law which we have all somehow lost, and to impress upon a people essentially noble, but now too deeply absorbed in the pursuit of wealth for wealth's sake, the advantages which the cherishing of ethical ideals may bring to all of us, even to those who pride themselves above all things upon being practical." Recognizing that the spirit of the age is commercial, Mr. MacVeagh set out to prove "the commercial value of ethical ideals," as constituting the safest source of the political aspirations of the majority of our people and the most conservative influence in our national life. He proceeded to enforce the dangers to "the members of the contented class" which are involved in their tolerant attitude towards the corrupt use of money in our elections and in our representative bodies; in their indifference regarding the unjust treatment of the negro population in this country; in their readiness to accept standards for our conduct abroad which are inconsistent with our traditions, and which make "many Protestant clergymen mistakenly suppose that they can safely substitute at this day in our country the teaching of Mohammed for the teaching of Christ."

The final enactment of the French Associations Bill, directed primarily against Catholic religious orders, is something more than a political triumph for M. Waldeck-Rousseau. His skill in piloting the law through both Chamber and Senate is undeniable, and he seems to have strengthened his hold on office, already so unprecedented in the recent political annals of France. But the deftest management could not have succeeded so remarkably unless a strong popular feeling had been behind the measure. The truth is that a sort of reaction against Catholicism, on its political side, is astir throughout all Continental Europe. We see it in the disturbances in Spain. It was the great issue in the elections in Belgium, ten days ago, when the Catholics increased their Parliamentary strength and upset the Ministry. In Germany the renewed expression of South-German jealousy of Prussia is thought to be, in part, of Catholic inspiration. Thus it appears that the anti-Catholic legislation in France is only a symptom of an unrest and dissatisfaction which are general.

Lord Salisbury quite outdid the traditional reproaches of the wolf addressed to the lamb, when he said last week that what the English were doing in South Africa was simply defending their own colonies against an "invasion by neighbors" who were "actuated by the greed of territory." It was for Englishmen to "defend the sanctity of their frontier." But they ought also to defend the sanctity of common sense; and every man possessed of a particle of it knows that Salisbury's description of the Boer war is grotesque. There is, in such matters, an intelligent opinion of contemporary foreigners which is the verdict of posterity; and that opinion will be left aghast and amazed at the British Premier's language. It seems to betoken a disturbance of his customary cynical serenity. The cause is obvious. Though politically secure, as the latest bye-election at Stratford shows again, the Salisbury Government is not satisfying even to its own followers. The Prime Minister complained that Conservative members would not attend the House, thus leaving Mr. Balfour again and again with humiliatingly small majorities. It is clear that the South African war has ceased to be popular. It seems to be endless, and to be calling endlessly for men and money. That naturally produces depression of party spirits, but we do not see how they can be elevated by such absurd attempts as Lord Salisbury's to cheer on his supporters.

The preliminary tables of the English census taken last April are already issued, and, judging from experience, they may be regarded as practically final. In 1891 the difference between the preliminary and final reports amounted to no more than 1,507 persons out of a total population of 29,002,525. The population is now 32,526,375, the figures in both cases being for England and Wales. The decennial increase is 12.17 per cent., while in the previous decade it was 11.65 per cent. The rate of increase is lower than in any other decade of the century, except in those terminating in 1861 and 1891, but the absolute increase is the greatest yet recorded. When we examine the "natural" increase—that is, the excess of births over deaths—it appears that in the decennial ending 1891 not only was the percentage of increase higher than in the last ten years, but the absolute increase was greater, being 3,629,474, as compared with 3,593,553. Had the same rate of increase continued, the increase in the last decade would have been 4,052,596, the falling off in the natural ratio of increase being 459,043. The discrepancy is due to the lessening flow of emigration. Had the loss by excess of emigration over immigration borne the same proportion to the population in the last ten years as in the preceding period, it would have amounted to 671,502, whereas it was actually but 70,000. Had it not been for the war in South Africa, it seems probable that for the first time immigration would have exceeded emigration. The population of Ireland has decreased, and is nearly 250,000 less than ten years ago, but the ratio of decrease is only about half of that prevailing then. The total emigration during the last decade has been less than half a million, far less than in the middle of the century. For the first time Scotland is more prosperous than Ireland.

One missionary to China, the Rev. Gilbert Reid, frankly defends in the *Forum* the looting practised by the foreign troops and foreign civilians in Tientsin and Pekin. His article is called "The Ethics of Loot," but it turns out on reading to be much loot and no ethics. He speaks of "the romantic system of looting," and says that "the matter of loot is only one of high ethics," and, anyhow, quite "a minor consideration," being, in his mind, only a poetic way of punishing the Chinese for having "dared to defy the world and insult mankind." The attitude of this herald of the gospel of forgiveness is revealed in his calm statement: "Personally, I regret that the guilty suffered so little at my hands" (suffered, *i. e.*, by being looted). Clearly, there is no great amount of ethics, high or low, about this, but Mr. Reid seems to be laboring under the singular delusion that the laws of war countenance such looting as he sympathetically describes. Loot, he says, means only the lawful spoils of war. "If there has been no war, looting may be set down as wrong." But does not Mr. Reid know that looting is forbidden by the modern rules of war? Has he never heard of the principle laid down by international law that "the property, movable as well as immovable, of private persons in an invaded country is to remain uninjured"? Even what the army requires for its own subsistence can be taken only by "authorized persons at a fair value." But the indiscriminate plundering which Mr. Reid tells about with so much gusto, and which recalls the ravaging of the Palatinate, has not been heard of in civilized warfare since the time of the first Napoleon. Missionaries are, of course, entitled to set all the world right in matters of theology, but when they begin to talk about the laws of war, it would be well for them first to ascertain what these are.

"AT THE BAR OF HISTORY."

After keeping us for more than three years in the dark, the Administration has at last deigned to publish the diplomatic correspondence leading up to the war with Spain. This was at first promised in connection with the President's war message of April 11, 1898; but, on second thought, it was stated, Mr. McKinley determined that it would not be "prudent" to give out the documents at that time. As we read them now, it is easy to agree that it would have been a piece of terrible imprudence to give them to the world then, since they prove that the war was needless. This tardy publication of the dispatches makes it impossible to deny what, in fact, Minister Woodford and Senator Hoar and Congressman Boutelle openly asserted in 1898, that there would have been no war but for the violence of Congress and the weakness of the President. From the official correspondence we learn the truth of the statement made by Mr. Boutelle in explanation of his vote against the war—namely, that "Spain had conceded nearly every one of our demands, and seemed plainly disposed to meet them all," so that, but for the insane fury of Congress, before which Mr. McKinley fell terrorized, we should, as Minister Woodford said publicly in Boston in October, 1898, have seen the Spanish flag leave Cuba "without the firing of a shot or the loss of a life."

The proof is very simple. It lies on the face of the dispatches. Passing by all preliminaries, we find Secretary Day on March 27, 1898, telegraphing instructions to Minister Woodford to make three demands:

"First, Armistice until October 1. Negotiations meantime looking for peace between Spain and insurgents through friendly offices of President United States.

"Second. Immediate revocation of reconcentrado order.

"Add, if possible,

"Third. If terms of peace not satisfactorily settled by October 1, President of the United States to be final arbiter between Spain and insurgents."

Now what followed? On March 31 the reconcentrado order was revoked, and a special credit of 3,000,000 pesetas put at the disposal of Governor-General Blanco to care for the homeless Cubans. There was our demand number two promptly complied with. The offer to concede demand number one was cabled by Minister Woodford on April 5. It is the critical dispatch of the whole volume, and its suppression until now certainly shows an extraordinary degree of "prudence," and possibly something else, in the President. We publish it in full, and we ask for it the careful attention of those clergymen and church people who were driving Congress on to war:

"Should the Queen proclaim the following before twelve o'clock noon of Wednesday, April 6, will you sustain the Queen, and can you prevent hostile action by Congress?

"At the request of the Holy Father, in this Passion Week and in the name of Christ, I proclaim immediate and unconditional suspension of hostilities in the Island of Cuba.

"This suspension is to become immediately effective so soon as accepted by the insurgents in that island, and is to continue for the space of six months, to the 5th day of October, eighteen ninety-eight.

"I do this to give time for passions to cease, and in the sincere hope and belief that, during this suspension, permanent and honorable peace may be obtained between the insular Government of Cuba and those of my subjects in that island who are now in rebellion against the authority of Spain.

"I pray the blessing of Heaven upon this Truce of God, which I now declare in His name, and with the sanction of the Holy Father of all Christendom.

"April 5, 1898.

"Please read this in the light of all my previous telegrams and letters. I believe that this means peace, which the sober judgment of our people will approve long before next November, and which must be approved at the bar of final history.

"I permit the papal nuncio to read this telegram, upon my own responsibility, and without committing you in any manner. I dare not reject this last chance for peace. I will show your reply to the Queen in person, and I believe that you will approve this last conscientious effort for peace."

What could be more moving, more pathetic, more like an unexpected messenger of peace to be greeted with devout thankfulness by all Christian hearts? But how did President McKinley greet it? Why, he telegraphed Minister Woodford that he "highly appreciated the Queen's desire for peace," but that he could not "assume to influence the action of the American Congress." Yet if an armistice were offered, he would "communicate that fact to Congress." Yes, but how did he communicate it? Did he cite a syllable of the pious and exalted language of the Queen? Did he explain how the venerable head of the Catholic Church had exerted himself to prevent a wicked war? No, he simply added a couple of vague and cold paragraphs at the very end of his message. Read the passionate, eager words of the Queen of Spain, read the solemn exhortations of Minister Woodford, and then read how President McKinley presented the matter to Congress:

"Yesterday, and since the preparation of the foregoing message, official information was received by me that the latest decree of the Queen Regent of Spain directs Gen. Blanco, in order to prepare and facilitate peace, to proclaim a suspension of hostilities, the duration and details of which have not yet been communicated to me.

"This fact, with every other pertinent consideration, will, I am sure, have your just and careful attention in the solemn deliberations upon which you are about to enter. If this measure attains a successful result, then our aspirations as a Christian, peace-loving people will be realized. If it fails, it will be only another justification for our contemplated action."

Congress, of course, paid not the slightest attention to this perfunctory tail-end of a message, all the previous trend and argument of which made for war. What the President should have done was to throw away the message which he had prepared, face the altered situation with an altered policy, and go boldly to Congress and the country with Woodford's dispatch, including the Queen's elevated proclamation. He could have truly hailed it as a great triumph of American diplomacy. Our two categorical demands were both granted, and the third conditional one would easily follow. The President could have appealed irresistibly to the sober sentiment of the country. He could have especially appealed to our Catholic population, on the strength of the Queen's references to religious motives and the sanction of the Pope. He could have made peace certain. But, alas, the "stop-watch" of Congress was held on him, he had promised his alarmed and excited fellow-partisans to send in a war message and not let the Democrats win an advantage, and so "this last conscientious effort for peace," as Minister Woodford called it, this grandest opportunity that ever came to a Christian President, was miserably neglected, and the war ensued.

Gen. Woodford urged President McKinley to think not only of "November" (that is, the election which the Republicans feared the Democrats would win if a war was not forced), but of "the bar of final history." It is to that tribunal, of course, that the cause must now go. After all the shouting and the flattery have died away, the historian will settle down to the documentary evidence concerning the Spanish war, and impartially and fearlessly assign praise or blame. We know, for example, what the historians now say of Polk and the Mexican war. Will not their verdict on McKinley and the war with Spain be fully as unpleasant reading for Americans fifty years from now? We fear so. Partisan newspapers to-day will not even print the evidence. A busy and careless people will not read it. But history will do its whole duty, will let nothing escape it, will weigh motive and opportunity and responsibility, and will fix the stigma of cowardice, the shame of weak yielding to clamor, where it belongs; and will do it with the serenity and the certainty of all-judging Jove.

THE OHIO REPUBLICANS.

When a State election is vehemently asserted to be of vast national importance, it is a safe guess that the party so declaring is troubled about local issues. Such is clearly the case with the Republicans in Ohio. They loudly affirm that the continuance of prosperity, with the dignity and almost the existence of the country, depend upon the result of the polling in Ohio next November. Senator Hanna says that if the Democrats should succeed, it would be such a blow to "confidence" that he,

for his part, could not undertake any longer to guarantee a chicken in the pot to every workingman. Hearing these cries of alarm, the experienced observer at once asks, "What is it that makes Hanna so afraid he will lose the State this fall?"

First, the temperance issue. There is an Anti-Saloon League in Ohio, 60,000 voters strong, and they have been worrying the Republican machine in the customary inconsiderate manner of their kind. They actually demand that the party of moral ideas keep its pledges, and pass, instead of throttling, a local-option law. They made a dead set particularly at the Lieutenant-Governor, whom they denounced as an attorney for the saloons. In fact, they raised such a clamor that Hanna concluded to sacrifice the man, and he was accordingly denied a renomination. But this "displeased the liquor interests." So, to placate their wrath, Hanna named a "liberal" Republican from Cincinnati, one Nippert, in place of the rejected Caldwell. But see how unreasonable men are! This offended the Anti-Saloon League afresh. Its representatives left Columbus expressing "displeasure," and on the next train the liquor men departed "very much displeased."

Such are the difficulties of an Ohio statesman when a miserable State issue interferes with his heroic support of the Administration in the Philippines. The louder he shouts about national issues, the more likely is it that the temperance issue will cut a large figure. The Prohibition vote in Ohio is apt to be greatest in an off year like this; and Senator Hanna's attempt to say "Good Lord" to the anti-saloon people in the same breath with "Good Devil" to the liquor vote, is not likely to deceive anybody. This is what he calls refusing to "interfere with the traditions of the Republican party upon moral questions." As he was referring to the temperance question, it is clear that he conceives the traditional attitude of the Republicans to be "on the fence." People talk about appealing from Philip drunk to Philip sober; but it is evidently true of the Ohio Republicans, as the English Liberal said of the weakness of the Tory Government for the brewers, that the last man they want to meet is "Philip sober."

The Democrats naturally stand to gain in Ohio by this rather conspicuous falling of their opponents between the anti-saloon and the saloon stools; but it is on another issue that they are most confident and the Republicans most concerned. This is the question of taxation—especially the taxation of corporations. It must be remembered that the Ohio Democrats have already thrust this burning question to the front, and have scored heavily on it in municipal elections. In Cleveland, in Columbus, in Toledo, they elected Mayors by unexpected and unprecedented majorities, and did it largely on a platform calling for a readjustment of the taxes on corporations. It is evident that they mean to make their State campaign mainly on this issue. Hence the troubled dreams of Hanna.

His platform betrays his trepidation on this subject, and at the same time plays into the hands of the enemy. The Republicans say they favor a "revision of the tax laws" so as to "require all classes of property to bear their equal and just share of taxation." Here is a practical confession of the Democratic charge that the existing tax laws are unequal and unjust. One can imagine how Mayor Tom Johnson and Mayor "Golden-Rule" Jones will ring the changes on this, and will ask the Republicans why, having had full power in the State for so many years, they have done nothing to fulfil their repeated pledges of tax reform. A similar joint in the Republican harness reveals itself in what the platform says about Trusts. It calls for "effective legislation" against them, "vigorously enforced." Yet will it be believed that the same party in the same State plumed itself in 1899 on having passed a "stringent law" against Trusts, of which it promised the "rigid enforcement"? Something must be wrong, the wicked Democrats will say, with either the law or the enforcement, if the work is still all to do.

We have pointed out the State issues which ought to be dominant in Ohio this year. But it is doubtful if they will be allowed to be. The Republicans will strain every nerve to make national questions paramount, and the Democrats are only too likely to help them do it. In the first place, they will, it is expected, put forward John McLean for United States Senator, and thus thrust a national and at the same time weak candidate into the State canvass. Then they will be just foolish enough, in all probability, to endorse Bryan and Bryanism again, even if gingerly, and thus retire to the background the two issues on which, if they would shrewdly conduct their campaign, they might have good hopes of carrying Ohio.

EUROPE AND THE "AMERICAN PERIL."

Perhaps the most striking thing about the much-discussed plan for a European "trade combination against America" is the fact that nobody takes it seriously. At intervals of about a fortnight, some French or German or Austrian legislator rises from his seat to warn his countrymen against the "American peril." Nothing, he tells the public, will save the trade of Europe short of "union against America." We have not observed in these speeches, however, any very intelligible programme for such "union." In fact, the one person who has it in his power to do something practical in the matter—we mean the European consumer—appears to be wholly unmoved. If the monthly foreign trade statistics are to be credited, he goes on buying American goods with the stolid indifference displayed by our own citizens a dozen years ago, when they would poll their vote on Tuesday for "protection against European manufactures," and insist on Wednesday that the cutlery sold to them in the hardware store should be "real Sheffield." And if the attitude of the foreign peoples is that of bland indifference, it must be admitted that the American frame of mind is one of calmness not unmixed with pride. To hear half a dozen foreign politicians demanding that something be done to stop the Americans from beating Europe in the open market, awakens sentiments in the average man not wholly unpleasant.

In all this chorus of protest against the American "trade invasion," we have seen little effort to analyze the situation. A few intelligent English students of the question have pointed out the fact that our manufacturing Trusts are selling cheaply abroad because they can keep prices up at home. From this they have argued that this sort of export trade may perhaps be restrained by reduction of American tariffs, with the resultant lowering of domestic prices. But even the trade observers who are shrewd enough to detect this point of weakness are aware that it does not tell the whole story. The United States has had its protective tariff for a generation, yet it is less than five years since we began to threaten competitive export markets. Not only so, but in years when most of the tariff schedules were even higher than to-day's, American marketplaces were full of simultaneous lamenting over the inroads of English and Continental manufactures, and our own inability to get a foothold in neutral markets. Something quite unconnected with the tariff must have happened between 1891 and 1901, and we should say that the first effort of an intelligent foreign critic ought to be to find what that something is.

For ourselves, we do not think the answer difficult. We cannot appeal to other periods, because the combination of circumstances now existing is unique. Quite without exception, our previous epochs of sudden increase in agricultural exports have been characterized by decrease in export of manufactures. Thus, in the period of 1877-1880, when annual shipments of agriculture rose by $226,000,000, the annual outgo of manufactured goods contracted by $33,000,000. The fiscal year 1892 witnessed a gain of $157,000,000 in agricultural exports, but we sent out ten millions less of manufactures. Yet the phenomenal rise of our cotton and cereal

exports in the last four years has been steadily accompanied by expanding manufactured exports.

The explanation, as we take it, lies in the very peculiar conditions of the last five years. They have been, as every one now knows, a period of sudden and world-wide increase in demand from the consumer. This was as true in Europe as in America. Demand not only depleted stocks of goods on hand, but strained existing facilities of production. Nothing is plainer than the fact that English producers were not prepared for it. When they began to make preparations, they were confronted, first with a strike which for months tied up almost the entire machinists' trade, and second with a protracted foreign war which drew off by tens of thousands the country's laboring population. France made little or no effort to regain ascendancy. Germany alone of European States seemed able to meet the situation, yet, with the Russian railway orders on the books of its manufacturers, it was unable to compete with America in time deliveries elsewhere.

This unusual foreign situation happened to coincide with three striking phenomena in America—a wholesale readjustment of prices, as a result of four disappointing business years; an immense increase of available capital, as a result of our lucky harvests; and the introduction of working economies into manufacture, on an unprecedented scale. The outcome of such union of forces was inevitable. During at least two years, American makers filled up foreign orders where there was no one else able to do so. Then, when the foreign manufacturers caught up with their order-books again, they found an alert competitor in possession of the field, which it was not disposed to relinquish.

The real question then remains, how permanent can this movement be, and how will it be affected as conditions change? That they are changing, is already manifest. To-day the foreign demand for manufactured goods has contracted visibly, and foreign manufacturers are seeking a market for their surplus. Our total export of manufactures, in the first five months of 1901, has already decreased nine million dollars in value from last year, and very substantially in quantity. The huge supply of American capital remains, and inflation of prices has been checked; so much is in our favor. But competition in neutral fields is no longer one-sided, and the contest comes squarely down to a question of relative facilities. If our manufacturers have introduced such improvements in methods of production and distribution as will enable them to undersell European makers, and if they are willing to keep down prices, they will hold the markets. When this doubt has been fairly solved, the position will be plainer. We should suppose that, under such circumstances, a wide-awake foreign manufacturer would watch for the chance of regaining what he could of his lost field of export trade, and not limit himself to vague appeals for "union against America."

A DEPLORABLE STRIKE.

The affairs of the National Cash Register Company, whose works are at Dayton, Ohio, are of more than local interest. Probably nowhere in the world have the managers of a corporation shown a more intelligent interest in the welfare of their workmen. The greatest attention has been paid to hygienic and even to æsthetic conditions, not only in and around the factory buildings, but also in the houses and grounds rented to employees. To enumerate the various improvements and conveniences introduced by the company requires a number of pages in Mr. Shuey's recent book on 'Factory People and their Employers.' The experiment has attracted the attention of observers in all parts of the civilized world, and the works at Dayton have been inspected by hosts of visitors, whose testimony has been enthusiastically favorable.

The particulars in which a thoughtful regard for the interests of workmen has been manifested are altogether too numerous to mention; but the solicitude displayed for the welfare of the female employees deserves especial commendation. They enjoy the common benefits of libraries, schools, lectures, etc., and they have a number of special advantages. They begin work at eight o'clock, they have a recess of ten minutes in the morning, an hour for luncheon, another recess of ten minutes, and they cease working at twenty minutes past five. The luncheon is served at a charge of five cents, in a bright, decorated room, furnished with easy-chairs, with a piano, with books and magazines. Access to this room is by an elevator operated exclusively for the women. Elaborately furnished dressing-rooms, with combs, brushes, and even curling-irons with the necessary heating apparatus, are provided. Well-appointed bath-rooms are attached, and there are "rest-rooms," each with five cots, under the care of a matron. Every one is given an apron and a pair of sleeves for the protection of the street dress, the laundry work being done by the company. On Saturday there is a half-holiday and a full day's wages. By arrangement with a street railway, cars are in waiting at the close of the day, so that every one has a seat; and the women are dismissed in time to get away before the men pour forth. The provisions for the men are equally enlightened, if less elaborate.

Until very recently it was supposed that this policy had been highly successful, and that the employees appreciated the efforts of their employers to make their toil not only wholesome, but also agreeable. The community was thought to be exceptionally favored and happy, and the "labor problem" appeared to be solved. Suddenly, more than two months ago, for reasons that have not yet been made clear to the public, the workmen went on strike. The original source of trouble was the washing of the towels, which the company furnished free, by washerwomen who did not belong to a trade-union. A committee of workmen informed the company that the work must be taken from these women and given to a union laundry. Rather than do this, the company gave up furnishing the towels. The next episode was a demand that the compressed-air springs on the doors should be removed, because they had been manufactured by a concern that employed non-union labor. To this demand the company, rather weakly, it would seem, yielded. Presently the demand was made that the company should discharge a man simply because he did not belong to a union, and again the company yielded. It went so far as to pay $15 a week for three months to each of two men discharged for lying and drinking and neglecting their work, rather than have trouble. But when there came a demand that it should reinstate five men dismissed because there was nothing for them to do, the company, after its offer to submit the question to arbitration had been declined, refused to yield further. The members of the two trade-unions interested struck, and the operation of the works necessarily ceased.

It is hard to believe that the formation of trade-unions has in this case benefited their members. A year and a half ago there were no unions, and the relations between employers and workmen were apparently ideal. Since the unions became aggressive, these relations have been strained, and the condition of the workmen has in several respects become worse. The company appears to have been conciliatory in the extreme; but it is, of course, absolutely impossible for it to consent to retain in its employment men whose services are unsatisfactory. Its products would very soon become unsalable if it was obliged to employ inferior workmen. So far as we can ascertain the facts, this was the issue which brought on the strike and which has thus kept 2,300 working people idle from the end of April to the beginning of last week.

And now the workmen have concluded to "return to work as they left it." We very much fear that cannot be. They can, after a year or two, save the $200,000 or $300,000 which they have lost in wages; but they can hardly restore the good feeling and mutual respect that once prevailed. Doubtless the managers will continue to take thought for the welfare of their workmen; but they can-

not feel their former hopeful enthusiasm. They may comply with the demands of duty; but they cannot take their former pleasure in their plans. Nor can the workmen, after so humiliating a defeat, be in the mood to accept aught of favor or to respond to benevolent advances. The loss is not confined to the parties to this controversy; it extends throughout the industrial world. Many people had regarded the conditions at Dayton as ideal, and every one interested in the progress of the working classes will feel discouragement at the situation. We should almost be pleased to learn that the strike was the fault of the employers, for their deliquency, however deplorable, would not impair the merits of their former policy. But we fear that the blame lies with the employees, and that they have done much to becloud the future relations of labor and capital.

MAFIA: OBSERVATIONS BY A NON-MEMBER.—I.

The foreign visitor to Sicily generally knows the word Mafia, and has often enough made up his mind as to its connotation before visiting the island; but if, during his tour, he interrogates men, as well as looks at things, he is certain to find his notions of Mafia changed, and very probably confused. There seems to be a tolerably regular course of mental procedure in this transformation of opinion. On landing at Palermo or Messina (the most frequent ports of entry from the north), the stranger finds the glittering streets, electric lights, movement, show, and external splendor that go to make up the life of any rattling modern town, and very promptly concludes that the Sicilian Mafia of fiction—as described by Mr. Crawford in 'Corleone,' for instance—is as much of a figment as, according to historians, the *Vehmgericht* in 'Anne of Geierstein.' Let us suppose that a good letter of introduction procures him the somewhat rare favor of a dinner, or an evening entertainment, at a *Sicilian* house, where some talkative fellow-guest appears willing to be interviewed. *"Ma, caro Signorino!* the Mafia, it is an invention of the politicians and the journalists! They all impose on the *forestiere*, and give our poor Sicily a bad name. I have lived here all my life, and I give you my word that I know as little about it as you do. Please, for our sake, do not go away with the idea that it plays any real part in our political, social, or private life." All Sicilians talk like this—at first. And if the reader will but examine the sentences carefully, he will see that they contain no direct word of untruth. It is quite possible for the traveller so enlightened, or rather put off the scent, to complete a several weeks' tour of Sicily without perceiving a definite sign of the Mafia, still less of the brigandage of tradition; and yet both exist, though so disguised, so subtly elusive of detection, that, with the most favorable opportunities, the stranger can but hazard a conjecture as to the real nature and minute ramifications of a condition which appears to be rooted deep down in the psychology of the Sicilian people.

It is only little by little that inklings come to him, discreetly suggested by foreign residents, interpreted by himself from scanty indications here and there, whispered by a native who chafes under wrongs, but best of all overheard by a pair of sharp ears in the murmur of a café or a wineshop of doubtful repute. Under this weight of a slowly growing conviction, one becomes aware of the principal cause of that singular sense of constraint from which Sicilian life, even in large towns, seems to suffer so constantly, leading one to draw a breath of relief on quitting the island. There is an oppressiveness in the social atmosphere, in the elaborate punctilio of common address, in the suspicious attitude towards the stranger, in the gloomy looks on so large a proportion of faces; none of which are overcome by the rare outbursts of noisy gayety.

For all these facts, explanations are only too ready. Sicily, we are told, has suffered for centuries under a system of private property-holding so onerous that life has become intolerable for the masses, who, in spite of the extraordinary fertility of the soil, are always on the verge of starvation. Immense *latifundia*, or tracts of country, are in the hands of great lords of the soil, often absentees; and between them and their peasant-farmers (whom they seldom see) come series of factors or agents, with power to collect rents at all costs and hazards. "We are not," said one of the peasants, "quite as badly off as our poor brothers in Calabria, who in the winter time may have to kill the house dog or cat to keep from dying of hunger; our land is rich. But, Signorino, do you know that, in this country of wine, I and my family look on it as a rare luxury, and it is now nearly a year since I tasted meat of any kind?" In many parts of the country, such destitution is undoubtedly increased by the amazing progression of the birth-rate. Girgenti, for instance, and the district round about are noted for the productivity of the women, who become mothers at a very early age, and frequently bear eight or ten children—sometimes more. A little reasonable application of Malthusianism in the right sense would do something towards relieving the pressure of population on food; but the Sicilian climate and the temperament of the people put this beyond all hope. And one might very well urge that, as in India, any vast sensible improvement in the well-being of the people would promptly be followed by further increase, so that the second state would be no better than the first. At the present time, according to all trustworthy accounts, the clergy have lost so much hold over the people that the multiplication is not, as in French Canada, to be ascribed to ecclesiastical influence; it comes rather from that apparently incurable spirit of improvidence which attends human life in warm countries, doubtless fostered by the juxtaposition of crowded domestic habits and quarters.

Outside conditions, too, have added to the widespread penury. An intelligent and talkative Messina lawyer, met by the present writer in a railway carriage, was most communicative on this point:

"Not long ago," said he, "we used to export quantities of sound red wine to France, where it was largely used for mixing purposes; since the new duties, that trade has fallen off more than 50 per cent. The phylloxera has ravaged our vineyards, and we cannot afford expensive foreign grafts. Our oranges and lemons cannot compete on the American market against Florida and California, also protected by duties. The only thing left to us was olive oil, and to that, serious damage has been done by cottonseed oil and other bogus products. I know all this," he added, "for I cannot now sell anything off my own small estate, outside of the island. A few years ago I could add a few hundred francs a year to my income. You can judge how it affects the poor who have no other resources than the land, which, by the by, they do not own."

He might likewise have mentioned that the great sulphur-mining industry of Sicily has of late years suffered severely from competition with other sources of supply, either nearer the markets of the world or more readily accessible. And as the mining population was notoriously in bad straits before, we can easily imagine how little they can bear further reduction. In every branch of her industry Sicily appears to have been smitten.

One of the most commonly talked-of grievances, however, is the administration. It is not the purpose of this paper to enter into a general arraignment of the wastefulness of public expenditure in Italy, of which the signs are evident enough to any one who keeps his eyes open. In Sicily, as well as on the *Continente*, the stranger cannot fail to be struck with the extraordinary numbers of uniformed officials, ill-paid, it is true, but nevertheless from their very plethora a constant drain on the resources of the country. This form of exhaustion is commonly overlooked by those who ascribe the impoverishment of the country to military expenditure alone. One notes, too, that public works on an enormous scale, and at corresponding cost, appear from time to time to be undertaken in places where they are superfluous. For instance, behind the seaport of Trapani rises the rocky mass of Monte San Giuliano (the ancient Eryx), crowned by the little town, or village rather, of the same name. Now, this little settlement is, according to all accounts, slowly and steadily losing its population through emigration to the valleys. There is, indeed, no good reason why any one should continue to live there, for the summit is a bare rock, absolutely unproductive and frequently wrapped in chilling mists. And yet this barren crest is reached by means of a brand-new high road, winding in serpentine fashion like the best Alpine ways, and obviously constructed at immense expense, in all probability as the outcome of political manipulation. It implies, also, postal and diligence service, both of them sources of further expense.

Local administration comes in for its share of abuse. Some years ago, in a little village between Siena and Florence, the writer had the privilege of hearing the account given by a Tuscan artillery officer of his two years' residence in the smaller garrison towns of Sicily. He was fresh from the scene, and consequently eloquent. According to him, the crowding or herding together of families in single rooms arose from the utter impossibility of paying the local taxes on roomier quarters. In one village, he said, the local authorities, headed by the *sindaco* (mayor), had successfully resisted the wishes of the population for water-works, the reason being that the *sindaco* himself owned the village well and charged one sou on every bucket of water drawn from it. Such accounts one hears on all sides.

As a well-known economist wrote some

time ago in the *Nuova Antologia**: "In Italia paga di più chi possiede meno . . . Il povero paga il 50 per cento del carico tributario" (In Italy the poorer the man is, the more he has to pay . . . The poor man pays fifty per cent. of the revenue from taxation). A land-owner from the neighborhood of Ancona informed the writer that all the taxes on his property swallowed up forty-eight per cent. of its returns, and this in the relatively prosperous district of the Adriatic Marches. One can judge what it must be in poor Sicily. When we bear in mind, further, that objects of luxury are often quite unburdened, we wonder at the strange principle that seems to regulate such taxation. There is no tax on a saddle-horse, for that is no source of profit; but every goat on the Sicilian hillside gives its little quota to the Exchequer. A few months ago the municipal authorities of Palermo, being in want of money, suddenly proposed to raise the *dazio*, or octroi duty, on every chicken entering the gates to ten cents (50 centimes); they were stopped in time by ominous threats of a general uprising. Ten cents may appear small enough in New York; in Palermo, it is the price of a cab drive within the city limits. As a further proof of the cheapness of things, which may give the reader some notion of the enormity of the proposed tax, a restaurant-bill is subjoined of a dinner for two at the Cucina Trapani in Palermo, a place of excellent middle-class resort:

Bread	4 cents
Wine	10 cents
Vegetables ..	14 cents
Steak (for one)	12 cents
Veal (for one)	12 cents
Fruit	5 cents
	57 cents (or 2 francs 85)

May 31, 1900.

Both diners were satisfied with food and charges. The waiter considered himself well paid with a tip of six cents.

It is, of course, no easy matter for the tourist to gauge with any minute accuracy the state of feeling produced by this condition of affairs; nevertheless, there are plenty of indications that a submissive frame of mind is the exception rather than the rule. Getting out at the little station of Calatafimi, from which one drives to the ruins of Segesta, the writer was surprised to see that a Sicilian fellow-traveller, dressed as a sporting country gentleman, with shooting-coat and leggins, was met here by a pair of retainers, each armed with a Winchester rifle; and as they took their places in the open carriage which was waiting, one man-at-arms sat in front, the other behind, with guns in readiness. Every landed proprietor or agent visiting an estate is obliged, in certain parts of the island, to take these precautions for his own safety. There is not in Palermo to-day a single man of known wealth who would, without prior arrangements for the privilege with secret unofficial authority, walk alone and unarmed from the city gate to the suburb of Bagheria after nightfall, or extend his daily ride through the orange-groves of the Conca d'Oro.

Such facts as these are very likely to be denied by Sicilians, who are naturally jealous of the good name of their country, and extremely restive under anything like criticism from outsiders, although they are themselves perfectly ready to pass judgment on others. They will point to such and such a nobleman who visits his estates without escort; but they omit to mention that he drives a pair or a four-in-hand of fast thoroughbreds, and covers the few miles between the railway station and his country-house at racing pace; also, that the country-house in question is well supplied with firearms and always ready to repel assailants. Some of the leading scientific men of the country are accompanied on their expeditions by a servant, who carries a gun along with the scientific apparatus. Nonsense, it is replied; that is for sporting purposes. But the gun is a Winchester, and what part of Sicily nowadays contains big game? To any one accustomed to other conditions of existence, it is simply appalling to note that nearly every peasant on his way to or from market, in such districts as Selinunte, or the neighborhood of Sciacca, carries a rifle slung in front of him on the saddle, and ready for immediate use. In the fields and vineyards, the same weapon is constantly observed, apparently laid carelessly on a heap of stones, but always within easy reach. It is not entirely reassuring to be told that the stranger is safe, though this is in one sense quite true. No danger attends the tourist on the beaten tracks (the only ones worth following for sight-seeing), and very little in the untrodden interior; for the simple reason that he is not known. The few hundred or thousand francs that he carries about his person cannot make it worth a brigand's while to run, for their sake, the risk of a close acquaintance with the dreaded carabinieri. But a man who can be held for ransom, while his captor is all the time making arrangements to emigrate the moment the money is paid, stands in a very different position, indeed.

Such brigandage is to-day admittedly all that exists. The bands of robbers are composed of outlaws who, after escaping the talons of justice, have taken refuge in the remoter and less accessible parts of the country, where they lie in wait, or whence they make excursions if any prey worth their while appears on the horizon. During weeks of *chômage*, they necessarily live from hand to mouth, and would doubtless die of hunger were it not for the moral and other support of those who can still move freely and openly in nominally respectable society. But such associations are now extremely rare and weak; the admirable organization of the carabinieri, as well as the daring of the men who compose the corps, could not fail to render the bandit's life less and less practicable. It is a genuine pleasure to hear outside and unbiassed testimony to the self-respect, the sense of duty, and the genial *bonhomie* of as fine a military constabulary as the world at present knows. Their work, however, is not made easier by the peasantry. Were it not for the secret connivance of the country-folk, it would be impossible for the *latitanti* to remain in hiding. A sound public feeling would lead man, woman, or child to reveal what the whole countryside knows. It is true that the criminals can and do use terrorism; but they are not by any means invariably the best shots in a country where practically every one of adult years (who can afford it) goes about armed. No; the real reason of the difficulty of crushing once and for all this lawless resistance is that it is not held to be disgraceful *in se*. Authority and its exercise have become so inseparably linked with the facts of oppression and misrule that the ignorant, yes, and even many of the educated, have come to look upon the law-breaker—robber and assassin though he be—with caressing admiration.

This feeling, which is, of course, not openly confessed to a foreigner, is very fortunately not universal, any more than among schoolboys the admiration for the pirate or our own Western highwaymen in their cowardly "holding-up" of trains. The Sicilian congener of these shows little more of real daring, except when cornered by the carabinieri; in which case a free shot with the chance of death is better than the prospect of Italian penal servitude on Ustica or the Ponza Islands. But, without the tacit sympathy of thousands, how could it be possible for him to live at all in an island with a population of not more than three and a half millions, fairly dispersed? Other facts come in here to support this conviction. Not many years ago, the most notorious of these bravoes actually printed "Capo Brigante" under his *nom de guerre* of Leone, on his visiting-card. Week after week, this ruffian would swagger openly through the Quattro Cantoni at Palermo, even appearing at theatre or opera, where, though his person and crimes were perfectly well known, there were found none to hiss or cry *Fuori!* Why, even to-day it still remains possible to hear respectable people, incapable of his crimes, speak of his courage and gallantry. He was a *galantuomo*, you will hear, because, although for weeks he held a gentleman for ransom, he yet saw that his prisoner was daily supplied with nice black coffee in the morning, and, when circumstances permitted, with a morning paper, *still in its wrapper.*

Moral perversion of judgment, or obliquity of vision, of this character is not uncommon as a social, even an ethnical, phenomenon. We all know races among which in their day the cattle-thief, the smuggler, or the landlord-shooter has been the hero of the people. In every one of these cases, as, indeed, in Sicily, it is easy to point to the external causes that further the growth of the feeling. Intolerable poverty, suffering, and privation in their acuter forms are enough to engender hatred of anything connected with power and law. Only a very shallow psychology, however, stops at that. Sentiments of this kind never take root in a soil not already prepared to receive them; and if to-day the masses who toil without enjoying would but show, singly and collectively, that they are disposed to respect regulation or ordinance, the task of philanthropist and legislator would be simplified.

*October and November, 1899.

THE NINTH JUBILEE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW.

EDINBURGH, June 17, 1901.

The University of Glasgow celebrated the 450th anniversary of its foundation on June 12, 13 and 14. The festival may rank with the celebration of the 500th anniversary of the University of Heidelberg in 1886 and the 1,000th anniversary of the University of Bologna a year later, and with the similar functions at Dublin, Halle, St. Petersburg—not to speak of Harvard's 250th anniversary in 1886, of Columbia's centennial in 1887, and of Princeton's more recent sesquicentennial. Yale's bicentennial, the reader will remember, is close at hand.

In the fifteenth century three of the four Scottish universities and at least a score of

Continental universities were founded. That at St. Andrews, 1411, was the earliest in Scotland, following hard upon that of Leipzig, which was founded in 1409. The University of Glasgow, second in Scotland, was established in 1451, by a bull of Pope Nicholas V., at the solicitation of James II., who in turn was urged by William Turnbull, Bishop of Glasgow. In order to "ensure that the classes should begin with some degree of celebrity," the Pope "granted a universal indulgence to all faithful Christians who should visit the Cathedral of Glasgow in 1451." The town then had fewer than three thousand inhabitants, but was chosen as a place of note, with a moderate climate and abundance of provisions. The Pope provided for a *Studium Generale*, not only in Theology and in Canon and Civil Law, but also in Arts, with all privileges, honors, and immunities that had been granted to the University of Bologna, which thus became in a sense the model of the new institution in Scotland. The scarlet color of the hoods of the graduates and of the gowns of the undergraduates, which was adopted soon after the establishment of the University, is said to be connected with the papal order. The students of the University are still divided into four "nations," which vote separately in the choice of the Lord Rector, although the nations are not such in the strict sense of the term, as in old times at Paris, but are simply different parts of Scotland.

The University of Glasgow was established, then, a year or two after the invention of the art of printing, and a couple of years before the capture of Constantinople by the Turks, in a century of great mental activity. It was not at once provided with an endowment. As one of the historians has said, "it came into the world as naked as any individual," but speedily students were gathered, and within three or four years arrangements had to be made for their housing. Naturally most of the teachers were connected closely with the Church of Rome, and after the Reformation the remnant of the University is said to have consisted of a principal, three regents (or tutors), four students, an *œconomus* (or steward), a cook, and a janitor, with a yearly income of £25. But in 1573 the Town Council transferred to the University certain endowments which had been put in their care by Queen Mary; the well-known and influential Andrew Melville, who had already lectured in Paris, was called from Geneva to be Principal in 1574; and in 1577 a new charter (*Nova Erectio*) was obtained, with new privileges. Money came in slowly, however, and in 1686 a regent of Humanity (*i. e.*, tutor of Latin) was allowed to depart with his salary of £20 for five years in arrear, because the entire college revenue was "super-expendit," although that was not far from the time when no student was allowed to introduce into the college even a relative or a servant who did not understand the scholastic Latin in which all their conversation was to be held, and we may suppose a "regent of Humanity" to have been sadly needed.

Of the earliest University buildings little seems to be known. In 1631 the college buildings in High Street, which are now the college station of the underground railway, were begun. In the sixteenth century, students of sufficient means were expected to live in the college building, to dine at the Regents' table, and to be under strict discipline. One of the regents made a round, morning and evening, to see that all was in order. But Boyd, who was called as Principal in 1615, made one of the conditions of his acceptance that he should not be bound to live with the students and to administer to them corporal punishment. About Melville's time an effort was made to change the system of "regenting," by which a class was assigned to a single instructor, who should teach them in all branches of learning; but the conservatives did not yield readily, and this system continued in Scotland until 1727, as it did in American colleges exactly one hundred years longer. That the instruction was not very advanced is indicated by the story that in 1704 the trial of the attainments of a candidate for a professorship of Greek was the analysis of ten previously prescribed verses of Homer's Iliad.

The chief growth of the University has been in the nineteenth century, although Adam Smith, Adam Reid, and William Hunter brought fame to it in the previous century. In 1800 the students numbered about 600; now they number 2,033—1,692 being men and 341 women. Of the men, 662 are in Arts, 600 in Medicine, 196 in Law, 161 in Science, 41 in Theology. Of the women, in Queen Margaret College, 271 are in Arts, 62 in Medicine, 6 in Science, 2 in Arts and Medicine. In the year 1899-1900, 395 degrees were conferred, of which 116 were M.A., 101 M.B., 93 Ch.B., 19 M.D., 18 B.D. the University has 31 professors, 35 lecturers, and 40 assistants and demonstrators. Women were first admitted to study for degrees in Scottish universities in 1892. Almost immediately the buildings, grounds, and endowments of Queen Margaret College, which had been established in 1883 for the higher education of women, were offered to the University; and while the college is dissolved, the name survives as designating the part of the University buildings and grounds which is devoted to the education of women. The Woman's Medical School is entirely conducted in Queen Margaret College. Some instructors meet only the women of the undergraduates, but in other classes the two sexes are together. In 1868 the present King Edward VII. laid the foundations of the new University buildings on Gilmore Hill, which was not then included within the limits of the city of Glasgow, and these were erected at a cost of about $2,500,000, of which private munificence furnished more than half. The Marquis of Bute provided for the erection of the University chapel, which is called, after him, Bute Hall, and where most of the functions of the jubilee were held. The entrance archway and part of the fronts of the old college building erected in 1631 were brought to the new site, and, with some modifications, were reërected as a lodge.

For the celebration of the ninth jubilee of the University of Glasgow, scholars gathered from every land. Two hundred institutions of learning were represented by nearly three hundred delegates, while other men of distinction came as specially invited guests. A list would be tedious, but it would include the names of Lord Kelvin, Lord Lister, Lord Dufferin, Lord Balfour, Sir Richard Jebb, Sir Henry Roscoe, Sir Joseph Hooker, Sir Norman Lockyer, Sir John Evans, Baron Reay, Lieutenant-General Sir Archibald Hunter, Sir Archibald Geikie, Henry Jackson and Swete of Cambridge, Mahaffy and Bury of Dublin, the President of the Institute of France, Andrew Carnegie, and others whose names are almost or quite as well known. Of all foreign countries, the United States was most largely represented, twenty-eight institutions having delegates. Not many German scholars were present, since the festival fell in the middle of the academic semester, but France sent an imposing delegation. All wore official robes, in the midst of which the black academic gowns of the Americans seemed rather sombre. Lord Kelvin was clearly the one whom all most delighted to honor. Not to speak of his position in the world of science, his relation to the University of Glasgow is unparalleled; he was admitted to the University in 1834, when he was only in the eleventh year of his age, he served as professor from 1846 to 1899, and now is enrolled as a Research Fellow of the University. He represented the Royal Society and several foreign societies, he made an address on James Watt before the graduation exercises, and proposed the toast of Other Universities at the Corporation banquet which concluded the formal exercises.

The festival opened with a brief but impressive commemoration service in the cathedral on Wednesday morning, when the minister of the cathedral preached an appropriate sermon. That afternoon was devoted to the reception of addresses in Bute Hall. The delegates were carefully marshalled in an adjoining room, and were welcomed by Principal Story, the Vice-Chancellor of the University, in a tactful address, in which he referred to the relations and ties which had existed between the other institutions and countries and his own. Turning to our countrymen, he said:

"When the Pilgrim Fathers crossed the Atlantic they carried with them not only as concentrated an essence of Protestant religion and political liberalism as could in those, or indeed in any, days be carried in one vessel across perilous seas, but also that sturdy respect for knowledge and learning which leavened the austerity of the austere Puritans' views of life, and kept their minds free from the stagnation of mere sectarianism. By and by it embodied itself in Harvard, in Yale, in Princeton; and, expanding with the expansion of the great American States since their independence was achieved, has planted over the length and breadth of that huge country institutions which, in their thorough organization and their opulence of resource, attest at once the educational science and the generous liberality of its citizens."

This function of presentation of addresses occupied three hours, although the delegates were not expected to speak, but only to offer their written greetings. The addresses were prevailingly in Latin, although some were in English, and others in Sanskrit or in Japanese. A chorus of students sang the old "Gaudeamus" as the procession entered the hall, and a verse of the appropriate national hymn or song as each group of delegates was led up to be presented. The delegates were introduced by the Clerk of the Senate, Dr. Stewart, whose voice remained strong and clear to the close of the function.

On Wednesday evening an "At Home" was given at Queen Margaret College, and a "gaudeamus" or smoking-concert was held by the students at their Union, where informal speeches were made by Lord Balfour, the Bishop of Ripon, and others. On Thursday morning, after addresses by Lord Kelvin on James Watt and by Professor

Smart on Adam Smith, the Vice-Chancellor proceeded to the conferring of honorary degrees, twenty-two D.D.'s and one hundred and nine LL.D.'s. The graduates were arranged alphabetically in the two classes, and were conducted by stewards (or ushers) before the Vice-Chancellor. The Clerk of the Senate called each in a loud voice, and the Vice-Chancellor placed a cap upon and murmured a brief formula over the head of the recipient of the degree as he knelt before him. Then the receiver of the degree had a hood put about his neck, and signed his name in the book of the University. That each should be so clearly introduced was well, for all present were interested to identify men of distinction whom they had not known. A specially hearty welcome was given to the Bishop of Ripon, to Lord Dufferin, to Lord Balfour, to Andrew Carnegie (who was presented as one "whose name would descend to all generations of Scottish students as the most munificent benefactor of the universities of his native country"), to Lieut-Gen. Hunter, and to three ladies who received degrees—Miss Emily Davies, the founder of Girton College, Mrs. Campbell, the originator of the movement for the higher education of women in Glasgow, and Miss Weston, whose labors have been devoted to the good of sailors. Almost exactly one-tenth of the honorary degrees fell to scholars of the United States. Professor Briggs and Professor Francis Brown of Union Theological Seminary were among the twenty-two who received the degree of D.D., and the degree of LL.D. was conferred on Farlow of Harvard, Seymour of Yale, Baldwin of Princeton, White of Cornell, Wenley of Michigan, C. K. Adams of Wisconsin, Gayley of California, Meyer of Clark, Dr. Barkan of Cooper Medical College of San Francisco, and the Hon. Charlemagne Tower, United States Ambassador to Russia. Clearly in most cases the degree was determined by the institution which was represented, though the average distinction of the recipient is high.

On Thursday afternoon the new Botanical Building was opened with an address by Sir Joseph Hooker, whom Lord Lister, in moving a vote of thanks, called "the principal pillar and ornament of botanical science in the world." Sir Joseph began by referring to his recollections of the study of botany in the first quarter of the last century! A *Conversazione* was held in Bute Hall on Thursday evening, at which more than two thousand people were present in gorgeous array. On Friday morning an address by Professor Young on William Hunter was read by Professor Bower, and was followed by an organ recital. That afternoon the guests of the University were invited to a reception at the Art Galleries, within the grounds of the International Exhibition, which lies at the foot of the hill on which the University stands. On Friday evening the Corporation of the city of Glasgow gave a banquet in the great hall of the municipal buildings, in which nearly five hundred took part. The speaking after dinner was good. The Provost, who presided, is a natural orator, and all were glad to hear Lord Dufferin, Lord Kelvin, and the others who spoke. The great speech of the evening, however, was made by Sir Richard Jebb, who said, among other things:

"The universities of our country are feeling more or less the pressure of the demand which is sometimes vaguely called utilitarian. We are told from many quarters and in many tones that the subjects and methods of university study must be brought into more direct and immediate relations with the pursuits of professional careers, This is a demand which the universities cannot resist, and is founded largely in reason, It is a demand which many of our universities and colleges are doing their best to meet, but it also imposes on them a clear duty. Their duty as universities and as seats of the highest education is not merely to yield to that demand; their duty is to guide and instruct it. One function of the university is to safeguard the intellectual standard of the nation—to take heed, when the demand for useful knowledge is made in relation to higher education, that the term shall not be misinterpreted or degraded. It is the function of the university to explain what is utility in regard to the higher education. The truly useful studies of the higher education are those which develop the faculties of the mind and discipline the intelligence."

On the same evening as the Corporation banquet, the students of the University gave a ball which was largely attended even by those guests who first went to the banquet. In the whole festival the students had an interesting but not very large part. The necessary limitations of space prevented their free admission to the functions. But since the festival fell in the time of the summer session, comparatively few undergraduates were in town, and one hundred tickets to each function were given to them to be distributed by lot; sixty more undergraduates were present as members of the choir, and others still as ushers. At the graduation exercises they were not to be restrained entirely, but no one could complain of their singing "Soldiers of the Queen" when Lieut.-Gen. Hunter was presented for a degree, or "For he's a jolly good fellow" on the introduction of the Bishop of Ripon, who had won their hearts at their "gaudeamus." On Tuesday evening, before the formal exercises of the week, the students had a torchlight procession, most of them carried in open wagons or brakes, in motley array, representing men and women of all nations and times. The "gaudeamus" or "smoking concert" on Wednesday evening was also in the students' charge and for them, and a large number of them accompanied the guests and authorities of the University on an all-day excursion down the Clyde and through the Kyles of Bute on Saturday. Seventy-four student delegates were present also from other universities. This expedition on the Clyde afforded an opportunity for familiar, leisurely intercourse such as could have been found in no better way. Those who had been quartered in different parts of the city met conveniently. The day was beautiful, and in general the festival was "very favored" in its weather, in spite of a few showers.

The hospitality of the University authorities was lavish, and seemed extended with particularly generous hand to the Americans. The complicated arrangements for the festival were so perfected that every function moved smoothly and without haste. At first, for a few hours, some of the delegates desired more exact information as to their duties and privileges, but this information came before it was needed. No one in the gathering of distinguished men could have presided with greater calm dignity than the Vice-Chancellor, Dr. Story, whose imposing figure, strong face, and deep voice gave weight to all that he did and said. One of the few regrets which one may feel with regard to the festival is that none of the foreign delegates could be heard, with the exception of the Count d'Alviella of Brussels and the President of the Institute of France. Of course, however, only a few could be heard, at most, and the choice may have seemed difficult. If the whole body of hosts and guests could have been seen together in the open air, the sight would have been impressive, and would have seemed to bring the function into closer relations with the people of the city, especially if a procession had been possible to the commemoration service in the Cathedral. The only procession was the simple passing from one room to another. But such slight regrets are hidden by the appreciative enjoyment of a gathering and exercises which have formed and strengthened ties between scholars and institutions. Σ.

Notes.

Mr. Sidney S. Rider announces, in his Providence *Book Notes*, that he has completed volume one of a history of the Dorr war, or rather "a history of the efforts in this State to form a Constitutional Government," culminating in the Dorr war. Hence the first period treated lies some centuries back—1636-1664; the second will embrace 1665-1790; the third 1790-1843. The exact title is 'The Development of Constitutional Government in Rhode Island,' with a final chapter on Constitutional events from 1843 to 1901. Mr. Rider's first-hand sources on the Dorr war are unsurpassed in importance and extent. Subscriptions are solicited.

Odd for a bookseller's subscription offer is that of Mr. Elliot Stock, 62 Paternoster Row, London, E. C., for facsimiles of the famous Alfred Jewel "in three metals—copper gilt, silver gilt, and gold," at prices ranging from thirteen guineas to one.

Out of the way, too, is Mr. R. H. Russell's portfolio of pictures by F. T. Richards, "The Royal Game of Golf," hand-colored prints of single figures in old-time costume, designed primarily for framing.

The thin volume entitled 'A Century of Caste,' and edited by Judge A. N. Waterman (Chicago: M. A. Donohue & Co.), appears to be a faithful transcript of the reminiscences of an ex-slave who still lingers, near the century mark, to make comparison of the cruelties of slavery in her girlhood and womanhood with those of caste at the South at the present time. Judge Waterman has added the statutes of South Carolina of 1834 penalizing the instruction of slaves, with similar provisions in other States, and (more shameful) the Black Code of Illinois in force "for many years prior thereto and at the beginning of the Civil War," the code under which Lincoln was reared, and from which he never fully revolted. In 1862 a majority of 175,000 voters were in favor of incorporating this code in the State Constitution. Indiana had a similar code up to the close of the rebellion.

In 'Blue Shirt and Khaki,' by James F. J. Archibald (Silver, Burdett & Co.), will be found an interesting and pleasing series of comparative studies of the types of British and American soldiers as the author saw them in Cuba and South Africa. Incidentally the later pages are given to personal experiences in the war with the Boers, but the more important part of the book consists of observations of men of the two

armies under similar conditions of field service, with a sympathetic wish to give to the English soldier his entire dues of efficiency as a fighting force. The British army compares unfavorably with that of the United States in the moral and physical character of its material, and in the ability of the rank and file to carry on belligerent operations by themselves. When the British officer is gone, under the disabilities of battle, the private is helpless and easily persuaded to surrender to an inferior enemy. The English equipments are cumbrous and ill-suited to the comfort and health of the men; but the British supply organization is better than ours. The conservatism which compels the soldier to campaign without shelter-tent or poncho in a country like South Africa, where drenching storms are frequent and protracted, is justly condemned; but the Englishman keeps himself in more presentable form under such disadvantages than do our troops. It is agreeable to read the author's praises of the new luxurious Government transport ships, such as the *Sumner*, in which the author travelled to Port Said; yet, while eulogizing this new order of affairs in the Quartermaster's Department, he seizes an excellent opportunity to urge the wisdom of enlarging transportation facilities for sudden emergencies by granting naturalization to foreign-built ships bought by Americans.

We have, from Edward Arnold of London, Major-Gen. Sir H. E. Colvile's account of the operations, in the western portion of the field of the Boer-British war, in the spring of 1900, of the Ninth Division of Field-Marshal Roberts's army, formed when Roberts reorganized the army for the relief of Kimberly; Gen. Colvile having previously commanded the Guard Brigade. This military arrangement was of short duration, from February to June, and the brevity of Gen. Colvile's command was ascribed by popular sentiment in London, and perhaps in the army, to the dissatisfaction of the General-in-chief with the spirit shown by Colvile towards certain minor coöperative movements, two of which especially resulted disastrously to the British forces. These were an ambuscade at Sanna's Post, on the 31st of March, where Gen. Broadwood lost 330 men, seven guns, and a hundred wagons, and a similar misadventure to Col. Spragge's 500 yeomanry who surrendered to De Wet on the 28th of May. Students of our American civil war will recall some notable illustrations of apparent injustice done to highly efficient officers by their superiors in the midst of active campaigns where swift judgments must be made by the responsible commander (the case of Warren removed at Five Forks by Sheridan is a distinguished instance); and that of Gen. Colvile may come in this category, although he was not relieved from his command in an abrupt and offensive manner. Gen. Colvile tells of the achievements of his men during this short campaign, with a moderate and restrained temper, the evident object of publication being to enable the writer to set forth his view of the facts, and thus to appeal to the enlightened judgment of his countrymen when a military court of inquiry was undesirable.

'Poole's Historical Atlas of Modern Europe' (H. Frowde) has reached part xxvii., the later numbers appearing with provoking slowness as the end approaches. The maps contained in the present part are: Europe at the Accession of the Emperor Charles V., 1519, by Mr. C. W. C. Oman; England and Wales, showing the Parliamentary Representation of England and Wales according to the Reform Act of 1832, by the editor; and Italy *c.* 1060-1167, by Miss Lina Eckenstein. Of these the second is the only unique map. The letterpress accompanying it contains not only an account of the changes in representation effected by the act of 1832, but also a brief summary of later alterations, the whole forming a most useful piece of work. It is unfortunate that an insufficient color "explanation" accompanies the otherwise satisfactory map of Italy, and none the map of Europe *temp.* Charles V.

The underlying thought in the boy's question, Which was the largest island before Australia was discovered? might apply to appendicitis. That particular affection doubtless has always held the same relation to human health that it does now, notwithstanding it has so recently been inscribed upon the nosological atlas. Those who make light of the modern surgeon because he so frequently finds this newly-named disease and eradicates it, are apt to confuse its discovery with its existence. They forget that, simultaneously with its recognition in our homes, has been the disappearance of the older and grave inflammation of the bowels, which, when sufficiently advanced to be identified, was nearly always fatal. They overlook the accuracy of diagnosis which permits this identification, and especially neglect the wonderful extent to which asepsis makes practicable the impossibilities of the last generation. Dr. C. B. Lockwood's 'Appendicitis, its Pathology and Surgery' (Macmillan), might almost be designated "The Philosophy of Appendicitis." It is comprehensive but not diffuse, technical but not abstruse, as becomes a thoughtful book which at every step represents experience and reflection. The difficulties and possible errors in diagnosis are well illustrated, for often it is quite as important to know what to avoid as what to do. The last line of p. 195 contains a most amusing typographical error in "gurgling and bauba rigma." "Bauba rigma" may well seem a recondite expression, intelligible only to the inner circle, until one imagines that the author dictated to a stenographer, who reproduced the approximate sound of the unaccustomed syllables which compose "borborygmi."

The host of seekers after the missing genealogical link between the mother country and the United States should keep an eye on Mr. J. Henry Lea's "Genealogical Gleanings from the English Archives" in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* (Boston). The instalment in the current July issue opens up the promising Bristol archives—completely, so far as record of apprentices to New England goes, for volumes 6-11. Among these are two apprentices in 1670 to John Alden, and it is suggested that this most prolific of the *Mayflower* ancestors may be found to have originated in the west of England. Other interesting trails are struck in the case of historic names.

La Revue criticises the New York *Bookman* for its "amusing lapse" in attributing to Jean Coquelin the authorship of the play of "Quo Vadis?" But in its own notice of this magazine it is guilty of an equal blunder, when describing a certain article as dealing with Charlotte Yonge, "the author of 'John Halifax.'"

Mr. Samuel Butler's fantastic work on 'The Authoress of the Odyssey' (London, 1897) serves the veteran philologist, Dr. A. Baumeister, as a starting-point for two articles on the Homeric poems in Nos. 109 and 110 of *Beilage zur Allgemeinen Zeitung*. It may be imagined that Dr. Baumeister does not share the eccentric English scholar's belief in Nausicaa's authorship of the Odyssey; he is nevertheless seriously interested in many of Butler's observations. What renders the articles of especial interest to students of Homer, however, is the theory, advanced by the writer, that the elaboration of the romantic scene in the land of the Phæacians is to be ascribed to a poet whose home was in the Ionian city of Phocæa.

The discoveries of the last century have shown that there was a basis in fact for some of the most remarkable African marvels related by Homer and Herodotus. A Berlin philologist, Dr. Th. Zell, has just enunciated the theory that the Polyphemus of the Odyssey is to be identified with the gorilla, whose strength and size are in harmony with the Homeric description. He interprets the name as indicating the terrible cries uttered by this animal, and lays even greater stress upon the use of the word Cyclops, inasmuch as roundness of the eyes is the physical trait which especially distinguishes the ape from the man. Dr. Zell supports his contention by a quotation from the 'Periplus Hannonis,' showing that Hanno met near Sierra Leone some gorillas which he describes as "savage men."

Petermann's *Mitteilungen*, No. 5, contains a summary of the researches of Dr. J. Hiort in respect to the edible fishes of the North Sea. He treats especially of their migrations, and his observations lead him to the conclusion that they are practically inexhaustible. The geological results, mainly, of a journey in the Kirghiz Steppe on the northern shore of the Caspian, are given by A. F. Stahl.

In the latest issue of the *Archaeologisches Jahrbuch*, the brothers, Alfred and Justus Koerte, publish a preliminary report of their archæological finds last season in the ruins of the city Gordieion in northern Phrygia. A leading object was to discover the shrine where Alexander the Great cut the Gordian Knot, and the archæologists are convinced that they have found this in a small temple, 20 metres long and 11 metres wide, of which, however, little but the foundations and roof-tiles have been preserved, these evidently belonging to the Eastern Greek style of structure of the sixth century. No sculpture of any kind was found except a torso of a Siren, in archaic Greek style. Nothing of the old city walls was discovered. The most important find was a series of five burial chambers, about 14 metres in height, which contained an abundance of tile utensils, and some in bronze and iron. The greatest curiosity among these is a sort of kettle with a sieve, which the brothers Koerte consider to have been used as beer vessels. These utensils range from the eighth and seventh century to the later Greek period. The particulars of the work done in Gordieion will be given in a special volume soon to be published.

The Parliamentary paper on Slavery in Zanzibar is an answer to the charges frequently made that the emancipation decree is practically a dead letter through the lukewarmness of the British officials. By this decree, issued April 6, 1897, the legal status of slavery was abolished, and any slave could obtain his freedom on applica-

tion. In the first twenty months some six thousand out of a slave population of 100,000, availed themselves of the privilege, but in the last two years only 3,757 and 1,685, respectively—making in all about twelve thousand freedmen. It should be said that the recent epidemic of smallpox, in which twenty thousand perished, has seriously checked the progress of emancipation. This slow working of the decree is accounted for by the unwillingness of the slaves to exchange the comforts and freedom from responsibility of a condition of servitude for the risks and hardships, and especially the social ostracism, to which the freedman is inevitably exposed. The picture drawn of slave life, in which only fifteen hours a week of work is required for the possession of a house and land and care in sickness, reminds one of the pro-slavery arguments urged in this country a half-century ago. It is doubtless a true picture, now in Zanzibar and Pemba as then in South Carolina, of the condition of slaves who are so fortunate as to have good masters, but its dark side is not shown. The assertion is made that the decree has been beneficial in elevating the character of the slaves through the knowledge of their right to be free, and in encouraging a spirit of enterprise among the Arab planters, who now take a close personal interest in their plantations instead of leaving all to their overseers. The Government is also giving efficient aid to the emancipation movement by educating the freed population in industrial schools.

An interesting summary of the report of the customs committee of the lower house on the proposed tariff on corn in France is given in the Consular Reports for June. It contains a résumé of the arguments for an increase by the agricultural societies, the distillers of beet-root, etc., and those against by the representatives of the industries using corn, transportation companies, and seventeen chambers of commerce. There is also an account of the agricultural societies or farmers' syndicates whose object is the promotion of agriculture by giving instruction through lectures and libraries, buying and renting the best implements, and securing markets for the sale of products. The societies number 2,067, with a membership of half a million, including all classes, from the nobles and wealthy land-owners to the farm-laborers. It is believed that their influence will be felt in checking the growth of socialism, and in fixing the rural population to the soil by dignifying farm labor and increasing its profits.

—The multiplication of cyclopædias and compendiums of home biography must be accounted for by diverse tastes and viewpoints among those who read, and by the importance attached to books of reference by those who purchase, whether they read or not. 'Lamb's Biographical Dictionary of the United States' (Boston: James H. Lamb Co.) nearly reaches the middle of H in its third volume, and thus bids fair to be completed in three, or at most four, more large volumes. Its appearance is good and even impressive; the writing is correct and businesslike, the proof-reading careful, the illustrations numerous; precedents have been followed, but not slavishly. A work of these pretensions of course challenges comparison with 'Appletons' Cyclopædia of American Biography,' which has long been standard in this field. Lamb's volumes (at least in the "University Edition") are somewhat bigger and heavier; the type is larger and less closely set, the margins are wider; but the size of column is about the same, and the number of pages and of lines to the page somewhat less. As to the matter, Lamb makes a nearer approach to democratic equality; Presidents and the like are handled less extensively, men and women of minor fame more liberally; very brief notices are few. Families are not grouped as in Appleton, though sometimes a son or other relative, not deemed equal to a separate title, gets a few lines under the paternal caption. As to number of names, take "Adams" as a test case: each book has forty-two of these, but only thirty-one are the same in both; according to Lamb, eleven former worthies have lapsed from national remembrance, and as many new ones risen to take their places. Judging by this, the number of persons here celebrated must be nearly the same as in Appletons' original six volumes, but almost a quarter of them have come to the front within the last fifteen years. The Canadians, Mexicans, South Americans, etc., who made a percentage of Appletons' subjects are here disregarded, and with them go a good many ex-celebrities of our own land whose fame may be supposed to be shelf-worn. Parents and ancestors are named as far as may be.

—The publishers, or their editor, Mr. John Howard Brown, profess a definite plan, and they seem to have carried it out. A casual survey detects no painful marks of haste, looseness, or incongruity. True, the minor notices of doubtful survivals are not always accurate; but that is the rule, not the exception. In such matters one book of reference usually copies from another—not the words, if its editor's eyes are open, but the alleged facts. What if a man was born or died in February, and the types say the previous December? The chances are that few will know and nobody will care. Even when an exceptionally strenuous conscience goes to the sources of information, it often turns out that doctors differ and certainty is unattainable. What if a man scored with one novel and failed with others? Say that all his books were very popular; it is kinder. What if he won a single battle, and was drunk and incapable at the next? *De mortuis;* if he was not too publicly exposed, let the charitable tradition stand that he was uniformly vigilant and heroic. Herein this Dictionary may be better than its predecessors, being young and yet to bear the test of time and use. But these large works are the joint product of many workmen, not always highly selected or highly paid; to detect every error, the editor should be omniscient; and it is well when the dryasdust critic, moping over some unimportant notice put in for form's sake, does not convict its weary writer of dozing at his work and repeating what he had said ten lines above. But Mr. Brown and his contributors seem to have kept awake: they admit little for form's sake, and aim to deal solely with living reputations and largely with living persons. Their business is with facts, not with opinions; and if the salt of criticism be lacking, there is at least plain and free speech, as when we are told that Bret Harte's first story was denounced by the *Overland* printer as "irreligious and improper," that Julian Hawthorne at Harvard "was better known in athletics than in the classroom," and that his father's writings for some time "kept the wolf from the door, but gave no feasts." If one could sometimes wish for more of these enlivening personalities and less of leisurely and trivial detail, it is yet probably true that most people read a book of reference for facts, and not to see how well the writers can write. Those who like to get at the soul of men and things can find this done—on some European subjects—in Chambers and the Britannica; and such as prefer everyday facts "plain" and unclogged by explanations, will be disturbed by no vain philosophizing here.

—Volume iii. of the 'Letters to Washington' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) continues the series from 1758 to 1770. At the opening, Washington is serving with Bouquet in the slow advance upon Fort Du Quesne, an advance due more to the remembrance of Braddock's mishap than to the real difficulties of taking the fort. The Virginian, whose advice as to road had been set aside, chafed under the delay, and called out from his correspondents echoes of his own freely expressed dissatisfaction. It was on the whole a dreary record of camp minutiæ, of contests with the wagoners, and differences with the commissaries. Even Bouquet wrote, after receiving some cattle for the army: "They are extremely bad, and I hope we shall have no more such cattle from the contractors." The Virginia Assembly, in a spasm of economy, voted to recall the regiment commanded by Washington—a measure which would have prevented it from sharing in the honor of taking Fort Du Quesne. Fortunately, the Governor persuaded the Assembly to suspend the resolution, and the occupation of the fort made further action unnecessary. Washington now determined to withdraw from the army, and tasted the sweets of deserved praise. "The fear of losing you," wrote Stewart, "has struck a general Grief and Dejection in both officers and Soldiers." An "humble address" from the officers of the Virginia regiment is full proof of the high estimation in which he was held, and is something more than a formal utterance of laudation. It has the note of sincerity to the full.

—His marriage followed, and he at once went to Mount Vernon, where he led the life of a planter until the first Continental Congress was called. As a member of the House of Burgesses, he was naturally made the spokesman for the colonial regiments still in service, and their wants were first laid before him to enlist his activity in behalf of favorable action. At the same time he became interested in the Western lands offered as a reward for colonial service—an interest which endured to the end of his life. His ward, young Custis, also required some attention, and was put in the charge of Jonathan Boucher. With these many cares and occupations he was much engrossed, and the entries from his ledger which Mr. Hamilton gives are evidence of his minute attention to all concerns. We wish it were possible to find some improvement in the editing of the letters. The editor still permits himself to strain after inexplicable effects. Robert Stewart was not an illiterate man, and could not be placed in the same class with the overseer Hardwick. No less than forty-two letters from Stewart are contained in this volume, offering a ready test of his ability to spell,

Why he should be made to write "cas" and "purchass" is not easily understood. A hasty ending of a word is capable of a proper interpretation. So Hardwick, who is certainly an extraordinary writer, is made to say "mulch" where "mutch" is clearly intended, and "very elley spare," an unintelligible phrase until the long form of *s* is recalled, when a variant of *easily* suggests itself. The "4 Oyrs" on p. 170 surely should be "4 Offrs." Errors like these cast much doubt on the accuracy of the text.

—Margaretha von Poschinger's three-volume biography of 'Kaiser Friedrich,' published in 1898-1900, is condensed by Sidney Whitman into a single English volume, 'Life of the Emperor Frederick' (Harper & Brothers). The work is based on the sources and is refreshingly free from sensationalism. It ignores or destroys all the unhistorical legends that have grown up about the hero's person. No attempt is made to arrogate to him the credit of establishing the German Empire. Nothing is left of the alleged critical differences of opinion between him and his Chancellor during his brief reign, nor of the rumors of intrigues concerning the treatment of his last illness. There was no plot between the German physicians and the Conservatives to exclude the dying Frederick from the throne; there was no determination on the part of his wife to seat him on the throne, even at the cost of his life, by securing a false diagnosis from an English expert. For Frederick nothing more is claimed than is fairly his—a life of dignity and mainly subordinate usefulness, with an occasional intervention of prime importance, as when he supported the policy of granting moderate terms to Austria and the South German States, in 1866 (pp. 280, 281), and when he agitated for the imperial title in 1870 (pp. 339-341). As regards the reconciliation between the Crown and the Prussian Liberals in 1866, it has long been known that his rôle was a passive one (pp. 281, 282), and that Bismarck carried his point against the Prussian Conservatives and obtained the King's authority to ask for a bill of indemnity simply by utilizing Frederick's known tendencies (pp. 298, 299). Finally, Frederick's support of the alliance with Austria in 1879, which has been described as decisive in securing his father's reluctant assent, is now stated (p. 418) to have been without influence. William ratified the treaty only because Bismarck threatened to resign if his policy were not accepted, and because the old Emperor "was averse to ministerial changes." Mr. Whitman tells us, in his introduction, that it has been his aim to select, from the German biography, "such portions as seemed most likely to interest English readers." "English" is here used in a national rather than a linguistic sense, as is shown by the disproportionate space which Mr. Whitman allots to Frederick's British courtship and marriage, and to the relations between Frederick's household and the British Court. In other respects, the condensation will be found acceptable to American readers; and the translation is exceptionally good. The index should be fuller; for purposes of reference it is far from sufficient.

—"The Political Obstacles to Missionary Success in China," is the title of a lecture delivered in Hong Kong by Mr. Alexander Michie on April 16, 1901, and now reprinted in a pamphlet of twenty-five pages. The author has lived more than thirty years in China, and written two well-known books. Small as it is, the lecture is a real contribution to our knowledge of the underlying causes of the chronic troubles in China which may be rightly credited to missionary activity. With calm mastery of the whole subject, Mr. Michie shows that "what the Chinese object to in foreign missions and will resist to the death is their political pretensions," which includes the sphere of social relations. In China, the most important politics are those of the family and the village. If missionaries can live on good terms with the local communes and keep clear of the tribal feuds, the higher Chinese authorities will be only too glad to leave them unmolested. Notorious as is the open defiance of the Roman Catholic missionaries, who claim official rank and interfere directly in the administration of justice, the Protestant missionary, with more subtle but equally real opposition to Chinese judicial methods, is often unwarily led to compromise himself in disreputable transactions. The Chinaman who to native cunning adds the benefit of foreign instruction, "is several degrees 'cuter than his heathen brother." When it is considered that the whole system of inland missions for the last forty years has been carried on under the ægis of a clause smuggled into the Chinese text of the French treaty, in 1860, at a time when China dared not face another war with Great Britain and France, one not only can see the essential dishonesty of the whole proceeding, but need not wonder at the constant missionary troubles, with their attendant crimes and outrages, during the past thirty-five years. In a word, Great Britain and the United States opened the door to their countrymen to overrun China, without taking adequate steps to control their operations. When, in 1871, an attempt was made by the Chinese Government to supply the want of a missionary concordat, not final, but inviting discussion, the Governments of Great Britain and the United States declined to notice the proposal, on the pretext that it referred to the Roman Catholic propaganda, because, forsooth, it had been first addressed to the French Government. Thus placing themselves in the wrong, these Protestant Powers incurred much of the responsibility for the outbreaks of the past thirty years. The author undoubtedly expresses the sentiment of the thoughtful, not only in China but at home, in urging that the two great non-aggressive nations using the same language should put a bridle on missionaries, and prohibit them from meddling in Chinese politics in any manner whatsoever.

BLASHFIELD'S ITALIAN CITIES.

Italian Cities. By Edwin Howland Blashfield and Evangeline Wilbour Blashfield. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1900.

Books about Italy are like books on religious subjects, in that success is made easy for them; they often have a longevity and give a pecuniary return quite out of proportion to their merits. The bookshops of the Via Tornabuoni and of the Piazza di Spagna present the same familiar titles year after year, good, bad, and indifferent together, and generations of eager tourists carry them away to refresh their memories of the enchanted land in their distant homes. The spell is an enduring one. A quarter of a century ago, young ladies used to buy Hawthorne's 'Marble Faun' in Rome (and heaven knows what likeness there is between that and the Rome that they saw), and, having carefully interleaved it with as many illustrative photographs as they could find, have it bound as a future aid to memory. In Florence they used 'Romola' in the same way. And these volumes are to-day still precious to their owners.

The volumes before us would furnish an even better occasion for interleaving. 'Romola' can, after all, dispense with it; the stimulated imagination may reproduce its scenes better than does the Alinari picture. But our present authors treat critically of works of art, of line, grouping, perspective, chiaroscuro, and the like, and often the photograph is necessary if we would appreciate the exact value of what they are saying. And such a collection as they would require! The mosaics of Ravenna, with something of its antique sculpture, the Pinturicchios and Sodomas of Siena, of the Borgia rooms in the Vatican, of Monte Oliveto, the Correggios of Parma, the Peruginos, the Porta Augusta, the general picturesqueness of Perugia, the Giottos and Cimabues of Assisi, the frescoes of Raphael at Rome, the Mantegnas at Mantua, with many of those that have been carried from there elsewhere—these are but a part of what the collection would comprise. We hasten to add that the authors' commentary would quite compensate the collector for all his trouble. They would illustrate his illustrations. This is as much as to say that 'Italian Cities' must be counted among the better books of its class. We hesitate to use superlatives, and none the less, running over in our mind recent books about Italy, we can recall none so good. Although it treats of a relatively small number of cities, it may be warmly recommended to the traveller who carries his Burckhardt with him and carefully reads his Symonds and Berenson.

Open the volumes anywhere and begin reading; you at once "catch on," and are carried easily along. Our authors have a pleasant way of putting things. We just now mentioned Symonds, whose name is more than once found in these pages. Probably it is on account of a similar width of culture combined with a certain kinship of temperament, rather than as a result of imitation, that the style reminds one frequently of the historian of the Renaissance. Sometimes, though rarely, in the cadence of the sentences, in the imagery and choice of words, it recalls Symonds in his gorgeousness, but in general it is the Italian 'Sketches' with a new value. The judgments of art, to our mind, are superior to those of Symonds, who, with all his knowledge, talks of painting as a literary man and makes the artist chafe; while Mr. Blashfield himself wields the brush, and, whether you agree with him or not, not only has a right to his say, but commands a respectful hearing. Certain turns of expression with a distinctly antique flavor puzzled us until we recalled that our authors have also published a translation of Giorgio Vasari. Familiarity with Vasari crops out frequently in their pages, chiefly in rectification of mistakes he has made with regard to the artists under treatment. In matter as in manner these volumes have profited by him, but with discretion and never unduly.

It must be owned that the chapters are of

unequal value. One, that recounting a visit to Cortona, does not rise above the level of an agreeable magazine article, which, perhaps, it originally was. The same may be reluctantly said of all the papers relating to Florence, though they are on a higher plane and contain much that one is glad to read. But all that about the preparation and versatility of the Florentine artist has been told us over and over again by a hundred writers from Ruskin and Taine onward, though none, it may be, has done it more pleasantly. Even in the chapters devoted to Siena, there are two, those consecrated to Pinturicchio and to Sodoma, which are head and shoulders above the rest. In the description of the town and in the passages from its history—all delightful reading and often vivid and forcible—it is chiefly the manner that is new. In the account of the two artists named, the matter also is fresh and of first-hand value. The same may be said of the chapters about Correggio, Perugino, Giotto, Raphael, Mantegna, and the mosaics of Ravenna. In all these the authors are not merely clever, cultivated, and agreeable writers, but are critics of art who are of its guild, and who have qualities that are very rare among their companions uniting these two attributes. They do not indulge in vague general statements, they are not always quite one side from the intelligence of the lay reader, but they give whys and wherefores, they go into detail, and are full, clear, forcible, and convincing. Their style even is at its best in those chapters where they are writing of what is nearest to their hearts and daily interests. And in the midst of their warmest praise there are little flashes of impartiality that are delightful, at times even diverting. As a sample, the final sentences about the gallery of Perugia, where its wearisomeness is handsomely recognized, or the ups and downs of the balance in weighing the merits of Perugino himself, with the final result, however, that both his character as a man and his rank as a painter are established upon a better and firmer basis than much of recent criticism has granted to either.

To our mind, one of the great qualities of this work is its absence of *parti pris* and faddism. It speaks quite as simply and honestly of what one doesn't admire in Botticelli as of what one does, and justice to the primitives does not make it unjust even to Giulio Romano. This will not seem small praise when one recalls how much inquisitorial zeal, the zeal that burns and bans, has gone to contemporary admiration for the quattrocento; in fact, we own that it is because we ourselves have to cry *peccavi* that we recognize how high a virtue is our authors' even-handedness. They show, too, how some of the characteristics of Giotto, which Ruskin and others most laud as consummate art, were really limitations, and yet that these very limitations are part of the reason why his decorations of the lower church at Assisi are among the most admirable that Europe has to show. Rectification of Ruskin and his followers is not exactly new, but it is not yet banal; and the temperate, comprehensive criticism that assigns to Giotto what we believe to be his true place in art, and seeks conscientiously to do this with every painter treated, must always be a rare thing. In the chapter about Parma, the judgments of both Burckhardt and Symonds relative to Correggio are cited, and we were curious enough to read the passages indicated of those authors, with the resulting conviction that the Blashfield judgment is worth more to the traveller of to-day than either of the others. An unusual breadth of sympathy, an unusual freedom from bias, an unusual sense of justice, are indeed an admirable equipment for a critic, if in addition he be well furnished with modern knowledge, and have opportunity to see and patience to investigate. We are sure that an intelligent tourist visiting Ravenna, Siena, Parma, Perugia, Assisi, Rome, or Mantua, cannot have a pleasanter or more trustworthy artistic companion than these two volumes will furnish. We heartily wish they may have their place in those shops of the Via Tornabuoni and the Piazza di Spagna already mentioned, whence they will find their way into the hands of the judicious for many a long year to come.

It is to be regretted that the proofreading has been so imperfectly done. Each of these handsome volumes is disfigured by a slip of errata that might easily have been increased. Just for the sake of example, Niccolà Pisano (p. 134), Filippi Strozzi (p. 226), Guibbileo (p. 240), might be added to that of the first volume. We mention but one in the second because tubes for cubes (p. 135) might prove puzzling. Then there are actual sins of commission. The authors perhaps follow lights of their own when they write (p. 261, vol. ii., and elsewhere) Santa Maria alle Grazie, instead of *delle Grazie*, as the rest of the world uses; but what can they mean when they talk of "the Gonzaghe," "the Montefeltri," "the Farnesi," "Giotti," "Ghirlandaji," and so on? In one place is written Giottos, in accordance with the ordinary English mode of making a plural to Continental names. It may be that to escape such dissonances as "Farneses" they have applied to proper names the plural forms of Italian common nouns; but as Italians never do that, we have here plurals that are neither English nor Italian. Still, all these are but "beauty spots." We will bear with them and yet others, if our authors will give us another series of 'Italian Cities.' We will even venture to recommend for their treatment Padua, Vicenza, Verona, Brescia, Bergamo, Pavia, and whatever aspects may be to them sympathetic of Venice and Milan, in default of a whole volume for each.

By way of postscript: We had nearly forgotten to call attention to one of the rarest qualities of this work as criticism of art, and that is its perfect urbanity. There is not a shadow of contempt for those who are not blessed with the light that illumines its authors. This praise is so singular that we leave it without further comment.

MORE NOVELS.

The Supreme Crime. By Dorothea Gerard. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 1901.

Trewern: A Tale of the Thirties. By R. M. Thomas. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

Mononia: A Love Story of '48. By Justin McCarthy. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.

Valencia's Garden. By Mrs. Schuyler Crowninshield. McClure, Phillips & Co.

The God of his Fathers, and Other Stories. By Jack London. McClure, Phillips & Co.

Madame de Longgarde (Dorothea Gerard) has chosen an unusual theme and setting for her fine romance. The Ruthenian Slavs of Eastern Austria have in their dialect, manner of life, and religious observances, so many points of difference from the Russians that her volume cannot be classed among the "Russian" books of which the press is so prolific at the present time. Potapenko has described, in one of the best among his well-known stories of life among the priestly caste in Little Russia (next-door neighbors to Mme. de Longgarde's Ruthenians), how the ardent young priest, inflamed with divine enthusiasm for his holy calling, wrecks his own domestic happiness and drives from him his young wife and his child. Throughout, the sympathies of the reader are enlisted on his side, because his efforts are so obviously directed to the annihilation of the crying abuses, bad old customs, and mercenary calculations which rule the priests and their lives in country parts. But the case is, though parallel, entirely different with Father Gregor, the hero of 'The Supreme Crime.' He, too, is fired with the desire to be a more worthy priest than the ecclesiastics whom he sees about him; but our sympathies are with his unfortunate wife rather than with him. Yet so artistically is the plot managed that the reverse is the case until the end approaches. By delicate revealing touches, his character is vividly portrayed—the character of an unconscious yet pitiless worshipper of his own spiritual perfection over other men's imperfections. Faith and hope he has; the greatest of all—charity—he lacks, and that towards his own noble, devoted wife unjustly suspected of murder, and too proudly innocent to justify herself (even were that possible) even to him until fairly forced to do so. The Epilogue sets forth how this overrighteous yet thoroughly well-meaning priest was brought to a consciousness of his own crime after he had brought his wife to despair. With exquisite simplicity, realism, and clearness, the writer sets the whole picture before our eyes; and it is difficult to say which side of the whole merits the most praise, the descriptions of landscape, customs, personal appearance, or character, so perfect is every detail.

On one point the reader requires a little warning. The writer briefly explains that the church of which Father Gregor is a priest belongs to the branch of the Eastern Rite which acknowledges allegiance to the Pope of Rome, yet one who is not somewhat well acquainted with that "Uniate" Church is likely to infer that the ways and customs described are identical with those which prevail in the genuine Russian Church. But, during the three hundred years of this mongrel church's existence (it is called "Greek-Catholic" by its members, who emigrate in thousands to New York and Pennsylvania, and are now returning by the thousand to their original allegiance), it has undergone great changes. Although the untrammelled exercise of their orthodox ritual, vernacular, and beliefs was guaranteed to the people who accepted this compromise (in the alleged cause of unity), and to their descendants, pressure has gradually been brought to bear upon the "Uniates," until their customs (with the exception of the married priesthood) and their creed are practically identical with those of Rome at the present day—even to the extent of accepting the papal dogmas of yesterday touching the Immaculate Conception and the Infallibility of the Pope. Therefore, let this fine story be read for pleasure, and for its remarkable workmanship; but let no student of Russian

affairs draw any conclusions whatever as to the Russian Church—with the sole exception that, in that case as in this, priests must be married before ordination, and cannot remarry; with the added clause for the Russian Church, that a parish priest has no option whatever in the matter, and is compelled to marry.

The motto of Mr. Thomas's book may be said to be the party cry, "Gallant little Wales!" While the hero is escorting the heroine, whom he meets for the first time on a dark night riding a lame horse and many miles from home, he improves the occasion by eulogizing the Welsh character. The various incidents—a duel, a day's shooting, a hunt, a parliamentary election, perils by sea and perils by land—puzzle the reader by their lack of coherence and of connection with the plot, until they are understood to be merely variations on one main theme, the beauty of Welsh scenery. In short, the plot is both subsidiary and inferior to the descriptions, and the characters have little originality. The lively grass widow with a good heart is no new type, and the muscular hero might have come straight from Kingsley's novels. As to local color of the period, there is practically none after the first chapter, and the dialogues are strangely unlike those given in better-known pictures of the "Thirties." Allusions to "new gas lanterns" and disquisitions on the Reform Bill do not of themselves carry us back into the past, and if the incidents related could have happened at all, which may perhaps be doubted, they could just as well have happened in the nineties.

If local color is lacking in 'Trewern,' in 'Mononia' there is enough, and, from the point of view of the ordinary novel reader, to spare. Regarded purely as a "love story" it will never rank very high. As a picture of stirring past times, drawn by the practised hand of a historian and of a patriotic contemporary, who began his journalistic career by reporting the Clonmel trial of the "Young Ireland" conspirators, it cannot fail to be deeply interesting. The vivid pages of Sir Charles Gavan Duffy may help the non-Hibernian reader to enjoy this book, for the hero is clearly suggested by Thomas Francis Meagher, with perhaps a dash of John Mitchel; and Mr. Desmond, the father of the heroine, seems to be a travesty of William Smith O'Brien. We may possibly skip the love scenes, with their somewhat stilted prolixity, but we shall read with care every word about "Young Ireland" and the politics of the day. To describe an election seems a great temptation to novelists. Since the immortal scene in Pickwick, we have had the subject recently handled by Mrs. Ward, Anthony Hope, George Meredith, and now by one who has been both novelist and historian. Even the stiffness of the lovemaking is convincingly old-fashioned, and the author's polished sentences of description, narrative, or quiet satire seem in perfect harmony with the days of elaborate courtesy which he describes. When Mr. Desmond, an admirable type of a self-important spendthrift, posing even to himself, dies to the sound of a dog's wailing, and takes it for a Banshee, what could be neater than the phrase which tells of his "smile of grateful acknowledgment for the recognition given to the ancestral claims of the House of Desmond"? Altogether, there is an unusual and very pleasing flavor about the book, all the more because it deals, as the author remarks, with a class hitherto ignored in Irish fiction, "middle-class personages belonging generally to the professional orders." It is devoid alike of the rollicking fun of Lever and the pathos of Miss Lawless and Jane Barlow; and the impression it leaves is distinctly individual. In a more general way, it may also excite in the reader's mind the wonder whether, with all our boasted modern culture, the old days when men of all ages quoted Horace and Homer and spoke in debating societies, were not after all more polished and, even in their political upheavals, more decorous than our own.

In 'Valencia's Garden' we have an old-fashioned melodrama. We find all the regular stock characters. The almost painfully ingenuous heroine, this time with uneven teeth and a cast in her eye; her old and unappreciative husband; the high-minded hero, who virtuously restrains her bursts of expansiveness towards himself; the deep-eyed villain with his plots and his drugs; the elderly adventuress, who goes beyond even the villain in her impotent malice and finally murders the wrong person; the ancient family retainer; and the *enfant terrible*. What more could be wished, even in a dime novel? The brewer's son behaves in an unseemly manner, directly traceable to his father's profession, and is told by the hero that it will take his family "ten generations" to attain gentlemanlike feelings. The heroine talks with surprising frankness of and to her "husband's loveress," and the husband is portrayed as a fit object of pity, enslaved as he is to these two women at once. It cannot be said that the characters are very lifelike, but then neither are the dialogues, which are French literally translated. The sentence "My heart! the sugar; that makes the fat," occurs on page 3, and is typical of the whole book. Probably the reader's first feeling of affection for any character will be called forth by the kind *deus ex machina* of the last chapter, the magpie who has stolen the heroine's necklace, but has had the thoughtfulness, on changing his abode, to leave it behind for discovery.

The friends of Scruff Mackenzie and of Malemute Kid will welcome 'The God of his Fathers.' Probably all writers of the short story laid in distant lands fervently wish that Kipling had not, as was said of Shakspere, "had the idea first." It is inevitable that the 'Plain Tales' should unconsciously exist in our minds as a bed of Procrustes on which to measure all similar attempts; and this is obviously unfair. Jack London has, however, unusually little to fear from the comparison. His eleven stories in this volume are vivid, concise, and dramatic. If they are sometimes coarse, generally disagreeable, and always cynical and reckless, this is nothing peculiar to him. The only missionary brought on the scene is—unlike Father Roubeau, in "The Son of the Wolf"—a coward and a renegade; but is not the poor missionary always fair game? The unsophisticated reader may wince at the calmness with which the institution of "Northland wives" is treated, but at least it is no worse than a "Burmese marriage." Jack London has one great advantage over his Anglo-Indian prototype: in describing his favorite Yukon country, he deals with a state of things less known to the civilized world. If Kipling has made us feel the horrors of heat, this writer fully impresses upon us the cruelty of cold. Whether the stories are humorous, blood-curdling, or pathetic—and it may be noted that the best in the book, "Grit of Women," belongs to the third class—they have a wild, elemental savagery which is positively thrilling. A certain amount of tall talk, especially "spread - eagleism," might profitably be omitted, and the tone of the whole will jar on many readers. But if any one wants to be interested, amused, and thoroughly stirred, he cannot do better than read this volume.

THE LAND OF THE MOORS.

The Land of the Moors: A Comprehensive Description. By Budgett Meakin. With 83 illustrations and a map. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1901. Pp. xxxii, 464.

It must be confessed that this second volume of Mr. Meakin's Mauretanian thesaurus is a disappointment. The weaknesses of the first volume recur more emphatically, and their nakedness is not covered out of sight by the same veiling excellences. The wild system of transliteration to which, with slight modification, Mr. Meakin still clings, continues to add a terror to reading. It is often impossible to tell in what degree the vagaries of form here given are due to a misprint, to simple error, or to the perversity of this unhappy system. The basis of all the confusion is that he does not distinguish between written and colloquial Arabic, which, in vocalization especially, often stand miles apart. Thus, he considers that "Arabic is written phonetically," a statement which is closer to the truth than it would be if said of English, but not nearly so true as of French. The fact is, that the writer on the East must follow strictly one of two courses; he must either take the written form and reproduce its signs exactly according to a conventional system based on the Latin alphabet, or he must listen to the word as spoken by natives, and then represent its sounds in a fixed phonetic alphabet. It may be doubted whether Mr. Meakin's ear is sufficiently acute for him to pursue this latter course. At any rate, he has fallen between the two methods, and the reader is often left in doubt as to what precisely is the form intended. Thus, for one or two examples only, *Mahurôk*, on page 247, may be *Mahrūk* or *Muharrak*; on the same page *mudûn* for *mudun* is strange enough to call for a note of explanation. We have also *Muwâhhadî for Muwahhid* (*muwahhadî could* mean only 'one who stands in some relation to another of whom unity is asserted'); and *Murâbti* for *Murābit*. These are both well-known historical names, and if present-day Morocco has so distorted them, we should be told it distinctly.

Nor does Mr. Meakin seem to be a safer guide in things grammatical. The remark, on page xxiv, that "the final *h* in feminine proper names becomes *t* for euphony when the following word begins with a vowel" throws a flood of light on his methods. His scholarship, in the exact sense, is thus evidently slight. Further, he does not seem to have prepared himself for his task by any considerable reading in Arabic or acquaintance with Muslim literature. He relies upon his own knowledge of the country and upon his own inquiries, joined to a wide study of European books on Morocco. Thus, he has paid comparatively little attention to the Arabic travellers and geographers, ex-

cept when they met him directly, in European translations. Ibn Batūta he knows only in the translation by Samuel Lee of the abstract, and he has not, apparently, heard of the fuller text and translation of Defrémery and Sanguinetti. Of Yāqūt he makes no use, nor of the geographers of the *Bibliotheca*. There are one or two references to al-Bakrī, but of so blind a nature that it is impossible to tell in what form he has been consulted. They may easily be second-hand. Mr. Meakin, throughout, is somewhat too fond of the blind reference, On page 164, for example, we read, "See Mela, Pliny, Polybius, etc." These authors, apart from the "etc.," will certainly stand being looked into a good deal.

In many other ways, a curious ignorance, or at best carelessness, in regard to Muslim law and literature is displayed. For example, on page 244, we are told about the lithographic establishment in connection with the Qarawīnīn mosque. A fuller account of it and a list of the books published there would have been of high interest and value. A European Arabist counts it a prize when he has added one of those lithographs to his library. But all Mr. Meakin does is to add in a footnote that the establishment was taken over by Mulay el-Hasan "to have a work printed called 'Es-Sheikh Mortadà.'" This is a strange way of referring to the famous edition of the *Itḥāf as-Sāda*, the commentary by the Sayyid Murtaḍà on the *Iḥyā* of al-Ghazzālī. Still stranger is the remark which follows, that of the works issued from this press, "those which are unique are of little value." Again, on page 253, we are told of "the preference for white female slaves, which tempts people to sell their children by light-colored slave mothers." Usage in Muslim countries has gone very far in the way of overriding canon law, but it has gone much further in Morocco than elsewhere if the acknowledged child of a free man by a slave can be a slave. Such a child, according to law, and to usage elsewhere, is freeborn. It would be of interest to know how the matter is arranged in Morocco. Mr. Meakin seems not to recognize the difficulty involved. Again, on page 266, there is a description of the tomb of Idris II. in his mosque at Fez, with its gold-embroidered cloth cover and its gold or gilded censers. On that is a note that "Rohlfs speaks of this display as contrary to the teachings of the Kor'án." Mr. Meakin does not hazard any comment, but we are left with the impression that he accepts the dictum as of authority. Apparently, he has not read the Qur'ān, for it would be hard to find anything in it to this purpose. When the Wahhābites levelled all the tombs they could reach, it was in obedience to certain traditions from Muhammad, but to those traditions the rest of Islam has paid scant attention. Similarly, the law forbidding the use of gold for ornaments and utensils has no basis in the Qur'ān, but only in tradition. Rohlfs, in this case, is a broken reed.

But we pass from such details, significant as they are, to a description of the book. It divides into three parts. The first, of 84 pages, is an account, good but too brief, of the natural features and products of the country. The second, exceeding 320 pages, is called "political," and is practically a guide-book to the separate towns and districts, under the rubrics Open Ports, Closed Ports, Imperial Cities, Sacred Towns, Minor Towns, Spanish Possessions, and Morocco beyond the Atlas. A general criticism must be that Baedeker would have done it better, and that it would have been well if Mr. Meakin could have approximated to Baedeker's concise, impersonal style. Through it, generally, is the trail of the amateur. One example will be sufficient. One of the two great mosques in Fez is described, and rightly, as the "mosque of the Qarawīnīn" (Mr. Meakin's form is Karûeeïn, one of the most mysterious products of his system), and we are told further that it is so called because the inhabitants of its district were "of Eastern extraction." The connection is not exactly clear, and their extraction becomes evident only when we derive the name from the town Qayrawān. Further, the encyclopædias unanimously name this mosque "of the Karubin," whatever may be their authority. This, also, is the name which Rohlfs gives, who got it on the spot and whom Mr. Meakin elsewhere uses as an authority. An explanation is plainly called for, but none is given here. The facts in the case are as follows. The certainly historical name of the mosque, as given in the Arabic geographers, is "of the Qarawīnīn," *i. e.*, of the people of Qayrawān. To all appearance, *a* name given to it at the present day is "of the Karūbīyīn," *i. e.*, of the Cherubim. Now one of the principal ornaments of the mosque is an old European bell, four feet in height and twelve in circumference at the rim. It was evidently loot from some Christian church and is used as a kind of chandelier, exactly as were the bells of Compostela in the mosque at Cordova. On it are four devices in bas-relief, an eagle, a lion, a bull, and an obscure figure. Mr. Meakin, page 270, conjectures it is of a man, and is reminded of the emblems of the four evangelists. Did the devices suggest to the Muslims the four Cherubim who are the bearers of the throne of God, and to whom they, following Ezekiel, apparently, give these forms? Did the mosque thence gain its popular name? The conjecture is possible; but the describer of this, the most sacred mosque in Morocco, and the principal building in one of its principal cities, should not have left us to hunt explanations in the dark.

The third part, of 42 pages, describes travelling in Morocco, and, especially, the experiments and experiences of the author in his wanderings. The book as a whole leaves a confused impression upon the mind. It is undoubtedly our fullest account of Morocco, and is crammed with information, much of it, however, of a dubious kind. If Mr. Meakin pays any attention to his critics—he does not seem to have done so with our review of his first volume—we would entreat him most vehemently, for the sake of his third (on the manners and customs of the Moors), to put himself to school with the 'Ulamā of Fez, or of any other Muslim university—that of Fez has an excellent reputation—to acquire some outline, at least, of Muslim theology and jurisprudence, and then to take Lane's 'Modern Egyptians' for his model in writing. Let him remember that the root of Lane's success lay not simply in his forte of description, but in the severe studies which he put himself through at Cairo. The describer of Cairene life was accepted by the 'Ulamā there as their fellow. *Wassalām.*

Orestes A. Brownson's Latter Life, from 1856 to 1876. By Henry F. Brownson. Detroit, Mich.: The Author. 1900.

A loosely printed volume of 629 pages brings to a close Mr. Brownson's filial labors in behalf of his father's memory and fame. It is quite as interesting as either of the two preceding volumes, the second of which recited the elder Brownson's experience during the first dozen years of his connection with the Roman Catholic Church. Nothing if not controversial, it was only a question upon what persons and opinions he should wreak his controversial zeal. In his ante-Catholic period the orthodox and their opinions gave him his opportunity; in its later phases the liberals and other Protestants from whom he was gradually receding. Having become a Romanist, without losing the old objects of attack, he found that others were immediately developed. The Catholics were not Catholic enough for him—that is to say, un-Catholic. They were not severe enough in the construction of their own doctrines and principles. His conversion was nearly simultaneous with Newman's, whose 'Development of Christianity' was the bridge by which he carried himself over from the Anglican to the Roman side. A most unsafe bridge, thought Brownson. It would never do to confess that there was any development of the true faith. The early Church must have had the *plenum* of all truth, and that explicitly.

In 1855 Brownson removed to New York, and his removal coincided with a remarkable change in his habit of thought and the direction of his controversial activities. In Boston he was at first content to defend "Catholicity" by external authority, believing with Manning that " a man who attempts to find reasons for his faith is on the high road to infidelity." But the fact is, the stuff for a good Romanist was not in him. He was born to be a free lance, and was unhappy when obliged to hold his lance at rest. In New York he found himself in growing sympathy with the Paulist Fathers, especially with Fathers Hewit and Hecker, while his relations with Archbishop Hughes were often strained, with now and then a rupture of the most serious kind. Twice, at least, Hughes publicly berated him, once when he had given an oration at Fordham; and all the Jesuits and other clericals followed the Archbishop to the banquet hall, leaving poor Brownson, solitary and dinnerless, to wait for the train that would take him back to the city. About as much "indefinite heterogeneity" is revealed in American Catholicism as in English by Mr. Purcell's life of Cardinal Manning. Hughes is impeached of various indirections and untruths. To alleviate the stress of his opposition, Brownson betook himself to Elizabeth, N. J., where a more friendly bishop had jurisdiction over him. But change of residence brought only partial relief. Complaints were made of him at Rome, but he had friends as well as enemies, and he escaped the heavy hand of ecclesiastical condemnation. He was always ready to make amends for his intellectual aberrations. "It will cost me nothing," he wrote, "to retract any error authority may point out in my writings." "If the Holy See finds aught in what I have written to mark with a note of censure, or that she requires me to retract, I do not think it will cost me a moment's struggle to obey her, and to accept

her decision *ex animo*." But he would straightway have offended again. He thought himself a submissive servant of authority, and he was an irrepressible individualist—nothing being changeless in his opinions but their perpetual change.

There is little emphasis upon his relation to the dogma of infallibility, but it is certain that he inclined to Newman's minimizing interpretation of the dogma rather than to the maximizing interpretation of Manning and W. G. Ward. He was no stickler for the temporal power of the papacy, believing that in that respect the Pope would do well to pass a self-denying ordinance. He anticipated those American constructions of Catholicism which the present Pope has condemned in Archbishop Ireland's utterances and in the writings of Father Hecker, though, while softening his reproval of Newman's 'Developmentism,' he did not go so far as Hecker on this line.

He was an ardent politician, and as individualist here as in his theological opinions. From hating not only the abolitionists, but all anti-slavery men, and voting for Buchanan, he veered round to the Republican side, voted for Lincoln in 1860, and found him in 1863 "the present *encumbrance*," engaging with Sumner in sympathetic correspondence on this head. He accepted Sumner's doctrine of "State-suicide," and was for making Frémont President in 1864. Afflicted with Whewell's foible, he criticised the conduct of generals and plans of campaign as knowingly as if they were "the deep things of God." He wrote with terrible and disconcerting frankness of the disloyalty of the Catholic clergy to the Union cause. He favored the emancipation of the slaves, not as an end but as a means. Serfdom should have succeeded slavery as the freedman's best defence. "Our boasted Anglo-Saxon race has no conscience towards inferior and colored races." Here was "the trumpet of a prophecy."

Forced to give up *Brownson's Review* in 1864, he became a frequent contributor to the *Catholic World*, the organ of the Paulist Fathers and their doctrine of American Catholicism. But Brownson soon found that he had reached his liberal aphelion, and that it was time for him to be getting back to closer quarters with the higher powers. He quarrelled with Hewit and Hecker, as with many others, and in 1873 resumed the publication of his own review without ecclesiastical consent. It had been gall and wormwood for him to submit his articles to ecclesiastical supervision, and whether this was kept up under the new régime we are not told; but the new régime was not continued long. His strength suddenly gave way, and he died in April, 1876, being then seventy-three years old. With great intellectual ability, there was some defect that prevented his being one of the factors in American life that we must seriously reckon with. Apparently there was too little character in proportion to the talent for the making of a profoundly influential man.

Mosquitoes: How they live; how they carry disease; how they are classified; how they may be destroyed. By L. O. Howard, Ph.D., Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C. New York: McClure, Phillips & Co. 1901. Pages 241, 50 fig.

The mosquito question in one form or another is an old one, and those living in localities where the insects abound have in time come to consider them as among the inevitables, like death and taxes, which must be borne with such philosophy as is available. But it was not until it became quite certain that there was an intimate relation between "malaria"—that blessed refuge to which the doctors referred all puzzling symptoms—and mosquitoes, that the public became at all interested in the study of these tiny pests. Of course many did not credit the relation said to exist between the disease and the insect—indeed, it is not even yet admitted that the disease cannot be transferred in any other way; but the popular interest was at all events aroused. When it became yet further probable that that dread scourge, yellow fever, was also dependent upon a species of mosquito for its transmission, the matter became a vitally important one, concerning which all sorts of questions were asked and all sorts of misinformation were set abroad. To answer these questions, and to set out in a clear, succinct manner the relations between mosquitoes and the diseases above mentioned, is the object of Dr. Howard's excellent little book. Its appearance is timely, and no one was more competent than its author to write it.

First of all, we have a general account of mosquitoes as a whole, and of their habits and life history; from which it appears that there is yet very much to be learned concerning them. Indeed, the impression left when the book is laid down is that the subject is incomplete, and that, concerning the most common and obtrusive little insects about us, we have only a very imperfect knowledge. Dr. Howard has added much to our stock of information through his own researches, and has now collated all that was previously recorded, giving a good basis for future research. In the chapter on malaria and mosquitoes, there is a clear account of the life cycle of the protozoan parasite causing the disease, and of the part that the insect plays in its economy. It seems fairly proved that, while within the body of a malarial patient, this protozoan can multiply indefinitely if not checked by remedies, yet its sexed forms are produced only in the digestive system of the *Anopheles* mosquitoes, where they conjugate and produce bodies that work their way into the salivary glands, and are thus introduced through the beak into a new victim when the mosquito again bites. As to yellow fever, the proof is less clear, but convincing so far as it goes. There is a full account of the experiments that have been made, and one thing at least seems established—there is no danger of inoculation through contact with a diseased person or his belongings. There need be no more fumigation of clothing, of cargoes, or of mails, and no unreasonable dread of infection through individuals from a yellow-fever district. All that is necessary now is to keep the suspect in quarantine during the period of incubation, in a mosquito-free building. But is there any possible mitigation of this pest in districts where they abound? Dr. Howard says there is, and describes a number of methods by which partial or even complete relief may be obtained. Incidentally, he accuses railroads of distributing mosquitoes from the seacoast to inland points which formerly were free from them, and in this he is no doubt correct.

The illustrations are fifty in number, and are, almost without exception, good. Those illustrating the insects and structural details are scientifically accurate, most if not all of them having been drawn under the author's own supervision by the trained artists at the United States Department of Agriculture. Some of them, indeed, were first published in Bulletin No. 25 of the Division of Entomology of that department. The book is well printed; but there are a few annoying typographical errors which should be corrected in a future edition.

The Old New York Frontier. By Francis Whiting Halsey. Scribners. 1901.

This is a history of northern and central New York during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries—of its people, its settlement, and its wars. Fragments of the story of the New York border have been recorded by Campbell and the two Stones, as well as in many local histories; the struggles of France to gain a footing on its soil have been pictured by the genius of Parkman; Cooper and Frederick have told portions of the story in the guise of fiction; but here, for the first time, is a complete and consecutive history of the lands and waters where the fate of the continent has been twice decided. Much material that is new to print, and more that until very lately has been all but inaccessible, is in this book opened to the general reader, while the author's candid and attractive style, along with the importance and interest of the subject, gives the work a value as literature as well as history.

Earlier writers have led us to think that the New York frontier faced north and extended from Oswego to Ticonderoga, but, in our author's view, it faces west, and he who would hear the story must walk with the author by Otsego Lake and those pleasant rivers, Unadilla and Susquehanna. The land of this book is the land of Wyoming and Cherry Valley, of Cooper's 'Deerslayer,' 'Pioneers,' and 'Wyandotte.' Events beyond these valleys get brief hearing, except only the great day of Oriskany, when shots were fired that were heard round the world and even at Unadilla. With this single limitation, the story of the New York border—of the Iroquois power, the French wars, the colonization, and the Revolution—is carefully and completely told with remarkably good perspective (for an observer at Unadilla). Among the subjects presented more adequately than before are Brant's conference with Herkimer in June, 1777, the value of Tryon County as the granary of the American armies, and the fact, of more than local significance, that but few of the men who held the border during the Revolution, and guarded the centre of the extended American line, were men of English blood. Palatines, Scotch-Irish, and Dutchmen fought Oriskany and defended Fort Schuyler.

As this work will become the standard for the times and places of which it treats, a few errors should be noted. There are not 30,000 Iroquois in Canada (p. 320), but only 9,879. Nor did the Iroquois in the height of their power number 25,000 (p. 16). It is probably the erroneous estimate in Morgan's 'League of the Iroquois' that has misled the author—an estimate which Dr. Morgan afterwards reduced to 17,000. There may be 17,000 or 18,000 Iroquois alive to-day.

Certainly, there are more now living than ever before. Nor is it quite accurate to say (p. 12) that this interesting people dwelt in a state of idyllic peace "overthrown by the white man when he arrived." If peace with their neighbors is meant, it did not exist; if peace among the tribes of the league, it was not overthrown. The palisaded town which Champlain and the Hurons attacked in 1615 (not 1616, p. 186) did not stand on Onondaga Lake (p. 12). By a fine piece of archæological work Gen. John S. Clark has established its location on Nichols Pond in the town of Fenner. If this demonstration needed further authority to support it, its acceptance by Parkman, Morgan, Winsor, and Beauchamp would close the discussion. Nor did Champlain land at Oswego (p. 186). He left his canoes at Salmon River, many miles to the east. Frontenac did come by way of Oswego, but in 1696, not, as the compositor alleges (p. 186), in 1792. It has hitherto been supposed that the first European to descend the Susquehanna was Champlain's interpreter, Étienne Brule, whom Champlain had sent to arouse the Conestogas against the Iroquois, and there has always been some mystery as to the origin of Brulé's name—whether it belonged to him from youth, or was bestowed in commemoration of the scorchings the Iroquois gave him; although there has never been any difference as to the spelling of it. Mr. Halsey tells us, however (p. 33), "A visit to the headwaters of the Susquehanna was made in 1616 by Stephen Bruehle, whose purpose was part of a larger purpose entertained by the Dutch at that time to secure Indian warriors to aid them in a conflict with the French, who were then pressing down from Canada." Thus the mystery deepens. Other proper names that suffer are Van Curler, who (p. 45) becomes Corlear (it is true the Mohawks called him Corlaer), Bruyas (called Bruyar p. 43), and Auriesville (Auriersville, p. 45). It is not definitely stated (p. 43) that Le Jeune and Brébeuf were ever in New York, but the uninformed reader would infer it. In 1758 a small fort called Fort Schuyler was built on the site of Utica, under agreement with the Iroquois that it should be destroyed at the close of the war with the French. This promise was kept, although the site was still known by the name. Thereafter it was no more a defence to the Mohawk Valley than is Fort Lee to the city of New York at this writing; but on page 117 the Utica Fort Schuyler is mentioned as an existing defence in the year 1779, while Fort Plain is not mentioned by either its present name or its alternative name of Fort Plank. Col. Willett was excusable in February, 1783 (p. 309), for not having heard that the treaty had been signed, since the signing did not take place (p. 339) until September 3, 1783. Of course the reference on page 309 is to the preliminaries signed January 20. Mr. Halsey believes, as we should all like to believe, that Frederick the Great sent a sword to Washington.

At the close of the book we have, by way of dessert, some interesting, not to say gossipy, chapters on the early settlers and their ways. Here we learn, among other things, that the Rev. Mr. Grant of the 'Pioneers' was an actual parson all but his name, and that Monsieur Le Quoi was an actual Frenchman, name and all. Interesting is the account of the sudden growth and prosperity that came to Otsego County in the great days of the Catskill turnpike, only to wither and disappear when the Erie Canal and the railroads passed it by on the other side. Otsego's population and activity, it seems, reached their highest point in 1832. The history of a country, as our author suggests in his introduction, is in a great measure a history of its highways. Otsego is here presented as a peaceful rural hostelry, roused to stir and bustle by the arrival of the stage-coach, and resuming its placid contentment when the uproar has ceased and the wheels have disappeared down the road.

In an appendix is a valuable list of books consulted, which furnishes a fairly complete bibliography of the subject.

The Reformation. By Williston Walker. (Ten Epochs of Church History.) Charles Scribner's Sons.

The measurement of books by the space they occupy may seem to some a base and mechanical way of approaching them, but there are several classes of literature, including manuals and general surveys, which must always be considered with reference to their bulk. According to our arithmetic, Mr. Walker's book on the Reformation contains 120,000 words—a very moderate length, in view of the author's elastic definition of his period. He anticipates the Lutheran movement by giving an account of mediæval sects and of the European situation at the end of the Middle Ages. He does not stop at the Council of Trent, but extends his limits to the end of the Thirty Years' War. Within such a field the opportunities for writing a diffuse essay or sketch are boundless. Mr. Walker is fortunately able to keep his narrative compact without making it bald.

A somewhat closer analysis shows that while the chronological extremes are wide apart, the scale of treatment is by no means uniform throughout. What comes before the appearance of Luther is an introduction, and what follows the death of Calvin is an epilogue. The main action falls within the years 1517-1564, a period marked by the rise of several great theological systems and meriting the relative prominence which Mr. Walker gives it. Even within such restrictions, one observes the tendency to dismiss lightly several matters of extreme importance. Thus, if we may select an isolated but typical incident, the Regensburg Conference of 1541 (the most serious attempt at reconciliation with Rome) receives only a few lines. Similarly, the Council of Trent is dismissed with a conspicuously limited notice. Mr. Walker prefers to look at the events of the sixteenth century from the Protestant standpoint, not because he is a champion, but because he would keep in the foreground the new and positive ideas which Luther, Zwingli, Calvin, and the Radicals introduced. We see in this conception a valid reason for keeping the Catholic revival in the background. There is a chapter on the "Counter Reformation"—a term unpopular with Romanists—but, apart from its account of the Jesuits, it seems a little exiguous.

Mr. Walker presents a large amount of information, and enters at times into circumstantial detail. Yet he is fond of theorizing and of illuminating his pages by well-considered general statements. We have said that he tends to magnify the constructive rather than the resisting forces of the Reformation age. On the other hand, an example of his fairness towards the Romanists and their use of coercive measures may be taken from his chapter on the "Spanish Awakening." While less enthusiastic about this episode than Hefele is in his life of Ximenes, he gives it much more credit than it usually gets at the hands of Protestant historians. Even when we come to the test case of the Holy Office, Mr. Walker makes the most generous concessions: "There is some reason to believe that the methods of the Inquisition, cruel as they seem from a modern standpoint, were milder than those of contemporary civil law." Without implying, then, that the book is controversial, we would point out that its tone is extremely candid when a controversial point is touched. However, if we may judge from the views of Mr. W. S. Lilly, a good many Romanists would take exception to the following well-meant sentence: "The true Catholic, while denying the worth of much that the Protestant calls good and deploring the loss to Roman obedience of a large portion of Christendom, can, nevertheless, rejoice in the moral and spiritual regeneration which the Reformation wrought in the Roman communion."

With regard to the central portion of the work, in which Mr. Walker examines the development and spread of doctrinal systems, the reader need not look for many new facts or strange opinions about the German, Swiss, and French reformers. The round has been so repeatedly gone over, and the issues so exhaustively debated, that fresh views could not fitly be advanced in a short treatise. The chief theologies—Luther's, Zwingli's, and Calvin's—are neatly defined, without a trace of party spirit, and discussed with great intelligence. Mr. Walker, like several recent writers, shows a considerable interest in the Anabaptists and other Radicals, to whose opinions he pays the tribute of a just and temperate examination. One topic which is often neglected in short histories of the Reformation, finds its proper place here. We refer to the effect which Melanchthon's action at the time of the Leipzig interim had upon the subsequent development of Lutheranism. The battle of Johann Agricola, Conrad Cordatus, and Amsdorf against Philip and the Philippists is outlined with a clear sense of the vital issue. Like Charles Beard, Mr. Walker has been impressed by those sad words of the mild but forspent reformer: "No wonder that, as the much harassed Melanchthon neared his end, he gave as one reason why he wished to lay down an earthly career that had been so full of conflict and criticism, that he might escape the 'rage of the theologians.'"

Mr. Walker's scholarship is exact and varied. Despite the large number of minute facts which he gives, we have seen little to cavil at. A statement is made (pp. 230-231) that when Farel settled at Aigle in 1526, "French-speaking Vaud" was part of the territories of Berne. He indeed went to Aigle at the instance of Berne, but the northeast shore of Lake Leman, with the lower Rhone valley, was not seized by Berne till 1536. Again (p. 268), Mr. Walker says of Calvin: "He believed Servetus a most dangerous heretic, the representative of that Italian anti-Trinitarianism which he regard-

ed as one of the great perils of the Reformation." Fausto Sozzini was then a boy of fourteen, and any anti-Trinitarian beliefs his uncle may have held were unknown to Calvin. As for Biandrata, Gentile, and Gribaldi, they became conspicuous for their denial of the Trinity only in the course of the next five years or so. It seems impossible that Calvin could have reached a fixed conviction of the danger which the Reformation ran before the execution of Servetus. But Mr. Walker has a sound grasp of the subject, and hardly ever exposes himself to a charge of inaccuracy. His style is clear, though tending at times to an excess of ponderous words.

As a sketch of the aggressive forces which were at work in the Western Church during the early age of the Reformation, Mr. Walker's book is both thorough and able.

Nursing Ethics. By Isabel Hampton Robb. Cleveland: J. B. Savage.

To develop a raw country girl or a young woman of refinement into a competent caretaker for the sick-room is a real transformation, and the one thus taught who compares her condition as a wage-earner with her previous value as a producer, is apt to look upon herself as a superior being. She is. But she is not a pure delight to those who have her to deal with, nor is the class of trained nurses an undiluted joy to the world. When mechanical dexterity is acquired, the judgment cultivated sufficiently to avoid interference, and discipline preserved, a modern hospital owes much of its efficiency to these women. In fact, some hospitals could not be maintained without them. But the number of practices which Mrs. Robb properly condemns as not convenient to be indulged in—ranging as they do from gossip and untidiness to the drug habit and insubordination—opens a vista of possibilities, and clearly shows that even constant work under a common head leaves loopholes for mischief-making. As freer and more independent agents in private homes nurses often are welcomed, sometimes dreaded. They themselves cannot know the distressing debate—where anxiety for the ill maintains the affirmative and the whole interior economy of a not wealthy household supports the negative—over the question, Shall we employ a trained nurse? But some must be ingenuous and wholly self-effacing, else why should so many acquire husbands among doctors and patients? From time immemorial, old men have married to secure a nurse; it surely cannot be that modern nurses have developed a complemental deficiency.

There runs through this volume of fundamental manners a double strain of stimulus and of repression. The incidentals of hair and teeth and perspiration, of nails and perfumes, of baths and foot-gear, receive an attention that is eminently proper and excellently expressed. The recruits for whom this elementary instruction is supposed to be necessary are adult women whose personal habits represent those of their breeding. But besides this incitement to a higher and gentler physical plane, we find these cautions: "The question whether she agrees perfectly with [the physician's] recommendations, or believes that her own methods are better, has no bearing upon the case," and "Nurses have been known to expostulate with the physician and to suggest that the treatment ordered was not best for the patient" (pp. 250-1). It may be hoped that neophytes and graduates alike will profit by the reprobation expressed with such charming innocency. There is a most naïve injunction for two nurses with a private case that "nothing in the way of bad feeling, resentment, or heated discussion should ever be dreamed of" (p. 261).

At p. 262, the advantage of legislation for the sisterhood is touched on, though with wise warning that it could not be "a panacea for the present unsatisfactory condition of affairs." Associated women do not require urging to invoke the law, rather than to persuade and argue, in favor of transformations which may or may not be improvements. Competent judges pronounce against their latest achievements, viz., the abolition of the canteen, and the introduction of female nurses into the permanent military economy. The first was due to the zeal of a certain Union and the moral overawing of Congress. The second was an adroit seizure of popular military enthusiasm as an opportunity to give an official status to nurses as representatives, and depended for its success upon the pressure of various Daughters, the coöperation of influential nurses individually or through their alumnæ organizations, and a weak acquiescence at the War Department. In both cases ignorance of the real conditions on the part of the aggressors effected a junction with the inefficiency of the defenders, and carried the day.

As Miss Hampton, this author prepared from the fulness of personal knowledge an excellent work for students of the art on 'Nursing,' but in the present the seamy side of the finished product shows too many irregularities to be picturesque or altogether attractive. We should rather entitle the book 'What Nurses Ought and Ought Not to Do.'

The Mediterranean Race: A Study in the Origin of European Peoples. By G. Sergi, Professor of Anthropology in the University of Rome. London: Walter Scott; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901. 8vo, pp. 320; 93 illustrations.

The term Mediterranean is here made to stand for a most ancient stock, composed of many consanguineous peoples, that lived all about this inland sea, proceeding from a common centre of dispersion. The Mediterranean family of races includes Iberians, Ligurians, Pelasgians, Khatti (Hethei, Chittim, or Hittite), and Libyans. It is to be understood that, probably in Quaternary times, the ancestors of all these peoples came from northern Africa, as our own Brinton and Keane of England contended.

In 1893 Sergi published 'Le Varietà Umane: Principe e Metodo di Classificazione.' A translation forms Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collections, No. 969, and a new Italian edition appeared in 1900. During the last twenty years this indefatigable investigator, regarding all classifications of mankind based on cranial indexes as absurd, has devoted himself to the development of a new binomial scheme of cranial nomenclature. It can be only mentioned here. There are sixteen varietal names of crania, as follows: (1) Ellipsoides; (2) Pentagonoides; (3) Rhomboides; (4) Ovoides; (5) Beloides; (6) Spheroides; (7) Birsoides; (8) Parallelepipedoides; (9) Cylindroides; (10) Cuboides; (11) Trapezoides; (12) Acmonoides; (13) Lophocephalus; (14) Chomatocephalus; (15) Platycephalus; (16) Skopeloides. You may join to these *summa genera* other modifying terms, either for prefixes, as *dolichellipsoides* or *brachyellipsoides;* or subvarietal designations may be added, giving any number of binomials, such as *Trapezoides sardiniensis, Cuboides parvus,* and so on. If it be objected that these designations are long and cumbersome, it is very easy for Dr. Sergi to say that no insuperable obstacle is found in *Pithecanthropos erectus;* and, indeed, there are some of God's creatures so much smaller than their Græco-Roman titles that a million of them could dance thereon.

This Eurafric species, or Mediterranean family of races, left a profound impression upon history. The Egyptians were a detached branch of the primitive Libyans. The Pelasgians were a great division of an immense family spread from Italy to Asia Minor—the Etruscans are western Pelasgians. The oldest Italian stock, the Ligurian, had a community of origin with those of other Mediterranean regions. The early peoples of the Iberian peninsula show a Pelasgic form of skull belonging to the east and north of Africa, from Somaliland and Egypt to the Canaries. The Eurafric species, extending beyond the Pyrenees, invaded France and then Britain, constructing tumuli for the dead wherever it took possession. Pentagonoids, Egyptian rhomboids, ellipsoids, and ovoids, all common in the Mediterranean population, are found among the ancient crania of Switzerland. The so-called Reihengräber types are not Germanic Aryans, but belong to the same pre-Aryan population, and the primitive Neolithic population of Bohemia is the same. Not only early but also the present Scandinavians show relationship with the African stock. The first colonists of southern Russia came from the Mediterranean along the Propontis, the Black Sea, and by the Chersonese. The truly brachycephalic types of Italy, Spain, and France are of Asiatic origin. The anthropological unity of Europe existing from late Quaternary was broken by these eastern immigrants, called by Sergi the Eurasiatic species, which includes Kelts, Germans, and Slavs. "These invaders were savages, inferior to the Neolithic Europeans, whose civilization they in large part destroyed, replunging Europe into barbarism, also introducing the new mortuary custom of cremation, . . . and transforming the existing languages into their own."

In reading Sergi's book one is conscious always of a sense of doubt as to the foundations of ethnology. A hundred or more eminent scholars are quoted, and nearly in every case to disagree with them. Most of them are now living, and doubtless will be heard from in self-defence. Now, this would be well enough in a journal of ethnology, but the "Contemporary Science Series," designed to put intelligent readers in touch with the latest and best results, is not an arena. Sergi ought to have told us more about his own processes and conclusions. Again, there is an aggravating intrusion of *I* and *we*. The author does not know how to conceal himself. With all these defects of style, the book is the work of one of the most industrious, original, and fearless of European ethnologists.

Phonétique et Étude des Formes Grecques et Latines. Par Othon Riemann et Henri Goelzer. Pp. 540. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

Under the general title of "Grammaire Comparée du Grec et du Latin" this work forms a companion volume to the previously published 'Syntaxe,' by the same authors. Like the latter, it is based upon the manuscript notes left by the late M. Riemann, revised and augumented by M. Goelzer. Neither author has been a productive scholar along the lines of phonology or morphology, and in the present volume specialists will find no notable contribution to the solution of outstanding problems. The work is a compilation—but a good one, showing a reasonably thorough acquaintance with the literature of the subject, discrimination in the choice between conflicting opinions, and clearness of presentation. It ought to serve well its purpose of acquainting French classical students with the results of the comparative study of Greek and Latin. Its greater fulness of references to current literature gives it a certain advantage over the well-known 'Précis' of Victor Henry, which has met with such deserved success. A serious fault, inexcusable in a linguistic treatise, is the inconsistent practice in the marking of vowel-quantities both in Latin words and in words quoted from Sanskrit and other languages.

In discussing the different names given to our family of languages, the authors are guilty of a curious error in attributing the varying usage, as between the terms Indo-European and Indo-Germanic, to a difference of opinion as to the interrelations of the members of the family. "The partisans of the term Indo-European languages," they say, "divide these languages into two groups, the Oriental languages and the European languages. Those who prefer the term Indo-Germanic languages adopt the division into languages of the North and languages of the South." Reference is made here to the two most widely current of the many *Stammbaum* schemes once in vogue, but preference for one or the other of these schemes never had any influence on the choice of a name for the whole linguistic family. Both terms, Indo-European and Indo-Germanic, as well as others, came into use in the early part of the nineteenth century (Indo-Germanic has been traced back to 1823). Bopp used Indo-European, but later German scholars preferred Indo-Germanic, until this has become the established usage in German. French scholars have always used Indo-European, likewise American scholars, without exception, from Whitney to the present time. In England, since the passing of "Aryan," which, however, is still widely used in anthropological works and in popular essays the world over, both Indo-European and Indo-Germanic are used. The latter became familiar in English through its use, under the specific instructions of the author, in the translation of Brugmann's 'Grundriss,' and this perhaps accounts for its adoption in such works as Giles's 'Manual of Comparative Philology' and Lindsay's 'Latin Language.' But no one doubts that Indo-European is at least as good a name as Indo-Germanic, and there is no sufficient reason for abandoning it after it has been established in English usage.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, Emma J. Stories of Ancient Peoples. American Book Company. 50 cents.
Arnold, J. A. Guide for Business Corporations in the State of New York. Baker, Voorhis & Co. $1.50.
Barnes, James. The Great War Trek. D. Appleton & Co.
Bell, Lillian. Sir John and the American Girl. Harpers. $1.15.
Borders, J. H. The Queen of Appalachia. Abbey Press. $1.
Bouchier, John, Lord Berners. The Chronicle of Froissart, Vol. II. London: David Nutt.
Brandes, George. Main Currents in Nineteenth Century Literature. Macmillan.
Brinton, D. G. Races and Peoples. Philadelphia: David McKay.
Brisson, Adolphe. Portraits Intimes. Cinquième série. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr. 50.
Chamisso, Adelbert. Peter Schlemihl. Cassell & Co. 10 cents.
Chefs d'œuvres of the Exposition Universelle. Parts 12 and 13. Philadelphia: George Barrie & Son. $1 each.
Cicero, M. T. Old Age and Friendship. Cassell & Co. 10 cents.
Clarke, Hugh A. Highways and Byways of Music. Silver, Burdett & Co. 75 cents.
Cone, Orello. The Epistles to the Hebrews, Colossians, Ephesians, and Philemon, the Pastoral Epistles, the Epistles of James, Peter, and Jude. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Courthope, W. J. Life in Poetry: Law in Taste. Macmillan.
Crockett, S. R. The Play Actress, and Crawford, F. M. The Upper Berth. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
De Forest, J. W. The Downing Legends. New Haven: The Tuttle, Morehouse & Taylor Co.
Dexter, Almon. And the Wilderness Blossomed. Philadelphia: H. W. Fisher & Co. $2.
Duval, Delphine, and Williams, H. Isabelle. Le Dix-septième Siècle. Henry Holt & Co.
Eliot, George. Adam Bede. Vols. I. and II. London: J. M. Dent & Co.
Emerson, R. W. Representative Men. London: J. M. Dent & Co.
Esmond, H. V. When We Were Twenty-One. J. S. Ogilvie Pub. Co. 25 cents.
Fielding, Anna. Did She Fail? Abbey Press. 50 cents.
Fuller, Anna. Katherine Day. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Garner, J. W. Reconstruction in Mississippi. Macmillan.
Gautier, Théophile. Works, Vols. VII.: Travels in Italy; and VIII.: Fortunio. George D. Sproul.
Hart, Beatrice. Seven Great American Poets. Silver, Burdett & Co. 90 cents.
Hasluck, P. N. Taxidermy. Cassell & Co. 40 cents.
Henderson, John B., jr. American Diplomatic Questions. Macmillan. $3.50.
Hodder, Alfred. The Adversaries of the Sceptic. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Holgate, T. F. Elementary Geometry, Plane and Solid. Macmillan. $1.10.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 11, 1901.

The Week.

The leading Imperialist or Expansionist newspapers of this city have been for more than a week withholding from their readers highly important news. We refer to the diplomatic dispatches leading up to our war with Spain. Announcement of their publication was made nearly three weeks ago, and their full text was obtainable in this city a fortnight since. But while these newspapers have printed learned articles on the origin of the Boer war, and would, were there any new information about the Ems dispatch and the responsibility for the Franco-German war, eagerly reproduce it and discuss it, and would feel ashamed to omit newly discovered knowledge about any war in history, from the capture of Babylon down, these documents, throwing so much new light on the causes and outbreak of our own war of only three years ago, they suppress. They not only refuse to print them; they will not even refer to them. The importance of the dispatches cannot be denied. They are "news" in the highest sense of the word. Many of them have never before been printed, even in part. They are a perfect mine of information, much of it now first accessible, regarding the diplomatic exchanges between Spain and the United States, which had been so sedulously kept secret for three years. What are able editors thinking of who do not seize upon the earliest occasion to print such "mighty interesting reading"?

Our imperialistic press began the plan of unblushing suppression with the Treaty of Paris correspondence. In that it appeared that Mr. McKinley had warned his Commissioners that to annex the Philippines would be "an adventurous departure on untried paths"; and that ex-Secretary Day, the President's right-hand man, telegraphed from Paris a solemn protest against Philippine annexation. But did the Imperialist newspapers print any of this? Not they. We suppose it is true that nine-tenths of American newspaper readers do not know to this day that anything of the sort happened. This is a measure of the political service which a party organ can render by keeping mum. All its vociferous articles lumped in one are not worth as much to an Administration embarrassed by the facts, as is its dense and discreet silence about the facts. This policy is evidently to be followed, if possible, in connection with the Spanish-war dispatches. It is, indeed, a little hard to find that the war which you have been describing for three years as "inevitable," was really among the most avoidable of human occurrences; that the *casus belli* did not exist; that Spain had, in fact, granted our demands, as Chili did in 1892, and that war with the former was no more necessary than with the latter. But facts are facts. There has been great curiosity about these dispatches. They were asked for in Congress, but refused. They were too delicate a matter, contained too many state secrets, to be divulged. But when they are at last published, when the whole tale is finally told, the leaders of the American press calmly suppress them!

The action taken at Manila on the Fourth of July looking towards the substitution of civil for military rule in the Philippines is to be welcomed as a step in the right direction. The difficulties in the way of a harmonious policy are evidently great when the new Civil Governor admits that the insurrection still exists in five of the twenty-seven provinces organized, and requires the continuance of military rule in them, to say nothing of the fact that, from the very nature of the case, the authority of the Military Governor must be supreme in case of an exigency anywhere else. Nevertheless, our people are so prejudiced against military rule on general principles that they will rejoice at its amelioration in the Philippines.

Gen. MacArthur has not hitherto made his mark either as orator or writer, but he certainly earned the thanks of posterity in his Fourth of July speech on handing over the command of the Philippine Islands to Gen. Chaffee. "I bequeath to you all my troubles" were the only and the cogent words which the historical student of the future will find to commemorate this interesting event. We have no hesitation in saying that they will prove far more suggestive fifty years from now than Gov. Taft's address, in spite of his recommendation that the Philippine adults should educate themselves "by observing American methods." Notwithstanding the pessimistic cast of his words, Gen. MacArthur may on the whole feel well satisfied with the results of his three years' stay in the Philippines. He went out a lieutenant-colonel of regulars and a brigadier-general of volunteers. He returns a major-general of regulars, after having commanded the most important army since the civil war, except one, and the largest number of troops given to any one officer since 1866. As a commander of troops in the face of the enemy, he has earned high praise for his strategy and ability, as well as for the high character of his staff. As Governor-General, he displayed a far more straightforward and independent spirit than did his predecessor, Gen. Otis. It is a pity that so good a man should have had to be the instrument of so bad a cause.

The controversy between Gen. Sickles and Pension Commissioner Evans has led to some objurgation against Mr. Cleveland's pension vetoes. But, really, nobody who favors the policy of "going blind" in the matter of pensions (and this is what all the assailants of Commissioner Evans want) ought to invite an examination of Mr. Cleveland's veto messages. Of those vetoed bills, 271 in number, Congress passed only one over the veto, and that was for a pension to a man who had never enlisted in the army at all, although he had participated in one fight "on his own hook." Taking down the list of Mr. Cleveland's private-pension vetoes and opening at random, we note one, dated February 23, 1895, as a specimen. It is a bill "granting a pension to Hiram R. Rhea, and repealing an act approved March 3, 1871." The act here repealed was one granting a pension to this same Hiram R. Rhea, under which the said Rhea had been drawing a pension for nearly twenty-two years. At the end of that time it was ascertained that Rhea had been a disreputable member of a band of armed rebels, and was wounded by Union soldiers in action. These facts were reported by the Commissioner of Pensions to Congress, which body, with tardy zeal, passed a bill to repeal the pension which it had previously granted, but in the very same bill incorporated a section directing the Secretary of the Interior to put this same man, Rhea, on the pension list. This bill ran the gauntlet of the two Committees on Pensions, and of both branches of Congress, and was stopped by the President's veto. *Ab uno disce omnes—i. e.*, President Cleveland's vetoes of private-pension bills. Not all the bills vetoed were quite as absurd as this one, but their generally reckless and irresponsible character may be truthfully inferred from this one.

Both of the leading army and navy newspapers, the *Register* and the *Journal*, represent the views of a good many veterans of the civil war, and both have come out squarely against Gen. Sickles's views of the Pension Office and of its chief, Commissioner Evans. The *Journal*, itself edited by a veteran of the civil war, who has performed more than one public service in this city, characterizes Gen. Sickles's attitude as "an insult to the Grand Army of the Republic." It bitterly resents his informing the President that the price of continued loyalty of Republican veterans "is

the removal of the Commissioner, who carries in his pocket Gen. Sickles's certificate to his high character and his fitness for the office he fills." It further declares that

"The true old-soldier sentiment of this country favors an administration of our pension laws so honest and exact that it will make it as difficult as possible to secure pensions for bummers and dead-beats, the bounty jumpers and the coffee-coolers of the civil war. They believe that our pension laws have been, if anything, too liberal, and they have some measure of sympathy for the taxpayers who are patiently bearing their burden of a pension list approaching one hundred and fifty millions of dollars a year."

The *Register* believes that to the casual observer our pension laws must seem remarkably liberal, and that Mr. Evans's administration is not marked by any wrongs such as would excuse Gen. Sickles's outburst against the liberty of the press and his threats of mob violence against newspapers like the *Evening Post* and the New York *Times*, which decline to sit by and see the Treasury robbed without a protest. Gen. Sickles will find it hard to answer these editors, who know how the soldier of 1901 feels, as well as the views of the soldiers of 1861.

Secretary Wilson of the Department of Agriculture could not plead Fourth of July enthusiasm as an excuse for the interview which he gave to the special correspondent of the *Tribune* on Tuesday week. He declared that within a year the United States and its new possessions would be producing practically everything we use, and he added:

"There is no doubt that this country within a few months will be in a position to ignore every other nation on the globe in the matter of food products. We shall produce within our own domain everything that goes upon our table and upon our backs. We shall then be, commercially and industrially, almost independent of the other nations of the world. Hence any trade combination which may be effected against us will count for nothing. Whenever we get ready we can come pretty near starving any other nation. Therefore an effective combination against us will be an impossibility."

Here is the "home market" idea carried to the bitter end. The interesting question for our farmers and others who wish to export is, How are we going to carry on a foreign trade in our own products if we will take nothing from other nations? Only a few weeks ago President McKinley himself, the greatest living Protectionist, began to talk about plans for getting our products into the markets of the world. Why, then, does a mere Secretary of Agriculture fly in the face of Destiny and Duty?

Congressman Dalzell is a very Sir Oracle of protection, and his remarks on the "serious question" which will confront Congress when it comes to take up reciprocity and tariff concessions to the Cubans, show that the vein of protectionist humor is by no means exhausted. His heart beats warmly for reciprocity, but only when it does not conflict with "the principle" of the protective tariff. Ask what that principle is, and you learn that it is the "folly" of reducing our tariff in order to get other countries to reduce theirs. This seems to make of reciprocity purely a pious opinion, something reserved for use in political platforms only. Dalzell, however, is heartily in favor of it, provided you do not insist upon his defining it. That he will sternly refuse to do. Any specific measure he is prepared to oppose. Even the promised favors to Cuban products he foresees there will be great difficulty in inducing Congress to grant. There are "our own interests" always to be considered, and many of the most powerful are against doing anything for the Cubans. Still, if the matter be only treated "broadly," all will be well, thinks the Pennsylvania Congressman. But the breadth of his own views is obviously nothing but the old narrowness of protectionist greed and selfishness.

A morning paper has an interview with Senator Hoar on the two subjects of protection and bimetallism. According to this interview, Mr. Hoar gained his opinions on both these questions from Alexander Hamilton. We pointed out recently that it was Hamilton's idea that protection might be desirable for a very few years, merely for the purpose of getting certain industries started. His report on manufactures was written in 1790. We doubt whether Mr. Hoar has read it lately. If he has, he must have wondered why it is necessary to maintain duties of 50 per cent. on articles that Hamilton proposed to admit at 7 to 10 per cent. one hundred and eleven years ago. Mr. Hoar's views on reciprocity are as incongruous and as much out of date as those on Hamilton's scheme of protection. He says that "we shall accomplish in some way a reasonable reciprocity by admitting from other countries what they can produce and we cannot produce, and sending to other countries what we produce and they cannot." This points to a coming disagreement between the Senator and President McKinley which must be extremely painful to the former. The latter's ideas of reciprocity have been formulated in a concrete way in certain treaties negotiated by the Department of State and duly communicated to the Senate, and especially in a treaty with France, which was not acted upon by the Senate at its last session. There were two items in this treaty which were obnoxious to certain persons in Massachusetts—one relating to imitation jewelry and the other relating to knit goods. The Home Market Club denounced these clauses of the treaty and the whole treaty vigorously, and the Senators from Massachusetts of course took their cue from their constituents.

The particular kind of reciprocity that Mr. Hoar favors would admit free of duty coffee from Brazil, Venezuela, and Java, asbestos from Canada, cinchona bark from India, bristles from Russia, coral (unmanufactured) from Italy, furs from Canada, spices from the East Indies, manila grass from the Philippines, India rubber, indigo, ivory, and lemons from various countries, tin ore and block tin from the Straits, tea from eastern Asia, sulphur from Sicily, etc. Unfortunately, all these articles are in the free list of the Dingley tariff. It would be difficult to say what articles not already free of duty could be admitted under Mr. Hoar's scheme of reciprocity. That Dingley himself contemplated a different kind of reciprocity from that proposed by Mr. Hoar is apparent from the fourth section of his bill, which provides for a reduction not exceeding 20 per cent. of the rates now levied on dutiable articles imported from countries which shall make similar or satisfactory reductions on articles exported from the United States. The fact is, that reciprocity on Mr. Hoar's plan is impossible. There is no material out of which such treaties can be made. The plan is put forward as a device for defeating reciprocity altogether. It is a form of words designed to bring about the rejection of all the treaties now pending, and especially the treaty with France.

The dividends declared last week on the shares of the United States Steel Corporation, popularly known as the Steel Trust, attract attention for several reasons. They undoubtedly testify, in the first place, to the immense prosperity of the American steel trade. When the constituent companies of the Steel Corporation were organized—mostly in 1898 and 1899—their capital was as a rule divided equally into preferred and common stock. It was well understood in the trade, and frankly avowed, that the preferred shares of these companies fairly represented the intrinsic value of the properties at the time of combination, while the common shares were virtually distributed as a "bonus" to owners of purchased mills, to promoters, to banking syndicates which floated the stock, and so forth. Last March, the "billion-dollar combination" was organized, and, in exchange for the common stock of most of these companies, it offered more than an equal amount in its own common shares. Thus, for every $100 in National Steel and National Tube common stock, the United States Corporation exchanged $125 in common shares of its own. Something like twenty-five million

dollars was added to the joint capital of the enterprises by this process alone, quite aside from the still more considerable increase through "bonus" in new preferred shares. Yet, in the very first quarter of the huge Steel Trust's existence, its directors declare the maximum dividend prescribed for the new preferred stock, and add a quarterly 1 per cent. on the new common.

In view of the novelty of the whole experiment, and of the immense investment funds involved, comment on all such fiscal moves is perfectly in order. But this particular action is not easy to criticise, one way or the other, for the reason that only the most inadequate statements of earnings are made public. Four months ago, the bankers who floated the combination issued a public statement that last year's earnings, by the properties now consolidated in the Trust, were sufficient to pay dividends on both classes of new stock, and still have plenty over for repairs, renewals, and insurance against depreciation. As to how much has been left this quarter for such purposes, nothing is said. Whether it would be sufficient, in the light of trade experience, no one outside the council of directors has any means of knowing. If the bankers' statement regarding the 1900 surplus is taken without question, enough must certainly have been earned in the past three months to pay dividends on all the Trust's securities. The iron trade has been immensely prosperous, and its profits have by all reports exceeded last year's. But who is to judge whether or not enough is really being appropriated for the depreciation items? The bankers say the allowance is ample, and their authority is very high. But opinions on such estimates differ, even in the inmost circles of trade. What the Carnegie Works deemed a proper appropriation for improvement of the property, either the Illinois or the Maryland Steel Works would have regarded as monstrous extravagance. A common estimate of the "depreciation charge" has been 3 per cent. on capital, but the *Evening Post's* Pittsburgh correspondent on Saturday showed how the ultra-conservative steelmaker may justify 15 per cent. withdrawn for the same purpose. We hope to hear more on this point, for the whole question of the future of industrial investments is wrapped up in it.

Mr. Charles G. Dawes, Comptroller of the Currency for the past four years, some time ago began working to secure the United States Senatorship which will be disposed of by the Illinois Legislature a year from next winter. It has been charged, and is commonly believed, that he has used the appointments under him to promote his own political advancement. We freely admit, for our own part, that Mr. Dawes's management of the bank examiners in this section, and particularly his plan of shifting examiners at intervals from city to city, instead of leaving them permanently in the same location, has decidedly improved the service. Nevertheless, continuance in the Comptrollership under his present political circumstances threatened a serious political scandal. Mr. Dawes himself has come to realize this, and has resigned his position. This is only what any man holding one Federal office ought to do when he goes to work to get another, but it is a rare enough occurrence to excite remark.

Mr. Chamberlain was well within the facts when he said to the Canadians in London the other day that the possibility of the annexation of Canada to the United States is much slighter now than thirty years ago. The sentiment is different, not only on both sides of the boundary, but also in Great Britain. Disraeli, whom the English Imperialists now think of as a kind of patron saint, especially on Primrose Day, long held very low views of the colonies, which he once spoke of as so many millstones hung to the neck of England, and which she ought to get rid of if she could. He was probably right, yet the South African war was the occasion, more than the cause, of a remarkable display, before the eyes of the world, of the loyalty of the colonies to the Crown, and of the significance of the term, the British Empire. It is another matter, however, to account for the slackening and almost entire disappearance of the annexation movement in both Canada and the United States. Trade hostilities and tariff reprisals have undoubtedly had something to do with it. Some of our Washington wiseacres have thought that, if we only taxed Canadian products smartly enough, we should see Canada on her knees begging to be annexed. The result has proved to be quite the contrary. Canadian statesmen have sought closer economic relations with England, at the same time that they have set about developing their own vast domain in the Northwest. On our side of the line, it is undeniable that the annexations into which we blundered as a result of the Spanish war have diverted the thoughts of our always small group of Canadian annexationists. And across the border, if we may believe Mr. Goldwin Smith, the spectacle of the United States going in for tropical islands and subject races has greatly cooled the ardor of those Canadians who, like him, had advocated union with their neighbor on the south.

When Mr. Brodrick announced in the House of Commons on Thursday that all negotiations with the Boers were at an end, and that the burghers had determined to continue the fight for absolute independence, he found it necessary to add that the Government's resolution to see the war through was unshaken. The statement shows in itself how nervous the Treasury Bench has become over the military situation and the steady attacks of the Opposition, divided as the latter now is. The Liberal leaders have no lack of material for their onslaughts. The failure of all the military plans for a prompt subjugation of the two republics, the concentration camp horrors, and the continued inability of the Government to find terms acceptable to the Boers—these furnish the Liberals with so much ammunition that the absence of strong and united leaders alone prevents their becoming extremely dangerous to the Salisbury Government. A hundred years ago Burke and Fox demonstrated that two men can create an Opposition, and speak the truth in a way to compel the respectful attention of the Government and the country, even when siding with "rebels and traitors" of the same blood and ancestry. Like the American Imperialist, the English Jingo finds it necessary to call names and charge lack of patriotism when things do not come his way. Who would know that Thursday's debate in London was not at Washington if Filipino were substituted for Boer, Lodge for Brodrick, and Beveridge for Balfour?

At Chamberlain's door, and at his alone, must be laid the responsibility of the repeated failure to find terms acceptable and honorable to both parties. Lord Kitchener found them, although he is considered a mere machine, without the bowels of mercy—just as soldiers who have learned to respect a brave and honorable enemy have so often discovered the middle way which led to a grounding of arms. But Chamberlain at home would have none of it—no one knows why, unless it be the Cabinet; and so the weary round of guerrilla warfare, of death by disease and bullet and concentration, is to go on indefinitely, even though the British public is plainly sickening of the casualties which are the feature of every issue of an English daily. Face to face with a steadily dwindling army in South Africa, with renewed demands for mounted troops, with a trying reorganization of War Office and army under way, with increasing difficulty in getting recruits now that the popular enthusiasm for the war is subsiding, as well as with steadily increasing hostilities on the Continent, the position of the Salisbury Government can hardly be said to be enviable. Were the truth but known, the Ministers themselves would probably be found to be as much in the dark as to what is to be expected in South Africa as any puzzled newspaper reader of the scant official dispatches on this or the other side of the Atlantic.

"OUR NEW POSSESSIONS" AND THE FUTURE.

The various Anti-Imperialist Leagues in different parts of the country improved the national anniversary by the issue of an address to the American people. It was a happy thought to enforce sound ideas as to the administration of our Government on the occasion which revives memories of the struggle for its establishment. The address sets forth the situation regarding both Cuba and "our new possessions," as affected by the course of our Government and the recent decision of the Supreme Court, and lays stress upon the dangers of the arbitrary rule which is now exercised by the President in Cuba, and which may be indefinitely continued in the Philippines under the ruling of our highest judicial tribunal. It closes with an appeal for organized effort to arouse and educate public sentiment, to the end that the next Congress may be induced to do its duty, and refrain from endorsing "the policy of incorporating the island peoples into our system without rights."

This is a platform upon which all may stand who wish to see the republic maintain its traditions and discharge its duties, whatever their attitude towards the Expansion policy has been in the past. There has never been a time when patriotic Americans have been more puzzled as to the political course which they ought to pursue than during the past three years. A national campaign should be a test of public sentiment on the great question of Federal policy which is uppermost at the time, but the utter demoralization of the Opposition in 1900, and its continued surrender to a leadership which was profoundly distrusted by independent voters, rendered such a division impossible. Many earnest and influential Anti-Imperialists reluctantly supported the reëlection of President McKinley, on the two-fold ground that no dependence could be placed upon a man with Bryan's shifty record on the Expansion issue, leading a party the dominant wing of which in the South rejected "the consent of the governed" theory; and that there were such signs of dissent in the Republican party from the permanent support of an Imperialistic policy as justified the hope that a wise solution might yet be reached if it should be continued in power.

The address condemns the decision recently rendered by the Supreme Court, and endorses the dissenting views expressed by Justice Harlan, especially his declaration that "the idea that this country may acquire territories anywhere upon the earth, by conquest or treaty, and hold them as mere colonies or provinces, and the people inhabiting them to enjoy only such rights as Congress chooses to accord them, is wholly inconsistent with the spirit and genius, as well as with the words, of the Constitution." But the decision having been rendered and Congress having been vested with the possession of such powers, the thing now to do is to labor for the development of a public sentiment that will, at the earliest possible day, secure the adoption of a policy under which there will be no occasion or excuse for the employment of arbitrary authority over remote islands by the Government at Washington.

There is one fortunate feature of the Supreme Court's decision. It explicitly renders possible the grant of independence to the Philippines—or, for that matter, to the Porto Ricans. It was held by many able Constitutional lawyers that, if the contrary principle had been asserted, and these islands had been pronounced as much parts of the United States as New York or Texas, there would have been no more possibility of ever getting them out of our possession than there is in the case of New York or Texas. However that may be, it is conceded by all that, as the Constitution is interpreted by a majority of the Supreme Court, the United States may dispose of its new islands in any way that it chooses, and so, of course, may grant them full independence.

This is the goal to be aimed at. There is no reason why it should not ultimately be reached. Such a result would evidently be welcome to a large and growing element in the Republican party. There have been all along Republican Senators and Representatives who opposed the policy of Imperialism, and who stood out against its application in the case of the Porto Rican tariff last year. There are others, of high standing and great influence in the party, who have supported the Administration, but who have not thereby accepted a colonial policy as permanently necessary or tolerable. Senator Spooner of Wisconsin, who has expressly mentioned the "independence" of the Philippines as a possible and desirable issue, is the most conspicuous representative of this class. Leading independent journals which have supported the action of the Government, now advocate such a solution of the problem, the Indianapolis *News* being the most prominent of this class. There are many Republican editors whose attitude clearly shows that they will be glad to support a movement looking in this direction.

Altogether the prospect is not discouraging for those who would see the nation escape honorably from its present complications. Nobody can find anywhere the slightest evidence that our people have become enamored of the idea of owning "possessions" in remote parts of the earth. On the contrary, there are abundant signs that they will welcome the adoption of a policy by which we may help the establishment of independent republics, as we have always welcomed the development of such republics in the past. The aim now should be to make Congress responsive to such sentiments.

THE RACE CENSUS AT THE SOUTH.

During the last ten years the negro population of the Black Belt of Alabama has increased much more rapidly than the white. There are twelve contiguous counties in that State in each of which the whites constitute less than one-third of the inhabitants. Their combined area is 9,367 square miles, or something more than that of Massachusetts and Rhode Island taken together. In 1890 these counties had an aggregate white population of 79,291. They have now 87,202. In the same period the negroes increased from 299,681 to 350,938. As against an absolute white increase of 7,911 is to be set a negro gain of 51,257. Relatively, the difference between the respective rates of growth of the two races has not been so great, but it has for all that been quite marked. There are now less than 10 per cent. more white people in the region under consideration than there were in 1890, while there are upwards of 17 per cent. more negroes. For at least twenty years the negroes have been gaining on the whites. In 1880, out of every 1,000 inhabitants of these counties, 218 were white, now only 199. Two decades ago the negroes outnumbered the whites by 210,907—to-day by 263,736.

Bordering on these overwhelmingly black counties are nine others in each of which there is a negro majority, but in each of which the whites constitute more than one-third of the entire population. In these nine counties, considered as a whole, the negroes have, during the last ten years, increased more rapidly than the whites. In 1890 they had 116,575 negro and 89,790 white inhabitants. They have now a black population of 136,415 and a white of 100,787. There has been, therefore, in the decade an increase of 19,840 blacks and of 10,997 whites. The respective rates of increase were 17.02 and 12.26 per cent. Twenty years ago, out of every 1,000 of their residents, 442 were white; now only 425 are.

In 1891 attention was called in these columns to the possibility that the conditions under which the census of 1890 was taken might have resulted in an imperfect count in the black belts of the South. The figures for 1900 now made public by the Census Office seem to show that, in the negro counties of Alabama at least, there was in 1890 an under-enumeration of the inhabitants. Between 1880 and 1890 the apparent increase in the population of these counties was at the rate of less than 2 per cent., as against more than 15 per cent. for the decade from 1890 to 1900. Fail-

ure to enumerate in 1890 all the negroes of Alabama is probably the reason why the rate of negro increase for the last ten years appears to be greater than the white. Between 1880 and 1890 the census purports to show that the white population increased at the rate of 25.90 per cent., and between 1890 and 1900 at the rate of 20.08 per cent. During the earlier decade the percentage of negro increase is said to have been 13.05, and during the later 21.94. Had the relative rates of growth for the two races indicated by the census of 1890 been genuine, and had they continued for a few decades, the race problem would in Alabama have ceased to be serious. As it is, a comparison of the figures of the census for 1860 with those of 1900 shows that forty years of revolutionary changes have had no appreciable effect in disturbing the relative numbers of the two races.

Since 1860 the State has gone through a terrible war. Slavery in it has been abolished. Its negroes were enfranchised, and subsequently have been, in fact if not in law, again disfranchised. In a community which before the war was purely agricultural, manufacturing and mining industries have sprung up and have flourished. Yet in 1860, out of every 10,000 inhabitants of Alabama, 4,540 were negroes, and in 1900 4,524 were still of the weaker race. The Constitutional Convention of the State now in session will have need of the wisdom of its wisest. The revelations of the census emphasize the importance of the work which Mr. Booker T. Washington and his associates are doing. Tuskegee is in the midst of this Alabama Black Belt, in which, as we have seen, there are more than four negroes to every white. Of the Caucasians one-fifth (a disproportionately large part) dwell in the cities and towns of which they constitute nearly half the inhabitants. In the purely rural regions the negro's numerical preponderance is already overwhelming and is steadily increasing. The territory included in these counties is among the most fertile of the South. It is capable of supporting a large population. That population for an indefinite time to come will be negro. Will it also be prosperous, civilized, and moral? Tuskegee is striving to have the question answered in the affirmative.

The only other Southern State for which the race figures have been made public, is Arkansas. In that State during the last decade the negroes have increased more rapidly than the whites, as they have done in every census period but one for the last eighty years. Out of every 10,000 inhabitants, 2,797 were in 1900 negroes. They are, however, in a majority in six counties only. In five of these their preponderance is very great, and seems to be increasing. In no one of the five do the whites constitute one-fourth of the population, and in one they barely number one-eighth of the whole.

THE ROGERS BEQUEST TO THE METROPOLITAN MUSEUM.

The acquisition of the great endowment fund bequeathed by the late Jacob S. Rogers—presuming that the attempt to break the will fails, as the best judges expect—should mark the turning-point in the fortunes and policy of the Metropolitan Museum. Heretofore the Museum has had no adequate funds for the acquisition of objects of art, no sufficient staff to arrange and catalogue properly such exhibits as it had, no established policy of enlargement. In short, those acquainted with the management of the great European museums would have made the comment frequently applied to the British line officers—"amateurs all." That, in spite of disadvantages which would have probably prevented the growth of a European museum, the Metropolitan Museum has grown marvellously, is most creditable to all concerned in its conduct, and there is a certain pride in noting that volunteer effort will at need so nearly replace professional skill and an established policy.

But with the acquisition of an additional income of some $200,000 the era of amateurism in the Metropolitan Museum must pass. The things that were inevitable when the good will of the Trustees and the generosity of private individuals had to repair deficiencies in staff and endowment, would no longer be tolerable. That Gen. di Cesnola fully realizes the situation is shown in interviews recently given by him to the press. Most people will learn with something like amazement that for the entire collections there were only three curators, and all will feel with the Director that the staff should be enlarged. In the character of these new curators lies the immediate future of the Museum, and the Trustees will fall far short of the general expectation if they appoint any short of the best. It should be frankly admitted that there is to-day in immediate charge of the Museum collections no specialist of the first class. The Director's position requires a general knowledge of the whole field of art rather than that minute knowledge of any special branch which Gen. di Cesnola would be the first to disclaim. Neither of his colleagues, faithful and accomplished administrators that they are, has the standing among archæologists that Mr. Edward Robinson, for example, and Mr. Morse of the Boston Art Museum enjoy. At the time when they were appointed, the Metropolitan Museum was almost a private collection, and art connoisseurship was in its infancy in this country. It may be assumed that these gentlemen, whose long devotion and tact have made their services quite indispensable, will welcome as assistants and colleagues the archæologists and connoisseurs of more recent training whom the Trustees will now be able to appoint. So much may be gathered from Gen. di Cesnola's published interviews.

Numerous reforms, some of them already indicated by the Director, will follow this rejuvenation of the Museum staff. A matter which, perhaps, affects the general public little, but which touches the pride of the art lover, is the unsatisfactory character of the Museum catalogues. It is a weakness from which no museum is wholly free, to take an indulgent view of its own collections, but among connoisseurs it hurts a museum to carry some half-dozen Raphael drawings on its catalogue when it has only one, to parade five pictures by Velasquez when it has at best only two which are authentic, to hold before the public that priceless thing a Lionardo when it has in fact only a pretty ideal head by a well-known imitator of the master. Such slips, which are drawn almost at random from the Museum catalogue, will be remedied when the collections are for the first time thoroughly sifted and inventoried by specialists.

Far more important than the remedying of minor defects and deficiencies in the present organization is the ability to increase the collection systematically under the direction of the Museum authorities. Such a fund and such a consistent administration of it are the conditions of normal growth. We should be the last to deprecate gifts of works of art to the Museum, but it is seldom that gifts are such an unqualified blessing as was that of the Marquand collection of old masters. No museum can always have such good fortune as to find a benefactor and a connoisseur in the same person. It is doubtful, for example, if any but a poorly stored gallery would have been justified in accepting the Wolfe pictures *en bloc* without the accompanying *solatium* of a two-hundred-thousand-dollar bequest.

When the Rogers gift is finally transferred to the Museum, the curators will have the annual spending of some hundreds of thousands of dollars—more, we believe, than any foreign museum has regularly at its disposal for acquisitions. The apportionment of this income to the different departments is a matter which should be easily adjusted, and we would only suggest that generous appropriations be made for classical antiquities of the best periods, and for early painting, particularly of the Italian school. For modern art the Museum, while taking pains to fill gaps, may still safely trust to the generosity of its patrons. The spending of this large income in the separate departments is, on the contrary, a matter requiring the highest professional skill.

The curator must be an infallible judge of the objects he purchases. He should also have an exhaustive knowledge of the contents of private collections; in short, he should know the location, so far as possible, of every object of art in his especial field, and the chances of its successful capture. He must have the expert technical knowledge of the matter in hand which a great dealer has, and know absolutely commercial values, while remaining sensitive to permanent artistic quality. If the trustees of the Metropolitan Museum will find two or three such curators and trust them, the Museum will, even in our time, take rank with the great collections of Europe. This great benefaction carries with it a great responsibility, which we are sure the Museum will meet in the spirit of enlightened liberality that has characterized all its history.

THE HOTEL PROBLEM.

Our country might be defined as the land of great hotels, for it is doubtful if anywhere else there has been such lavish expenditure of money and such almost heroic endeavor to minister to the comfort, luxury, or even whim, of the passing guest. This movement towards luxury has been attended with a corresponding increase in comfort. In most of the greater inns one may have all the quiet that is consistent with residence in a caravansary, and find a table served as well as that of a good restaurant or a well-ordered home. Only a few years ago the single "order" on a huge tray, and the multitudinous "vegetable dishes," still made a hotel dinner a matter of long and unhappy remembrance. To-day all that is changed, and if we only pay enough for it, we may all have our ease in our inn.

But the ideal inn is, after all, the small one. Not because it is inexpensive, though this is a quality not to be despised, but because it admits of certain perfections of attendance and cuisine from which the great hotel, through very multiplication of machinery, is precluded. No one who remembers some of the modest inns of Italy or Switzerland, where the fare is of the simplest, but exquisitely prepared and served, and a handful of servants seek to learn and humor the personal idiosyncrasies of Monsieur or Madame, can fail to regret the rarity of such inns in this country. For there are many who are never, at heart, quite reconciled to the large hotel, with its inevitable noise and confusion. There are many, too, whose affection for the small inn is more than sentimental and platonic. With them it is a question of getting reasonable accommodations without being at large expense. And indeed there is something amiss in a system under which people of gentle habits and requirements must pay in the cities upwards of four dollars a day for suitable accommodation, and in the smaller towns and in the country half as much. There is a kind of absurdity in the fact that a European trip should be far less costly, and, for equal expenditure, far more comfortable than a trip in our own country.

Here and there one finds excellent inns of the second class, to use the Baedeker phrase; but generally, when one leaves the cities and great resorts, there are only second-class hotels, which vary in badness from the halting imitation of a great hotel to the overgrown boarding-house, in which the maid seats you "where the reaching's good, sir." Why a nation of travellers, not deficient in any other form of enterprise, should make so poor a fist at inn-keeping, is not at first blush easy to see. It seems to come, at least in part, from the fallacy of bigness, expressing itself in the present instance in the attempt to make the small inn as much as possible like the great hotel. The mistake of such an idea need hardly be dwelt upon. It is not in a gorgeous office, in spacious public rooms, nor in complicated system of call bells, formidable bills-of-fare, and superfluous servants that the real comfort of a good hotel resides. It is rather in quiet and respectful service, in fare perfect of its kind, however simple. There could be no worse model for the keeper of an inn than the great hotel, and yet, when he admits any authority save his own inner leading, this is the model he sets before himself. He seeks salvation in the Persian apparatus of upholsterer and cabinet-maker, neglecting the weightier matters of good food and good service. His true course would be to accept the limitations of his position, and take as his model the well-conducted boarding-house. From this point of view Canadian hotels are frequently superior to our own.

The chief obstacle to reform is the apparent inability of the average hotel-keeper to find out what his guest really wants, and a tendency to consider it unreasonable for the guest to want anything that the hotel has not usually supplied. Imagine the feeling of a clerk when a guest prefers the privacy and convenience of a portable tub in his room to passing through the corridors to a public bathroom: the guest is lucky if he is not judged to be in contempt of the hotel plumbing. Or again, a guest may desire to see his tea made, or to mix his own coffee and milk, only to find that these things are beyond the ken of his host.

To be sure, the guest is partly to blame. We Americans are an uncomplaining lot. We are too amiable to find fault, and too busy or indifferent to argue out our point with host or waiter. Hence we are badly served on all hands, and, if it were not for the general increase of wealth and the influx of foreign servants, we should still, so far as hotel life is concerned, be as Martin Chuzzlewit saw us. Fortunately there are influences at work which make for the innkeeper's education. The bicycle now reaches the remotest corners of the land, and the automobile is to be seen on rural roads, bringing to the smaller inns a class of customers who are reasonably insistent in expressing their wants. Already the effect of this movement is noticeable along the main travelled roads, and we may expect further improvement in this direction. Perhaps we shall not have small hotels of the European standard until there is in this country a more uniform standard of living, in which matter "Abroad" is really more democratic than we are. So long as we are not generally agreed as to the kind of food to be eaten and the way to eat it, so long as many guests really do not care whether the dinner coffee is first, last, or all along, the native American hotel-keeper will cherish his delusion that, if there is "plenty of everything," it matters little what there is plenty of. While hoping for the conversion of our present innkeepers, we wish that some enlightened capitalist would see the opportunity for starting a system of city hotels, at a two-dollar or a two-dollar-and-a-half rate, in which the ideal should be refined simplicity of entertainment. Such hotels would meet a real need, and their founder would hardly fail of his reward.

JOHN FISKE, POPULARIZER.

The work of the brilliant man whose life was cut short on Thursday, is doubtless best described as that of a purveyor of knowledge to the commonalty. John Fiske's mind was powerful, but not originating. He knew what true learning was, and where it was; and it was his delight and highest function to go into the workshops of the great laborers in philosophy and in history, and come out to tell the world what they were doing. He was essentially a lecturer.

"Child of an age that lectures, not creates,"

said Lowell of himself, ruefully. But lecturing may be made so much of a fine art that it may almost be said to be itself creative. It was so in Fiske's hands. For mastery of his subject without dulness, for lucidity and charm and fresh enthusiasm, we probably have never had his like—at least, in the abstruser philosophical and historical subjects which it was his joy to expound and illuminate.

His chosen and successful rôle was thus that of a popularizer of useful knowledge. His early writings in elucidation of Herbert Spencer, for example, probably had ten readers in this country where the original works of the evolutionary philosopher had one. The

reason was that Fiske had the gift of exposition, and was able, by his style, as no man ever accused Spencer of being, to make philosophy as musical as is Apollo's lute. If Huxley was, as he boasted, the "bull-dog" of Darwin, Fiske was the mocking-bird of Spencer. And to him, above all lecturers and interpreters, may rightly be applied Coleridge's famous distinction between "popularize" and "plebificate." John Fiske was no smatterer. If it is true that other men labored and he entered into their labors, it was by no royal road. He went to the sources as well as they; he was able to check off their work, and so to escape the danger of their leading him around by the nose. His own industry was enormous, his reading of a tremendous sweep, his passion for investigation like a living fountain within him, and his curiosity ever unsated. So it was the real thing he gave out to the public—genuine scholarship, first-hand information, and not the mere echo of his authorities.

His fruitful labors in American history will be his best bid for remembrance. The fashion of philosophy changeth, and his writings on speculative evolution are already left behind. Yet it was the evolutionary principle applied to history which, with his unflagging inquiry and ransacking of the sources, made Fiske's books on our own history the fresh and effective contributions they are. He looked everywhere for historical continuity, for orderly development, for inheritance of political institutions as well as of blood, and for their natural variation under a changed environment. We presume that no other man did so much to correct the old popular notions about the philosophy of the American Revolution. To Fiske, as to the clearest-headed English writers, as to Lecky, Sir George Trevelyan, and John Morley, the Revolution of the American colonies was simply an episode in the historic English struggle for liberty. No doubt it was the conception of evolution, firmly fixed in Fiske's mind by the studies of his young manhood, which enabled him afterwards to throw such illumination upon the beginnings of our national life.

For such a work as he wrought, two conditions are necessary. First, you must have a kind of incurable boyishness in your great popularizer. He must take a simple delight in his own discoveries and acquisitions. He must be as naïf as a child in bringing forward his treasures for the public to inspect. With this must go an unfailing spring of activity, a hunger for work, and a kind of glad irresponsibility for everything except the peculiar labors he delights in. This was confessedly Fiske's temperament; and to supplement it there existed just what he needed, and without which his career would have been impossible—namely, his predestined audience. He had, in other words, a vast and growing reading and listening public, imperfectly instructed, but eager to learn. It was aware, in a vague way, that new thoughts were astir in the world, that science had made vast strides, and that history was being rewritten; but it had no man, till John Fiske came along, to act as a trusty intermediary between sound learning and popular misapprehension. It was, therefore, a beautiful instance of adaptation to environment which John Fiske presented. He knew the best that was thought and written; he had a preëminent faculty for setting forth what he knew; and more and more thousands of people looked up to him to be fed. Unquestionably he reached and influenced greater numbers than could have been touched by his personality if he had chosen to be a regularly attached professor in the University. His forte was, as we have said, lecturing. After hearing him you would not say, as Lowell said was your impression after hearing Emerson lecture, that "something beautiful had passed that way"; but you would say that such an expository gift, such lucidity combined with such learning, marked their possessor out as a prince of his art.

MAFIA: OBSERVATIONS BY A NON-MEMBER.—II.

The real trouble lies in the spirit of defiance carried into the tiny details of life. Not to speak of the turbulence of the students at Sicilian universities, more ripe for political contests than for the studies which they should be made to attend to, one finds this disposition to fly in the face of simple and reasonable rule at every turn. As a surface illustration, let any foreign visitor to a Palermo theatre but watch the effect of the sign *È vietato fumare* (No Smoking), conspicuously posted all over the lower part of the house. He, in his innocence, respects it; but what about his neighbors? As soon as the curtain drops for the interminable entr'acte, the air at once becomes blue with the fumes of a thousand bad cigarettes; and none so daring, or so foolish, as to object. The corresponding regulation in railway carriages is as little observed. A singular illustration of this constant fretting under constraint, followed by attempts to rush through it, was observable at a race meeting in the Favorita race-course, near Palermo, a year ago. For a local and comparatively unimportant affair, the preparations were in one respect on a surprising scale; to judge from the number of soldiers on guard, one might have supposed the whole populace to be on the verge of insurrection. In spite of such elaborate precautions, it was absolutely impossible for these guardians of the course to keep the crowd from constantly stepping over the ropes and upon the track. A whole regiment could hardly deal successfully with so unruly a mob. From exactly the same cause, landing at Palermo is made about as unpleasant as it can be to a stranger, even though he may have had a prior breaking-in at Naples. Still, at the latter place it has in the last few years become possible to get ashore in a tender; and under such conditions disembarking is no great discomfort. At the Sicilian seaport the organization of boatmen and *facchini* is so powerful that even the strong hand of a steamship monopoly is quite unable to protect its travellers against insolence, importunity, and extortion. To match the scene of wrangling and confusion that takes place every morning on the arrival of the pretty steamer from Naples, one has to go to Constantinople, or some other Eastern port, where English administration has not yet made itself felt. From the yelling horde in the landing-boats, small detachments of rough porters swarm up the companion-way, jostle passengers, and forcibly take possession of every article of baggage, unless the passenger himself stoutly resists. One cannot but pity foreign ladies arriving here alone. There is no one to appeal to; the ship's officers look on with indifference; and the only attempt at discipline comes from an overdressed buck, who disposes of the boats, receives the fares, and orders travellers about like so many prisoners. Palermo is one of the few places where the custom-house officer, because of his businesslike ways, comes in as a relief from the lawlessness and turbulence one has just passed through.

Wherever one meets with a similar organization in the island, it is precisely the same story. The strongest authority can be set at defiance where there is a silent universal determination not to accept it on some particular point, and when all concerned in the opposition are joined by an *entente cordiale* that requires neither meetings nor rules. "I know what is the freemasonry of the poor," says Barry Lyndon. So strong is this spirit that in the country districts owners of orange or lemon groves and vineyards are compelled to select the guardians of their property from among those designated by this hidden authority. Neglect of this precaution would immediately be followed by a cutting down of all the trees and vines in the night-time. Among the sulphur-miners a corresponding understanding exists which, without completely controlling the employer or managers, nevertheless checks the independence of their actions in matters of which ignorant petty leaders can have no adequate comprehension.

A similar unreasoning hostility to outside influences (called intrusion) sometimes spreads upwards to circles in which more enlightenment might be expected; and, as a consequence, much of the capital which might flow to the island from outside sources remains extremely shy. In one particular case, a young Genoese merchant was heard to say that for two years he had been in steady correspondence with Sicilian firms, during all which time it had been quite beyond his power to obtain a single useful hint or encouragement, although the transactions proposed promised fair returns to both sides concerned. As he put it, even after a personal visit of some weeks there was still so much latent *vis inertiæ* of positive unwillingness to deal with, that his principals had just telegraphed to close all negotiations and carry their offers to some country where modern business ideas have some chance to flourish. After hearing a few scores of stories in this vein, one can hardly dispel the impression of a gigantic Albergo della Conspirazione Permanente, as in Offenbach's comic opera—an impression which,

it is almost needless to say, is entirely exaggerated. Were one to believe everything, the case would indeed be hopeless.

If a plausible explanation of this system of silently organized opposition can be found in the case of the poor peasants and the various guilds of the laboring classes, who adopt this primitive plan for expressing the sense of their wrongs and their desire to defend themselves, no such plea can reasonably be advanced for similar feelings and conduct in those who dwell in cities and thus have a relatively fair field for the exercise of their energies. Here the conditions are changed. Over the townsman there are no owners of *latifundia*, no agents. And yet it is in the cities that the Mafia has its most dangerous sway; here it finds its local heads, unknown except to the initiated. Like our own walking-delegates and labor leaders, these men thrive best in crowded centres, and, whether by superior address or by intimidation, contrive to keep over the ignorant the power which they secretly apply chiefly to their own ends. For in all such associations, if the poor dupes did but know it, there will always exist a few who live at the expense of the many; as the befooled socialist operatives of Albi discovered when their fund was gone—"Il y a toujours la bande."

One of the chief causes (in a foreigner's eyes the least defensible) tending to foster the spirit of unruliness consists in the ease with which permits are obtainable for carrying dangerous weapons. An ordinary stout garden clasp-knife is prohibited, except when one is at work with it. And the following item from the *Giornale di Sicilia* (June, 1900) proves clearly that some of our own fellow-citizens had best empty their pockets before strolling about Palermo: "Last night B. G., a seventeen-year-old cobbler, was arrested in the Piazza Casa Professa, for having a razor in his pocket." Nevertheless, for the trifling sum of twelve francs a year, almost any one may obtain the revolver-license. Here is a list of permits covering all ordinary weapons:

Revolver: yellow paper; obtained from the prefect of police.
Swordstick: green paper; obtained from the prefect of police.
Shotgun: white paper; obtained from the *questore*.

The immediate result of such regulations is that several times a week the newspapers contain brief accounts of *rivolverate* (shootings), with the accompanying casualties. Statistics of the annual numbers of shooting-affrays with more or less damage on both sides amount to a surprising average per diem for the whole island. The armorers' shops in Palermo, Messina, and Catania are not only numerous, but splendidly supplied with the very latest American makes; and in front of these windows one always finds a group eagerly discussing *en connaissance de cause*, or in outspoken approval of some new design. Naturally, unarmed persons are the exception rather than the rule. One hears curious tales of young aristocrats who carry their revolvers to balls, but have the grace to give them up at the door, where a valet is in charge to prevent unwished-for exchanges on coming out. From the same motive, the nobles at their various Casini invariably lay down their six-shooters on the small table in the vestibule, for no gentleman may be shot, or shot at, in his club by another gentleman. "Credat Judæus." Another odd, but disconcerting, feature of Sicilian town-life is observable in the universal custom of calling for the police and giving the alarm of fire by means of revolver-shots, with ball-cartridge, fired in the air. The same newspaper as above, within a few days, furnished the following item: "Last night in the Corso Scinà fifty shots were fired from several balconies; a veritable *fuoco di fila!* This, because it was feared that thieves had got into a house. None were found." No precaution is ever taken to avoid the possibility of the bullet's meeting a human target; a young girl quietly seated on a balcony was shot dead in this way last year. As the writer was walking about the lovely Villa Bellini at Catania, and enjoying the superb view of Etna, several revolver-shots went off in a neighboring street, but, save by the immediate bystanders, no notice whatever was taken of the startling incident among the promenaders.

To all this, it may be argued that the *permessi* are the same for Sicily as for the rest of the kingdom, a fact of which the writer is abundantly aware, for it was communicated to him by a merchant of Alta Italia, who showed his permit and told its price. "But," added the informant, "in my own part of the country, I use it merely as a passport or means of identification for registered letters and so forth; here it serves the purpose for which it was given." A permission to carry dangerous weapons, which, though objectionable on general grounds in any civilized country, may be fraught with a minimum of social risk in so extremely peaceful a district as Tuscany, works out into consequences of a most serious kind in a region where tempers run quick and high, and where centuries of maladministration have instilled the disposition in every one to be a law unto himself. But it unfortunately happens not only that the revenue from permits is extremely large, but that the damage to the trade by rescinding permissions or greatly raising the price of licenses might, from one week to another, involve serious political disturbance from coalition among sellers and buyers. The purpose of this article, however, being rather to record impressions and inferences derived from fact than to suggest remedial legislation, this subject will not be pursued further. He would be a bold, perhaps short-lived, Deputy who should propose to disarm the Sicilian.

To conclude, from what has been rapidly stated or sketched in the foregoing, that an adequate explanation has therein been suggested of a social condition of affairs unparalleled in any other country in Europe, would, according to the present writer's own habits of thought, imply the acceptance of one-sided social theories. Without attempting to revive the weary discussion as to the relative parts played in the formation of national life and thought by character and circumstance respectively, one may at least emphasize a fact which Sicilians acknowledge but reluctantly, and rarely have the courage to declare to their compatriots even under the cover of anonymity. It has been pronounced, on the highest authority, impracticable to frame an indictment against a whole nation; but there is yet a certain soundness in the contention of modern *Völkerpsychologie*, that general traits of character do in the long run determine the good or the bad fortune of peoples and social organizations. On such points as these it becomes necessary to consult men who, from long residence in the country or from exceptionally favorable sources of information, can vouch for the statements they make. Much has been written about the Sicilian character in its relation to the Mafia, too often in gingerly, half-apologetic vein, the writers showing apparently more eagerness to trace the historical growth of feelings and habits of conduct than to judge according to standards of social ordinance. Of what possible use can it be to attempt historical proof that the sentiments which render the Mafia possible are a form of "mediæval survival"? What is wanted is not an explanation of the origin of feelings, but a plain statement of their actual condition; how they stand in relation to law and order, and in how far their modification or mitigation is practicable in the event of their growing into dangerous proportions.

Here the writer must let others speak. From among the masses of documents consulted in various forms (of which but few supported their generalizations with concrete and verifiable facts), the conclusion slowly grew that the maladministration so often held responsible for the actual welter forms but a secondary element in its production. It does not enter into the design of this paper to give historical retrospects; but what conclusions might not be drawn from the theory of persistent racial traits in a country where "Sicilian Vespers" were once possible? The vengeance of the offended Mafia works out just as securely and secretly to-day. To-day, likewise, the intended victim is given no chance of a fair fight with a worthy foe; he is stabbed in the back, shot from behind a wall, or (rarely) poisoned. By every writer the decisions of this formidable organization are said to be inexorable, implacable; sometimes a word of warning *may* be given to the man marked for removal, but in the vast majority of cases, when his actions or his presence have been found by the great Capi-Mafia to threaten the easy working of the secret machine, he disappears with no more noise than the rifle-shot of his hidden executioner, while all endeavors to trace the deed of blood are absolutely vain. The construction and functioning of this machine have been so admirably set forth for English readers in Mr. F. Marion Crawford's 'The Rulers of the South' as to render all further description for the present quite needless.

Among the psychological causes that go to explain the problem, one may well place the radical suspiciousness, secretiveness, and self-sufficient independence of individual Sicilian character. These traits, to which reference has already been made, soon become obvious to one who strolls about a country-side and without indiscretion chats, as he might in Tuscany or Lombardy, with the peasants at rest or the frequenters of village taverns. Let any visitor to Sicily try this at a country fair or *festa*, and compare the result with what he has found anywhere between, let us suppose, Orvieto and Parma. The writer on one occasion, quite without guile, asked his *vetturino* in western Sicily whether many people went from that part of the country to America. With a look of profound disapproval the man at once replied, "No, Signore, we are all honest people here." As to the independence of character and chafing under formal control, one may consult any officer who has had experience with Sicilian

conscripts in time of peace: failing that information, any Continental schoolmaster or professor appointed to an educational post in Sicily.

It is in the light of this disposition that a now famous leader in the *Giornale di Sicilia* (December 10-11, 1899) described the Mafia in the following terms: "La mafia è infatti, sopratutto lutta estralegale per l'esistenza, parossismo di amor proprio, esercizio arbitrario e violento delle proprie ragioni" (The Mafia is, in fact, and above all, an extra-legal struggle for existence; a paroxysm of self-esteem, an arbitrary and violent application of individual reason). To this must also be added a trait of character for which the English dictionary has no equivalent word, the much-talked-of *omertà*. *Omertà* is much the strongest strand in the bond that holds the Mafiosi together. It stands for the unwritten code of which the first article may be said to run; "Thou shalt not bear witness against thy neighbor." One to whom this interpretation was suggested, dryly remarked that it differs from the Mosaic commandment in only one trifling word. Doubtless there are many who obey from fear of consequences; but is it not much more likely that the spirit of concealment, of resistance to legal inquiry that secures impunity to the offender, is fostered by parental teaching in the young until it becomes rooted in the very innermost nature? This alone is sufficient to account for the vitality of that *imperium in imperio* which goes by the name of the Mafia. To men brought up under such a spell, the very fact of concealment is fascinating; just as to the schoolboy it seems "so deuced clever" to outwit the authorities. There is something so primitive in this sentiment that one cannot but feel pity for the ignorant *contadini* hardly reached by the schoolmaster, and thus left to the perverted teachings of a local *capo*, himself under the influence of higher directors with everything to gain, commercially or politically, by keeping ideas of constitutional government and the wisdom of legality from the struggling, starving masses.

Attempts at explanation touch more dangerously delicate ground when one passes from country to town; but nothing can be gained by shirking even so serious an issue as this. The point has not, so far as the writer knows, been frankly raised by well-known writers on Sicily. If there is one impression more firmly fixed in the casual traveller's mind from even a brief visit to the large towns of Palermo, Catania, and Messina, it is the unusual amount of external show in dress and equipage combined with the altogether disproportionate number of apparent idlers in the streets; and this at every hour of the day. Those who know, maintain that the Neapolitan phrase "Tutto per l'apparenza" holds good in other domains of the ancient kingdom of the Two Sicilies; or, as a dapper fisherman of Sorrento once replied to a compliment on his Sunday outfit, "Bisogna castigare il mangiato" (Cut down on the provender). Even with this restriction, one is driven to wonder at the possibility of so much display while every one complains that the island is all but ruined. Still more surprising is the unfailing concourse of gossiping, well-groomed young men standing all day long doing nothing, chiefly about the Quattro Cantoni at Palermo, or at various favorable points in the long Via Stesicoro-Etnea at Catania. How is it possible for so many to trifle away the working hours, day in and day out, all through the year? An explanation was offered by one who, in virtue of his position, came into frequent and regular contact with Sicilian town youth of all classes. In his judgment, the very worst thing that can happen to these young men is to become possessed of the merest independent pittance, or to obtain a trifling appointment under Government. Bare living costs little in Sicily; but young men in all countries clamor for something more in the form of luxuries, procurable in various ways by such as are unprejudiced in the matter of employing idle hours by day or night. It is in this respect that the Mafia of the country districts differs so fundamentally from its urban manifestations. Among the peasants the secret power is employed almost exclusively for the protection of individuals and the order or class to which they belong; while in the towns it becomes the powerful and apparently inexhaustible resource of a class occupying the social *terrain vague* between unmistakably respectable people and recognized criminals in or out of jail. The very secrecy attending every kind of transaction favors the existence and growth of this equivocal social class. Mr. Crawford, in agreement with other authorities, points out that the origin of the Mafia in town or country is in no way akin to the infamous Neapolitan Camorra or Rogues' League; but the social consequences of the two organizations may, under the conditions specified above, nevertheless work out in much the same way.

In the fact of a growing disapproval of the Mafia, in regard to the principles involved as well as to their application, lies the firmest hope for better things among those who have not yet lost their faith in the future of Italian unity, in the ideals fought for and won by a generation of men of whom Sicilians, like other Italians, have every right to be proud. Despite the insular chauvinism of part of the Sicilian press, it is not difficult to detect signs that during the last few years the tone of public feeling in regard to these matters has undergone some change. All over the country to-day are to be found numbers of the intelligent middle class who openly admit, in private, that to belong to a coherent and active nation implies some personal sacrifice on the part of every citizen; that attempts at constitutional self-government are infinitely preferable to private, red-handed justice; and that, above all, no country is civilized in which the King's writ does not run.

Under these conditions the traveller in Sicily may freely move about among the lovely scenes which she offers in such profusion. As Alberto Scipioni said to Sir Henry Wotton, "*I pensieri stretti ed il viso sciolto* will go safely over the whole world." If, from time to time, his heart is wrung with pity for a noble people, he can still find a momentary relief in gazing outwards, away from unrest, under the protecting slopes of Etna, where

". . . L'azzuro Jonio sospira
Con suo ritmo pensoso verso gli aranci in fiore."

THE AMHERST ECLIPSE EXPEDITION.—IV.

SINGKEP, May 18, 1901.

The longest eclipse ever observed was not observed at Singkep. The tale of disaster is harrowing; but what shall it profit a man to become an astronomer if he be not already a philosopher? The two must ever march hand in hand, like Malay strollers in the streets of Singapore.

With sunshine and shadow so intermingled, and clouds generally of such small area, that, while one island of this lovely archipelago was dark and stormy, others would be seen in brightest light, one course for success on eclipse day seemed plainly indicated, and, accordingly, Professor Todd established supplementary observing stations in many different localities. By the courtesy of H. M. the Sultan of Lingga, in sending for our use his own personal yacht *Dalel*, this has been not only feasible but easy of accomplishment; and many are the telescopes and observers she has conveyed to one point and another among the islands, anticipating to-day's great event.

Pulo Lalang, a small island at the centre of the eclipse track, about fourteen miles south of Singkep, over which a large area of blue sky has hovered persistently, became an auxiliary station to the Amherst Expedition, and here Mr. Burgess, Government Analyst at Singapore, kindly took charge of a lens of 3½ inches, made by Goerz of Berlin, and prepared to expose thirty-six plates to coronal rays. With him, Mr. Sol was to make drawings and observations of shadow-bands. Mr. Symonds Fry of the British Marine Department was also enrolled in the Expedition ranks, having received sanction from the Colonial Secretary to leave Singapore for the purpose, and, by the kindness of Capt. Boldero, R.N., to bring a pair of excellent chronometers and a transit instrument belonging to his department. He was conveyed to Pulo Saya, a tiny island twenty miles east of Singkep, and with him a six-inch silvered glass reflector for making thirteen exposures in an automatic camera, giving an image of the sun half an inch in diameter. While Pulo Lalang has a few Malay inhabitants in a typical kampong under the cocoanuts, Pulo Saya boasts only rocks and palms. At Lingga with its fine peaks four or five thousand feet high, where blue skies so often alternate with the conditions at other islands, a Ross lens of 1½ inches diameter was sent, with thirty-six plates, for use by the Assistant Resident at Tandjong Boeton, Baron van Boetzelaer. Observations of shadow-bands were to be made by the Baroness, and drawings and snap-shots by the various assistants.

On the island of Singkep itself many supplementary stations were located. To Riya, on the northwest coast, we sent a two-inch lens by Rotter of Dresden, which gives an image of the sun three-eighths of an inch in diameter. This glass, mounted in a temporary frame, was picturesquely shouldered by coolies, who carried it miles through the jungle, to be used by Mr. Kagel of the Tin Company in making eight exposures during totality. Another, similarly set, was dispatched five miles to Ayerpoettie, where Mr. van Harrevelt would use the four-inch Bausch & Lomb lens in making thirty-two photographs of the corona.

Nearer Dabok several centres of observation were established. At the Sultan's summer palace on a hill, the path to which leads one through tropical masses of foliage and ferns and orchids incredibly luxuriant, a disk was set upon the flagstaff, behind

which the innermost corona would be hidden, giving the eye a better opportunity to trace the delicate streamers in their long outer extension, if, indeed, this year's corona should exhibit them at all. A most interesting question was to be answered by the corona of 1901—whether or not the long streamers of last year's sunspot minimum have endured until now, past the beginning of a period of spot activity. Mr. van Gigch, commanding the military force of Riouw, prepared to draw behind this disk; while, on the broad terrace of masonry at the base of the flagpole, Mr. Bergsma, attorney at Riouw, watched for shadow-bands. On the pier-head, Mr. Rybering, of the Tin Company, was alert for the corona with a fine two-inch Clement & Gilmer (Paris) telephoto lens, and thirty-six plates, 4x5, which would give an image of the sun an inch in diameter. Nearer the company's offices another disk was elevated upon a tall cocoanut, where Mr. Elbers, second officer of the Government steamer *Flamingo* (sent here by the courtesy of the Dutch authorities to convey our telegram of eclipse results as speedily as possible to the nearest cable office, Singapore), was also to draw coronal streamers. Mr. Loriaux and Mr. Krull, general and local managers of the Tin Company; Mr. Ezerman, official "protector of the Chinese" in the Dutch islands; the Javanese doctor, and every individual on the island except the wondering Malays and the stolid Chinese coolies—all were impressed into the service of the Expedition for observation of some sort; and all were in place, pencil and paper or camera in hand, watching for the cloud-openings to come between us and the rapidly narrowing crescent of the sun.

The centre of all activities, however, the headquarters of the Expedition, is, by the courtesy of Dutch officials, the Government House, recently completed for the use of the Resident when he shall visit Singkep, and now converted for the time into workshop, dark-room, and observing quarters. The automatic commutator for exposing a large number of plates mechanically, devised by Professor Todd in Japan for the eclipse of 1887, and used by him with modifications since in West Africa in 1889, in Japan in 1896, and with signal success at Tripoli in May of last year, was entirely rebuilt for Singkep. Owing to the fickle skies known to prevail in this part of the world, it had not been intended to bring a large amount of complicated apparatus; but, upon arriving, and having the resources of the Tin Company so generously tendered us, both in material and in the labor of workmen, Professor Todd had the apparatus rudely but accurately constructed upon the spot, largely from the waste scrap-iron of the company's junk heap. With plenty of fine lenses, and a massive pendulum and "snapper," which is followed by a coolie in revolving the drums, this hastily constructed mechanical device has all the precision of a delicate astronomical instrument. For this commutator did not run by a Bond spring governor, or pneumatic or electric or gravity control, but Malay coolie power. To this were connected several cameras, among them the double polariscope lent and prepared especially for this eclipse by Dr. Wright of Yale University. It was planned for six exposures, three of one minute and three of forty seconds each. A large telephoto lens is also carried by the commutator, and a camera for exposure during the entire totality, for getting the outer extension of rays. An automatic camera was arranged for taking nearly 400 coronal photographs on plates 2x2½, which, although not a continuous film, would give almost a kinetoscope effect.

But the chief instrument at Government House is the twelve-inch Lyman reflector from the Amherst College Observatory, refigured by Brashear of Allegheny for this Expedition, with a focal length of 15 feet, which gives an image of the sun nearly two inches in diameter, and making 50 photographs. As before, the glycerine clock controlled its motion with absolute accuracy. The iron for its radial arm, twenty feet long, is of material formerly a part of the first horse railway built in Asia. Laid in Singapore, the rails were speedily torn up by Chinese, because of its expected competition with jinrikishas. Rolling-stock and equipment were bought by the Singkep Tin Company, portions of which are now used in ways unanticipated by its original projectors. Here the chief of the Expedition held scientific court, and an army of workmen kept steadily at the preparations, their tropical sloth continually spurred by energetic northern example. On eclipse morning all things were in complete readiness, Mr. Agassiz, our fine photographer from Singapore, putting a few last touches in the dark-room; Mr. Wilson, sent by the New York Botanical Museum to collect plants and seeds with the Expedition, presiding over the glycerine clock, and Mr. Van Dyk keeping guard over the coolie motive-power, lest it should become alarmed at a critical moment and flee for safety back to the kampong.

It had been planned that the bugler, whose "colors" and "taps" form a pleasant daily feature of life on this far-away island, should announce by a simple succession of notes the progress of totality every fifteen seconds, from the tonic to the octave above, giving upon the latter one note at the end of the first minute, two after the second, and so on. But it was discovered in time that his Malay nerves could not stand the strain of an eclipse, his dread being so great that, instead of the "eclipse melody" at exact intervals, he would be quite as liable to play nothing at all—or, perhaps, an untimely call "to arms." So a bell was attached to the commutator, and gave, by an ingenious device of the astronomer, precise warning of the passing of totality's precious moments. Although off the cable and telegraph lines here, our dispatch being conveyed at once to Singapore only by courtesy of the Government, Professor Todd was interested in telegraphing ahead of the moon's shadow no less than last year. By arranging with Mr. W. G. Taylor, General Manager at Singapore of the Eastern Extension Telegraph and Cable Company, it was agreed that a dispatch from Mr. Maunder at Mauritius should be at once sent, after the eclipse there, to the observers at and near Padang, reaching them an hour or more ahead of the Sumatra darkening. This required concessions from many companies, and holding important lines for the instant transit of the eclipse message. The Eastern and South African Cables, the Eastern Cables, the Government of India Land Lines, the Eastern Extension Cables, and the Netherland-India Land Lines agreed to Professor Todd's request through Mr. Taylor, links in the chain being gradually added until we were able to write the observers that it had all been accomplished, and that they would hear from Mr. Maunder of what he had seen and done at the Mauritius end of the shadow-path before they were themselves engulfed. Thus everything was in complete and hopeful readiness, and it only remained for the sky to be clear to insure brilliant success.

The morning dawned brightly clear and sunny, a slight wind blew softly from the west, while a few cumulus clouds lurked decoratively along the horizon, their tops almost golden as the sunrise light flooded their creamy recesses and billowy crests. As the forenoon wore on, a dark bank seemed to collect, without perceptible movement, in the south. Over the sea it rose, until the horizon grew ominous and the water turned gray green. The dry rustle of sago palms gave a counterfeit presentment of falling rain, as their long leaflets swayed against one another in the changing wind. But the dazzling sunlight, so hot that it actually burned one's skin, remained unstained, and gradually the clouds retreated. The day grew brighter and more promising. At quarter to eleven another bank, this time black and threatening, came up quickly over the northwestern hills, and shrouded the sun almost before we were aware. One touch of the southeast monsoon, and its advance would have been checked. Day after day we had seen it conquer. But the wind died out, a few fitful gusts coming from the approaching shower. By eleven it was raining briskly, then fiercely, and although the first contact, about a quarter after, would be lost, we were rather glad to have the rain set in, for showers are seldom of long duration in Singkep, and the smarter the rainfall the more quickly past. The sea horizon grew clearer and more sharply defined as the mountains retreated in moisture, and large areas of blue sky persisted in south and east.

By half after twelve the rain was diminishing, but the clouds had begun to break only in the far southwest, over Pulo Lalang, and so slowly that a sense of impending disaster spread through the waiting company, American, Dutch, English; even the Malay workmen began to look questioningly at the sky, and then about them at the fine lenses they had helped to mount, and the mechanical apparatus at which they had toiled, admiringly if uncomprehendingly. So large an area of clear sky still lay above the sea that the astronomer suggested my going out to the Government steamer, which lay in harbor perhaps a mile from the eclipse station, on the chance that she might be at the edge of the cloud. In a few moments the Captain welcomed me on board, with the happy announcement that he thought the clouds would still break in time for totality. So, ensconced on the bridge, I waited with pencil and paper, while the slender crescent of the sun looked out through rifts in the strangely drifting cloud, of which two strata moved in opposite directions. The sky in its blue spaces turned to livid cobalt and black, and the light grew cold and ashen.

Along the shore, coolies, at work for tin in the shallow water, hastily left their floats and dredges and made all speed to shore. A few tom-toms began. The beach glowed singularly white, with an almost phosphorescent lustre; the heavy palms stood dark against the mountains, the mountains deep

purple against a beryl-blue sky. Suddenly the water changed to portentous green, pale but sinister. Then, all in a moment, what little normal light had remained, went out; the peaks leaped into deeper purple relief against a yellow sky, clear, peaceful, lifeless. The southwest horizon took on a dull orange glow, the gleaming beaches disappeared—sudden, windless silence fell. Even the quiet ripples against the sides of the *Flamingo* ceased their lap in the waiting hush. The sharp peak of Lingga, more and more unshrouded, pointed a purple finger at the clear sky above. Beyond, a bank of cumulus lay, like drifting, golden smoke; and remnants of shower clouds lurked low among the Singkep hills, bringing out unsuspected ranges, in line after line of singular perspective, as if ghostly fires were smouldering away and away to spectral ashes.

At first the light seemed comparable to early evening, perhaps an hour later than sunset, when the afterglow has still preserved gorgeous reminiscences of a yet more splendid pageant; but it does not express the mental effect. That was more as if one might have died; and while the soul lay in quiet surprise, unmixed with emotion or memory or even hope, in the midst of surroundings not yet fully apprehended, the dawn of a new life crept up from some unseen source, with light only strong enough not to dazzle the opening eyes. In that strangely quiet borderland one might dream the possibility of wings, but not yet the full capacity for flight. The outlines of the mountains were the same, yet it was not Singkep which lay in panorama before me, but a far land where the sun was not, uncomprehended, leagues away, on some other world than this.

One or two stars appeared, but the corona never once gleamed through, and the disappointment seemed remote and of small consideration during that amazing six minutes and its outlying seconds, when all the stress and rush of life was quieted as by some mighty hand—when Nirvana seemed already to have begun, in eternal silence. And then, somewhere behind the overhead canopy, the light of this world slipped back. The widening sun-crescent soon appeared, and the last contact was clearly observed.

From Riya and Ayerpoettie rain is reported, and at Pulo Lalang during totality, though it was clear on the little island much longer than at Dabok. Dr. Abbott, an American naturalist cruising among the islands, reports the corona seen through cloud-rifts on the northern coast of Singkep, and as distinctly pentagonal in shape; he also saw the impressive rush of the moon's shadow before totality, as well as its recession in mighty flight. Word comes that it has been clear at Lingga, and that Baron von Boetzelaer has succeeded in getting thirty-six coronal photographs; so one of our auxiliary stations was not established in vain. No word as yet from Pulo Saya.

MABEL LOOMIS TODD.

THE MILITARY CHIEFS OF THE COMMUNE.

PARIS, June 20, 1901.

Will the history of the Commune of Paris, in 1871, ever be written? It is not a tempting subject, that accumulation of horrors, that armed revolt against the Constituent Assembly elected freely by the country after an unfortunate war; a sort of spontaneous anarchy, to use a word of Taine's. The movement of the Commune was led by obscure leaders, by the sort of men of whom our great Corneille says in "Cinna,"

"Un tas d'hommes perdus de dettes et de crimes";

the same class of men of whom Tacitus said, "ære alieno et vitiis onustos." Will history remember their names, which had only a day of calamitous notoriety? Many are already dead, many forgotten; if we searched carefully, we might find some of them in high offices under the Republic.

The thesis of those who dare even now to defend the Commune is this: The Commune fought for the establishment of the Republic, which was threatened by the Assembly at Versailles. The answer is easy enough: This Assembly at Versailles did not establish the monarchy by force; it respected the will of the country; it did not accept the "non possumus" of the Comte de Chambord, when he refused to adopt the tricolor flag; it framed the Constitution which is still the law of the Republic; it made, in fact, the Republic. In reality, the Commune was the explosion of the worst passions which always exist in a great capital, and which were no longer curbed by an established organization of force and of police. When the terms of the capitulation of Paris were signed, Bismarck proposed to Jules Favre the disarmament of the National Guard of Paris, but Favre insisted on leaving the citizens of Paris their arms. The two regular regiments of the army which had done most of the real fighting during the siege had to deliver their arms to the Germans; as for the National Guard, they kept their guns and created the Commune, thus giving the enemies of France the spectacle of a civil war.

Maxime Du Camp's 'Les Convulsions de Paris' will always remain a standard document for this deplorable period. I noticed lately another very valuable document, a study of Gen. Bourelly on the Ministry of War of the Commune, and its three successive Ministers — Cluseret, Rossel, and Delescluze; for the Commune had no less than three Ministers during its short period of ascendancy in Paris. Cluseret, who died not long ago, almost an octogenarian, as a Deputy from one of the departments of the South, published Memoirs in 1888, in three volumes. In the two first he defended the insurrection of the Commune, while at the same time criticising very severely many of the members of the Council of the Commune; in the third volume, entitled 'The End of the Empire,' he justified certain acts of his military and his political career, and ended his apology by a regular lecture on the "guerre des rues"—a sort of epitome for future insurrections.

Cluseret was born in Paris in 1823. He entered the military school of Saint-Cyr in 1841, and in 1843 joined the Fifty-fifth Regiment of the line, of which his father was colonel. After the Revolution of 1848, he was for a time put on half pay for his participation in the Socialist propaganda. He took active service again in Algeria and in the Crimea; he was wounded in an assault before Sebastopol; in July, 1848, he resigned, and became the agent of a great proprietor in the department of the Gironde. He was evidently fond of an adventurous life, for we see him in 1860 in the little army of Garibaldi, during the campaign of the Two Sicilies; he was slightly wounded at the siege of Capua. In 1861 he goes to America and offers his services to the North. He had real military capacity, and he obtained a general's commission. You know more in America than we do in France of his relations to the war of secession. In 1867 he took part, under a false name, in the Fenian agitation in Ireland. He was condemned in contumacy, since he had taken refuge in France. There he became a journalist, entered into relations with certain members of the International Society, and was so compromised that he had to flee again to America.

On the news of the war between France and Germany, he left America and returned to France. He at once secured a place on one of the committees formed in the twenty wards of Paris by a self-elected committee which called itself the Central Committee, and which became the soul of the Communistic movement. He did not remain in Paris during the siege, but became the promoter of a League of the South, organized in Marseilles. After the capitulation of Paris, he returned to the capital, and, when the Commune organized its committees, he was assigned to the Military Committee; he was soon afterwards appointed "delegate to the war." From the day of his arrival at the Ministry of War date the first systematic efforts for the organization of the fighting battalions of the National Guard. This organization, which was the subject of numerous instructions from Cluseret, reveals his technical knowledge and his practical spirit. He was all the time beset by great difficulties—the total want of discipline among the National Guards and their heaven-born officers, the rivalry of the Central Committee of the Commune and its Executive Committee, the jealousies of Eudes and Bergeret, who had by a few days preceded him in command; the cowardice of many legions. Personally, Cluseret showed the courage of a soldier—he reoccupied in person the fort of Issy, which had been abandoned by the Communists; but he was almost immediately afterwards imprisoned by order of the Commune. Some said that he had tried to deliver the Archbishop of Paris, some that he had led Communists to fight without cartridges, some that he had received a large sum of money from M. Thiers, or from the Germans. Cluseret was denounced as a traitor. His sudden downfall was probably caused in reality by his dictatorial ways and his contempt, which he did not much conceal, for the members of the Commune. The Commune made Col. Rossel his successor. After the defeat of the Commune, Cluseret fled to England, and afterwards went to Switzerland. He came back to Paris after the amnesty of 1880, and was elected Deputy from the Department of Var, in 1888; he remained in the Chamber until his death, on the 22d of August, 1900.

The "delegate to the war" appointed in place of Cluseret was an officer of the regular army. Rossel was born at Saint-Brieuc in 1844. He was educated at the military school of La Flèche, entered in 1862 the Polytechnic School, and in 1864 the School of Engineers at Metz. He was appointed lieutenant of engineers in 1866 at Metz, and captain at Bourges in 1869. In 1870 he was at Metz with the staff. At the end of the siege he was among the discontented officers who would not entertain the idea of

a capitulation, and who judged severely the inaction of Marshal Bazaine. Rossel afterwards published a pamphlet under the title 'The Military Situation in Metz on the 26th of September, 1870.' In November, 1870, he was at Brussels, for he had succeeded in escaping on the 28th of October, after the capitulation. He sent to a Belgian paper, the Belgian *Indépendance*, two articles which were reprinted in pamphlet form under the title of 'The Last Days of Metz.' He offered his services to the Government of Tours, and was sent to the camp of Nevers, with the title of Colonel of Engineers. He left Nevers for Paris on the 19th of March, the day after the outbreak of the Commune, and sent to Gen. Le Flô, Minister of War, a letter in which he said: "Informed by a dispatch from Versailles, made public to-day, that there are two conflicting parties in the country, I do not hesitate to take my place with the party which does not embrace generals guilty of capitulation." On the 22d of March he was named chief of a legion by Cluseret; on April 2 he was arrested, from some motive which was not even mentioned, was released the next day, and made chief of staff to Cluseret. He entered on his duties with his military exactitude. The relations of Cluseret and Rossel, which were good at first, became difficult when Cluseret found that his lieutenant might be a possible rival.

Rossel was extremely active; he had much to do with Generals Dombrowski and Wroblewski (is it not curious to find these foreigners among the men who had the effrontery to dispose of the fate of France?). Among the documents which well exhibit his fanatical character, we may cite this letter written in answer to Colonel Laperche, who had, in the name of Marshal MacMahon, sent a summons to surrender to the insurgents who were holding the fort of Issy: "My dear comrade, the next time you allow yourself to send us so insolent a summons as your autograph letter of yesterday, I will order your envoy to be shot, according to the rules of war. Your devoted comrade, Rossel." Rossel directed all the measures for the erection of a triple line of barricades in Paris, in case the troops from Versailles should enter the capital. We find, among the papers which he submitted to the Council of the Commune, the list of the troops of the Commune. The infantry numbered 96,325 National Guards in the *bataillons de marche* (that is to say, the battalions which were sent from place to place), and 94,100 in the sedentary battalions. From these numbers must be deducted 27,774 absentees in the *bataillons de marche* and 11,339 absentees in the sedentary battalions. In reality, if all these men drew their pay, there were never more than about 25,000 fighting men. The artillery counted 5,445 artillerymen and an immense number of guns. There were 3,461 freeshooters and only 779 cavalrymen. After the capture of the fort of Issy, which was evacuated by the Communists in the greatest disorder, Rossel felt that all his efforts were vain, and resigned. Delescluze, an old republican journalist, was appointed in his stead.

Rossel hid himself for some time after Paris was taken. He was arrested on the 7th of June, and was shot on the 28th of November, 1871, at Satory, with a sergeant of the army who had served the Commune, and Ferré, the cruel instigator of the massacre of the hostages and of the Archbishop of Paris. Delescluze, the successor of Rossel, was shot on a barricade when the troops from Versailles reëntered Paris.

Correspondence.

THE UNIVERSAL CLASSICS MSS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I observe in your issue of June 13, 1901, a note of warning in regard to the "Universal Classics Manuscripts," the prospectus of which has recently been distributed. I beg to place before your readers the facts concerning this undertaking, which seems to be as flagrant a case of international piracy as any that has occurred in recent years. The prospectus describes the work as "Facsimiles from Originals in the Department of Manuscripts, British Museum, with descriptions, editorial notes, references, and translations by George F. Warner, Assistant Keeper of Manuscripts, British Museum, and a special introduction by S. M. Hamilton." M. Walter Dunne is named as the publisher, A. P. C. Griffin, Library of Congress, as editorial director, and Vincent Parke as general manager.

The publisher's announcement states that the manuscripts are reproduced in facsimile from the originals in the British Museum archives, and characterizes the publication as "perhaps the most important inaugurated in the new century." The simple fact is, however, that these 150 facsimiles were published in 1895 to 1899, in five instalments, by the British Museum, are still on sale, and may be obtained at the Museum or from any of its agents (one of whom, the Oxford University Press, has a house in New York) for £1.17.6.

Mr. Warner of the British Museum writes me that "the American edition has been published without the permission or knowledge of the authorities of the Museum. The plates have undoubtedly been obtained by photographing our reproductions, and not directly from the originals, and the letterpress appears to have been appropriated in an equally unscrupulous way." Mr. Griffin writes me that with this collection of manuscript facsimiles he has had nothing to do, though he is the "editorial director" of a series of which the manuscript collection forms a part. The American edition is absolutely the same as the English, except that it has a new title, illuminated titlepages, and an additional introduction, and is enclosed in two portfolios. The letterpress pages seem to be a little better in mechanical execution than the English, but the facsimiles betray their secondary origin by a slight additional thickness of line.

It is not often that a reprint of this kind is offered at a *higher* price than the original, but in the present case Mr. Dunne, in a circular letter, dated May 27, 1901, says: "The coöperation of the librarians of the country is expected in giving publicity to this magnificent work, and in consideration thereof librarians will be furnished with the entire set at the special net price of $19.75," a little more than twice what the same thing can be obtained for of the British Museum.—Very truly yours,

William C. Lane.

Library of Harvard University, July 1, 1901.

BISMARCK MISTRANSLATED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to direct attention to a misleading "lapsus calami" in the translation of the letter of Prince Bismarck's of July 7, 1866, reviewed by you in No. 1878 of the *Nation*, page 519. You quote from 'The Love Letters':

"Our people are ready to embrace one another, every man so deadly in earnest, calm, obedient, etc."

The original, on page 573, has "Unsre Leute sind zum Küssen," which means: "Our men deserve to be kissed"; or, better: "I feel like hugging our men." J. H. S.

Berkeley, Cal., July 3, 1901.

Notes.

The family and friends of the late John A. Andrew, Governor of Massachusetts from 1861 to 1866, are preparing his biography. All persons who will be so kind as to lend letters for the purpose, are assured that these will be carefully handled and returned. Letters should be sent to Henry Greenleaf Pearson, box 395, Kennebunkport, Me.

Richard Garnett's 'Essays of an Ex-Librarian,' Edmund Gosse's "ironic fantasy" 'Hypolympia,' and a reprint of Lewis H. Morgan's 'League of the Iroquois' are among the contemplated fall publications of Dodd, Mead & Co.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will shortly publish 'Australasia, Old and New,' by James Grattan Grey; and 'Imperial London,' illustrated, by Arthur H. Beavan.

From Brentano's is soon to appear 'Studies of French Criminals of the 19th Century,' by H. B. Irving, son of the tragedian, and author of a 'Life of Judge Jeffries.'

The first part of a new 'History of Canada (New France),' by C. P. Lucas of the Colonial Office, is on the eve of publication by the Oxford University Press, along with 'An English Commentary on Dante's Divina Commedia,' by the Rev. H. F. Tozer, who introduces translations, paraphrases, and explanations.

The spring number of the New York Reform Club's organ, *Municipal Affairs*, published at No. 52 William Street, consists of a new Bibliography of the World's Literature on Municipal Problems and City Conditions, compiled by Robert C. Brooks of Cornell University. Brought down to the close of the last century, it is nearly four times as full as the Bibliography published in 1897.

That comprehensive year-book of philanthropy, 'Burdett's Hospitals and Charities,' has appeared for 1901, and may be had in this country of the Scribners. The information here gathered is of such general value as to justify us in calling attention to the editor's request that pamphlets relating to hospitals in this country may be sent to him.

Mr. Albert S. Bolles, whose writings on financial subjects are well known, now adds to the list 'American Finance' (New York: *The American Banker*). The book is a collection of facts concerning the revenue and expenditure of the Government, banking, etc. Its chief value is for reference, and on this account a fuller index would have improved it.

The life of the financial world in London

is described by Mr. Charles Duguid in a little book entitled 'How to Read the Money Article' (London: Effingham Wilson). Some of the facts stated and stories told are curious, and the style is clear and vigorous.

A second edition of Prof. Charles S. Devas's 'Political Economy' is published by Longmans, Green & Co. This edition has been enlarged and revised, and in many parts rewritten in view of recent changes in economic conditions as well as theories.

'The New Basis of Geography,' by J. W. Redway (Macmillan), makes a good point in noting that the popular phrase which is taken as the title of the book, is not altogether justified; for the present progress of geography is merely a phase of the continual progress it has been making all through the past hundred years. The style of a number of the chapters is that of essays rather than appropriate to a professional library (the "Teachers' "), and, while the essays are suggestive in many useful directions, they hardly constitute "a manual for the preparation of the teacher," but rather for his edification after preparation. Most teachers being, however, overprepared in the letter and underprepared in the spirit of their subjects, this book will prove of much value in opening up the larger aspects of geography, which could hardly find presentation in a systematic text-book. It is entertaining and edifying throughout, although sometimes not so serious as might be wished.

'Business Law,' by Thomas Raeburn White (Silver, Burdett & Co.), a text-book for schools and colleges, is supplied with an introduction by Roland P. Falkner, associate professor of statistics in the University of Pennsylvania. Mr. White is himself a member of the Philadelphia bar and of the law faculty of the same university. His aim is to present the elementary principles of the law relating to "the more common business transactions" (contracts, sales, commercial paper, partnership, etc.), "in a style so clear and free from technicality that they can be readily understood by persons unused to legal phraseology." Such attempts are proverbially unsuccessful, and many people believe that they do positive harm by encouraging the half-educated to believe that law can be taught without the impediment of what Mr. White calls "legal verbiage." On the other hand, the smattering of learning contained in them no doubt stimulates the mind of students who would not otherwise be led in this direction, and sometimes attracts them to the serious study of the law. Mr. White has performed his task with a good deal of cleverness. The volume will possibly be found of more use to teachers than to students.

A more strictly professional essay in the same direction is 'The Law in its Relation to Physicians,' by Arthur N. Taylor of the New York bar (D. Appleton & Co.). The author has done his best to interest the physician in his legal rights and liabilities, and has made a full collection of authorities bearing on the subject. How far physicians will profit by his work, we cannot say, but lawyers who advise physicians will find it a careful compendium.

'The Law of Combinations' (Chicago: Callaghan & Co.) is the title of a valuable work, in two volumes, by Arthur J. Eddy of the Chicago bar. It deals with monopolies, Trusts, combinations both of labor and capital, conspiracy, and contracts in restraint of trade; and exhibits the scope of Federal and State anti-Trust legislation. The author has wisely refrained from theorizing, and leaves the statutes and decisions to speak for themselves, declaring that the former are so "diverse" and the latter so "conflicting" as to "defy reduction."

John Byrne & Co. (Washington, D. C.) are public-spirited enough to attempt a Legal Classic Series, which they have begun with Beames's Translation of Glanville. An introduction is furnished by Prof. Joseph Henry Beale, jr., of the Harvard Law School. Glanville is to be followed by Littleton's 'Tenures,' Britton, 'The Mirror of Justice,' 'Fleta,' etc. Mr. Beale's introduction is interesting; he discusses the authorship of the book intelligently, and sums up its merits by saying that it is possible to get from Glanville "a rather complete picture of the common law at the end of the reign of Henry II.," *i. e.*, toward the end of the twelfth century. As to the authorship, which was accepted as unquestioned from the time of the appearance of the book to the nineteenth century, Mr. Beale sees no reason to doubt that the work was in substance that of Henry's "Chief Justiciar," "The King's Eye," the faithful, wise, grave, and eloquent Ranulph de Glanville.

'One of China's Scholars,' by Mrs. Howard Taylor (London: Morgan & Scott), is the story, founded on an autobiography, of the son of a gentleman and a man of property in North China. The author, who is connected with the China Inland Mission, describes some typical scenes in family life—as the birth of a boy, his first school, and his marriage—and then relates certain incidents in Hsi's career before his conversion to Christianity. This includes a graphic picture of the sufferings of a victim of the opium habit, and an account of the terrible famine of 1878 in Shansi. It was in the following year that an English missionary conceived the idea of offering money prizes for the best essays on certain themes taken from the Scriptures. Packets, containing this proposal and brief statements of the subjects, were distributed among the six or seven thousand students who were attending the triennial examination at the capital of the province. One of these fell into Hsi's hands, and, prompted by the destitution caused by the opium habit and the famine, he, together with more than a hundred others, wrote, and three of the four prizes offered fell to him. This led to his engagement as the missionary's teacher, and eventually to his conversion. An account of his work as a Christian pastor, without salary or any remuneration, is reserved for another volume, but a brief reference is made to his efforts for the cure of opium-smokers by means of opium refuges. These are "no less than forty in number, and now extend from this [Shansi] to four adjacent provinces. Pastor Hsi manufactures at his own home all the medicines used in the refuges, and personally superintends their operations." The book is especially noteworthy for the concise statement of the whole educational scheme by which a man attains the second or M.A. degree.

The mountaineers of eastern Kentucky are the subject of the principal article in the *Geographical Journal* for June. Miss Ellen C. Semple describes the physical features of their country, their origin, homes, industries, education, habits of thought and language, and their religious customs, with vivid sketches of personal incidents during a horseback ride of more than 350 miles through this region. Owing to its well-nigh complete isolation this branch of the most progressive of all races retains the civilization, that of the eighteenth century, which it brought to its present home, and speaks the English of Shakspere. Other articles are an account of exploration in the basin of the Linyanti, a tributary of the Zambesi, a notice of Joris Carolus, a forgotten Arctic explorer, by Sir Martin Conway, and a description, with diagrams and illustrations, of the Japanese earthquake of October 28, 1891.

That amusing illustration of British military ingenuousness, the delivery of guns, train, and men to De Wet at Sanna's Post, March 31, 1900, is described by a competent eye-witness, Capt. Reichmann, our attaché with the Boers, in the *Journal of the Military Service Institution* for July. Aware that the enemy was in their rear, the British assumed that a difficult crossing in their front was open to them, and, without precaution, drove quietly into the very arms of their foes. At a cost of two killed and eleven wounded the Boers, whose strength was 400, inflicted a loss of 100 killed and wounded, 440 prisoners, 7 out of 12 guns, all the baggage, about 150 wagons, and between one and two thousand draught-animals. This was accomplished by the simple process of sending 1,100 men behind the British camp of 6,000 to start the column in the right direction, so that the 400 in front might await it without concern. Incidentally, it appears that, later in the day, six mounted Boers were sent out "to shoot back" an approaching squadron of lancers, which they did, and still later ten Boers were detailed "to shoot back" two other squadrons. Capt. Reichmann narrates without comment what he saw, but the story, mingled with some minor personal experiences, is told well, because plainly and without embellishment. It illustrates some of the difficulties that befall those who are slow to appreciate the conditions of active campaigning.

An interesting explanation of the word Mephistopheles is proposed and defended by W. H. Roscher, in an article entitled "Ephialtes," found in volume xx. of the philological section of the reports of the Saxon Academy of Sciences. Rejecting the many proposed mechanical derivations of the word from the Greek or the Hebrew, the writer first analyzes the character of Mephistopheles as depicted by mediæval literature, and finds that he is represented as an obliging and helpful spirit, ready at any moment to assist those whom he favors, after the manner of kobolds, elfs, and so forth. Hence the derivation of the name μεγιστ-ώφέλης *i. e.*, useful in the highest degree; kindred in origin to that of ancient Ephialtes, usually identified with Pan. The change from Megistopheles to Mephistopheles Roscher explains as intentional, and finds parallels in many popular corruptions of the names of gods and demons, originating in the fear that, if their names were correctly pronounced, their presence would be unnecessarily invoked, followed by punishment.

The catalogue of the Greek Manuscripts of Mount Athos, recently completed in its second volume for the Syndics of the Cambridge University Press, has been in preparation since 1880 by Prof. S. P. Lambros,

who holds the chair of history in the University of Athens. This work makes accessible to modern scholarship at least the leading facts concerning the more than ten thousand Greek manuscripts which have been accumulating in the course of centuries in the "Monks' Republic," which, together with Jerusalem and Mt. Sinai, constitute the three sacred monastic shrines and literary storehouses of the Orthodox Church. Professor Lambros visited Mt. Athos for the first time in 1880, but could not go a second time until 1895, and in this latter year the first volume of his catalogue was published. He has examined and described in all 6,582 volumes, found in the twenty-four cloisters and monk villages (σκῆται) on Mt. Athos. The value of the collection is, however, not in proportion to these numbers. More than one-half of the manuscripts were written after the art of printing had been invented. In several of these collections there are only a few specimens dating earlier than the seventeenth or eighteenth century. Duplicates in great number are found—hundreds of copies of the gospels, the Psalter, church and prayer-books. Indeed, nine-tenths of the books are of a religious character.

In our comment last week on the new British census, a typographical error made Scotland for the first time more "prosperous" than Ireland instead of "populous"—a melancholy misrepresentation.

—Mr. Eliot Gregory has, in *Harper's* for July, an article (illustrated by reproductions in color of paintings by Henry Hutt) on "Newport in Summer." It deserves attention as being a slashing criticism of the summer life of our *nouveaux riches*. Newport, according to Mr. Gregory, has had three distinct phases of life: first, as a provincial seaport; second, as the chief sea-side watering-place of the quiet American society of fifty years since; third (in the last twenty years), as "a focus of folly, extravagance, and newspaper notoriety, the fad of our wealthiest plutocracy, and perhaps the most advertised watering-place on the globe." There are, however, he thinks, signs of a change in the air. The great "palace-building" era has seen its day. Newporters of the next decade will lead more reasonable lives than their parents. They will not try to build each a larger house than his neighbor; they will not waste the summer in entertaining; they will live sane and independent sea-side lives. This prediction, we trust, is all true; indeed, a good many Newporters would probably say that Mr. Gregory's satire is a little misdirected, and that the people who really lead the most silly and noisy lives at Newport are not those who constitute the backbone of its society—not multi-millionaires, but pushing parvenus, giddy with their first million, who have not yet learned that all real aristocrats have quiet manners and are unostentatious. But, leaving all this aside, many of Mr. Gregory's hits are undeniable. His satire is keener and more searching than that of the "Potiphar Papers," though not always in such good taste. In fact, much of what he says is less satire than bald fact. It is true that the old Newport villas on the cliffs were appropriate to the place and harmonized with their surroundings; it is true that a palace in a five-acre lot is a mistake; it is true that what ought to be one great charm of such a place—privacy—is sadly lacking; it is true that Newport is a place where much splendor is mixed with much "slouch." Can it be that our magnates have really barbarized rather than improved Newport? We must find out for ourselves; charges such as Mr. Gregory makes are never replied to by the indicted class. "The Buddhist Discovery of America," by John Fryer, is the title of an antiquarian article undertaking to solve some of the questions raised by the prehistoric remains of Central America. The striking illustrations are from photographs by C. B. Waite. According to Mr. Fryer, who is a professor of Oriental languages and literature in the University of California, the evidence in favor of his theory is not merely satisfactory, but overwhelming.

—The leading paper in the July *Century* is on "Working One's Way through Women's Colleges," by Alice Katharine Fallows, with pictures by Charlotte Harding. It is a sequel to an article by the same writer on working one's way through men's colleges, in the last number. The impression is made by both articles, and is said to be confirmed by experience, that college education in this country is, like a good many other things, "overdone" for both sexes—that is, that such an abundant provision for college education is made that large numbers of the young of both sexes are induced to struggle for a college degree though their circumstances, as a whole, make the attempt entirely unsuitable. As this writer points out, working one's way through college is, for a young woman, owing to physical causes, a more serious thing than for a young man. "Add to the demands for college work (which the average student finds quite enough to occupy her attention) the anxiety which self-support involves, and the student must be robust indeed who does not show the effect of it." In an article called "The True Story of Harman Blennerhassett," Therese Blennerhassett-Adams undertakes to give the explanation of Blennerhassett's adoption of America as his country. She calls it a secret, and, while admitting that the fact is not now published for the first time, says that it was carefully kept from his immediate descendants. The secret was that he married his niece, and in consequence could no longer live on the other side. Hence his emigration to America and his withdrawal to the West. The matter is curious, rather than important, as it can hardly be said to explain his relations with Burr. Louis Dyer has a couple of pages on the "Millenary of King Alfred at Winchester," accompanied by a reproduction of the colossal statue by Hamo Thornycroft, which is to be unveiled on that occasion. Mr. Cleveland publishes the conclusion of his "Venezuelan Boundary Controversy," but we do not see that he adds much to what was already known. It seems that the Monroe Doctrine required that there should be arbitration in order that we might know whether the Monroe Doctrine had been violated; and those who "most loudly reprehended and bewailed our vigorous assertion of the Monroe Doctrine" were "the timid ones who feared personal financial loss," or speculators. Fortunately, "the great mass of our countrymen—the plain people of the land"—rallied with "sublime patriotism" to the support of the doctrine of the immortal Monroe, and saved the country. This is a strange perversion of history; the fact is, that it was the plain people who had a panic; the patriots who rallied were M.C.s who knew that their salaries were safe whether it was peace or war.

—The *Atlantic* has an article on "Sixteenth-Century Trusts," by Ambrose P. Winston, which is worth reading, and in which reasons are given for thinking Trusts and the fear of them no new thing. If writers on this subject, we may say in passing, would conscientiously adhere to facts, they would probably write less, but more to the purpose. Two or three points deserve to be borne in mind. So far as known, Trusts as they existed a few years ago have come to an end. All noted aggregations of capital now existing in this country are corporations; to discuss them as Trusts is misleading. An economical writer who does not attend to this should be docked thirty numbers and thirty days' pay. Another point is, that nothing is a legal "monopoly" unless the vender has the market to himself and others are prohibited from selling. Every one has a monopoly in the sale of his own labor; the French Government has a monopoly in the sale of tobacco; the United States Steel Corporation has no monopoly in the sale of steel. Still another point is, that the efforts of former generations to prevent forestalling, regrating, monopolies, etc., were products of periods in which all markets were more or less local and controlled by Government, with the result of widespread distress among the poor. We live in an age in which markets and prices are generally coextensive with the limits of the commercial world and uncontrolled by Government, and prosperity is widespread, while this prosperity has closely attended the development of the modern industrial corporation. In other words, as the octopus extends his ravages, his miserable victim becomes better and better off. In "Two Generations of Quakers" we have many curious extracts from the diary of Ann Whitall of Red Bank, New Jersey, by Logan Pearsall Smith, and some "Recollections of a Quaker Boy," by the late Rowland E. Robinson. Ann Whitall was a Friend of a highly Calvinist turn and of a somewhat original character. Her "Meddatations" would seem to bear even more editing than they here receive.

—In *Scribner's*, signs may be seen of an editorial avulsion, if such a word be allowable, from fiction. Its July number is full of serious articles, of which the best is Mr. W. C. Brownell's criticism of Matthew Arnold. Mr. Brownell is *facile* chief American critic of our period, and our only objection to his method is that he has a tendency to put more into an article than it will hold. He overestimates the acuteness and capacity of his reader, on whose attention he puts sometimes too great a strain. This article on Matthew Arnold contains the material for a dozen essays, and should be studied as well as read. What he says about criticism, what he says about Matthew Arnold's poetry, his style, his religion, and his fame, all seems to us both original and excellent; the way in which he makes his points is always his own. Of Arnold's method in criticism, he says: "It is eminently the antithesis of impressionist criticism," the species "most in vogue at the present time." "Certain definite *ideas* held with elastic firmness, but not developed into any set of procrustean principles, formed his *credo*,

and his criticism consisted in the application of these as a test and measure of quality and worth." He sees that Arnold had the "critical imagination," though, as he very justly points out, criticism, as it does not primarily appeal to the imagination, will never be as popular as will those branches of literature which act as stimulants to it. That Arnold is at the opposite pole from Taine is a fact which has not, perhaps, occurred to many admirers of the latter's pseudo-scientific formulas. The contrast between them is very neatly analyzed here. There are two points which Mr. Brownell omits to dwell upon—perhaps because enough has been said about them already—one, that Arnold's iteration of his text is rather clerical than literary; the other, that his English, though as clear as that of Swift, has a French edge, which makes it different from that of almost every other Anglo-Saxon writer.

—In the midst of still multiplying and uniformly genial notices of his 'Autobiography of a Journalist,' news comes of the passing away of William James Stillman on July 6, at Frimley Green, Surrey, England. To his immediate friends, aware of his four months' illness and not ignorant of his seeming convalescence, this news hardly gives surprise. The event follows his release from the harness of journalism—in the service of the London *Times*, whose pensioner he became on attaining the age of seventy—by three years, and when he had just entered upon his seventy-fourth year. We have ourselves, in reviewing his Autobiography—a work of exceptional interest and variety—indicated the principal phases of his checkered Odyssean career too recently to have need to rehearse them again. He was a typical American, doomed to live mostly abroad, and early distracted by two drawings—towards the practice of art and towards literary criticism of it—in which the latter preponderated only in turn to become subordinate to the pursuit of newspaper correspondence as a means of livelihood. In each field he achieved distinction, reaping also not a few animosities—among Turks, Greeks, and Italians especially, during the period of his consulates and of his connection with the *Times* in the Mediterranean. The discussion of art naturally furnished other opportunities for friction and collision of sentiment; and here his changed relations to Ruskin are most memorable. He had a gift, if not for controversy, for taking a hand in public debate, and this often quite regardless of the personal advantage of refraining. But such indifference was characteristic of his utter lack of mercenary considerations. His native temper was wholly sweet, and his manner charming long past the bloom of youth, when he was companionable to Emerson, Lowell, and Agassiz. As an author he was fairly prolific; all his books are agreeable reading, and some are first-hand historical documents. He made his mark, if a modest one, in archæology; he did something to advance the art of photography. In the evolution of the Eastern Question, he played a part analogous to that of his countryman Eugene Schuyler. He was one of the oldest living contributors to this journal, and his departure cannot be contemplated without sadness.

—The recent death of Herman Grimm suggests the question as to who is likely to take his place in German letters. His personality was so marked, and the range of his interests so wide, that it is hard to think of any one man upon whom his mantle might legitimately descend. Nor can he, in a strict sense, be said to have made a school, although the influence of his thought and his manner is to be seen in nearly all the younger literary historians, especially of North Germany. No one was more closely allied with him of late, and no one has more fully entered into his peculiar way of looking at things, than Prof. Reinhold Steig of Berlin. Professor Steig has just published a book, entitled 'Heinrich von Kleist's Berliner Kämpfe' (Berlin and Stuttgart: W. Spemann), which reveals the spirit of his master on nearly every page. Perhaps the most characteristic trait of Grimm's literary art is his power of transporting us into the surroundings in the midst of which a given author or artist did his work, of introducing us into the circles in which he moved, of making us live over his life once more. This is eminently true of Professor Steig's book. It brings before us not only the last two years—1810 and 1811—of Heinrich von Kleist's activity, but it gives us an epitome of the whole of Berlin society during that memorable time. The struggle between Romanticism and Rationalism, between the friends of the Hardenberg reform legislation and the adherents of the old Prussian caste rule, between the Jewish salons and money power and the anti-Semitic and ultra-German aristocracy, between the narrow, bourgeois character of Iffland's theatrical management and the new claims of a truly national drama; the underground agitation against the Napoleonic tyranny; the educational revival; the religious rebirth—all this is made to live before our eyes with the actuality of the moment, and to centre in an analysis of the *Berliner Abendblätter*, a daily evening paper which Heinrich von Kleist edited in those years in common with his friends, Adam Müller and Achim von Arnim. It is curious to note that Herman Grimm, even in an external sense, was the godfather of this admirable and most instructive book; for he lent to Professor Steig the only complete copy of the *Abendblätter* still in existence, the copy of the brothers Grimm, who had been subscribers to the sheet as it came out, a volume marked in 1861 by the hand of the older of the brothers as "liber nunc rarissimus."

—Another book which, though in a different sense, may be said to have been inspired by Herman Grimm's activity, particularly by his incessant efforts to bring into clear relief every phase and aspect of Goethe's life-work, is Dr. Hans Gräf's 'Goethe über seine Dichtungen' (Frankfort; Literarische Anstalt). This is an attempt to bring together as far as possible everything that Goethe ever said or wrote about his own poetical works. The whole work will be complete in five volumes, two dealing with the epic production (including, of course, the novels), two with the dramatic, and one with the lyric. At present there lies before us the first volume of the first part, giving Goethe's utterances on his epic productions alphabetically arranged, from the 'Achilleïs' to the 'Wahlverwandtschaften.' Under each head the arrangement is, of course, chronological, so that we are enabled to have a bird's-eye view of the development of Goethe's estimates of his own creations. The usefulness of such an undertaking as this is obvious at first sight; and we only need to add that Dr. Gräf has done his part of editing and annotating with great skill, accuracy, and discretion. The book is indispensable to Goethe scholars.

ANOTHER LIFE OF MEADE.

General Meade. By Isaac R. Pennypacker. D. Appleton & Co. 1901.

This is a eulogy of Gen. Meade from the pen of a fervent admirer. The account of Meade's career in the civil war, to which nearly all the book is devoted, gives evidence of extensive reading of the official records, but not of an impartial study of the subject. Still, the reader will have no difficulty in accepting Meade, in the light of the facts set out, as a high-minded gentleman, a pure patriot, an accomplished, careful, and skilled officer, and an unselfish, patient, resolute, and courageous leader. His place in history is assured among the great generals, although not among the greatest. The skill manifested by him on the defensive at Gettysburg was as eminent as that of Lee at Antietam, although the disparity in numbers was in favor of the Union army in both battles, while between the Rapidan and Bull Run in the autumn of 1863 he fairly outmanœuvred Lee. Whether he was Lee's equal in resource, tenacity, watchfulness, and intrepidity, such as the latter displayed in 1864 and 1865, cannot be asserted with the same confidence, for he was never placed in similar conditions. In the trying rôle of commanding an army in the presence and under the immediate orders of the Lieutenant-General, he merited and received the unqualified praise of the latter.

The book under review is in scope the same as Bache's Life of Meade, but it is much more minute in its account of battles and campaigns, and deals with the action of divisions, brigades, regiments and even companies. Bache's narrative is clearer and better from being written on broader lines. In the review of the latter work in the *Nation* of June 9, 1898, it was said that its criticisms of other commanders suggest a "disposition to punish Meade's enemies more than to make a sound criticism of a campaign." Mr. Pennypacker goes further in the same direction, and, in his zeal to enlarge Meade's fame, does not hesitate to disparage friends as well as enemies. Even President Lincoln does not escape. In common with most panegyrists, the author often fails to view his subject in true perspective, and he ignores the errors of Gen. Meade, few as they were, which require the palliation of a friendly pen.

Meade's first battle in the civil war was Gaines's Mill, where he commanded, with credit, a brigade in a force of 34,000 which, after valiant resistance, and the infliction on its opponents of the terrible loss of 8,750 killed and wounded, gave way under the attack of 57,000 Confederates. McClellan might have put 60,000 men in the fight, but failed to seize this chance of victory—from want of resolution, and not, as Mr. Pennypacker supposes, because he had previously determined to change his base to the James. This is shown by his chief of staff's dispatch to Stanton during the battle, which asserted that he would retreat to the James only if compelled to. Three days later, dur-

ing the retreat, McCall's division, in which was Meade's brigade, was ordered by McClellan with others to take position at Glendale (Charles City Cross Roads) to cover the passage of the trains. In the absence of oversight by McClellan, it was posted, out of line, in advance of the other divisions on its right and left, and, therefore, received the first shock of the Confederate attack alone. It made a brave fight, which the author erroneously supposes alone prevented McClellan's line of retreat from being cut. Sedgwick's, Hooker's, and Kearney's and portions of Slocum's and Caldwell's divisions participated, and, with heavy loss, recovered ground lost by McCall's division. Our author is also inaccurate in the statement that McCall's division recovered Randol's battery which it had lost. It was taken from the field by the Confederates.

At South Mountain September 14, 1862, Meade played a conspicuous part. Mr. Pennypacker says that the capture by his command of the position on the enemy's left flank compelled the retreat of the Confederates from the field; but, both by the authority he cites and by Longstreet's report, it appears that the retreat was compelled by the seizure of positions on both flanks. The novel suggestion is made that if McClellan had not supposed, from Lee's "lost order" of September 9, that he and Longstreet would remain at Boonesboro' instead of pushing on to Hagerstown as they did, he might have pressed forward fast enough to cut through Lee's army. As the order actually stated that the army might go to Hagerstown, this belief was not warranted.

In the fierce battles of Second Bull Run, Antietam, Fredericksburg, and Chancellorsville, in command of a brigade, division, or corps, Meade proved his quality so thoroughly that, when Hooker resigned, it was natural that the Administration, in the desire to break the succession of irresolute, feeble, or eccentric commanders such as had up to that time been inflicted on the Army of the Potomac, should select this tried and accomplished soldier for the command. It is more than probable that the influence of some of the other corps commanders was exerted to this end in the emergency which then confronted them. It is improbable that if the Administration had previously planned to remove Hooker, or determined to place Meade in command, it would have waited, in that critical time, for an opportunity to provoke Hooker's resignation. Nor is it probable that the retention of Maryland Heights, which is supposed to have led Hooker to resign, was regarded as very important in view of the ready acquiescence in Meade's immediate withdrawal of French's command from that position. Butterfield testified before the Committee on the Conduct of the War that it was Hooker's plan to throw French's command with Slocum's corps across the Potomac in rear of Lee's army. It is likely that it was this alarming plan which led the Administration to decline to allow Hooker to move French's command, and it is not impossible that the objections of some of the corps commanders to such hazardous strategy influenced the action of the Administration. The official records are remarkably deficient in correspondence on this subject.

In placing Meade in command, the Administration charged him with the duty of fending off Lee from Washington and the large cities to the north, compelling him to retire across the Potomac; and, incidentally, of giving battle at any good opportunity. After pushing northward to cover Washington and Baltimore, he advanced towards the Confederate line of communication with the South. This latter movement induced Lee to give up the attempt to cross the Susquehanna and turn about to give battle. Whether he thought a battle necessary to his army's safety, or whether he offered it because he was overconfident of victory, may be a question. It seems certain that he could have concentrated north of the South Mountain and retreated across the Potomac without serious molestation. Having determined to fight, he undoubtedly chose Gettysburg as the point of concentration because of the great highways which converged there from the points then occupied by his army. When Meade divined, from the enemy's movements, their disposition to concentrate, he ordered an advance of his army, in which the First and Eleventh Corps, under Reynolds, were sent to Gettysburg. In the order for this movement he stated that he desired to assume position for offensive or defensive, as occasion should require. Reynolds deprived him of the choice by throwing his corps into action in aid of Buford's cavalry, which, without this, might have safely retired. The time was inopportune for joining in battle, because most of the army was not within supporting distance, and the position in front of Gettysburg was a bad one, because it opened the rear of the Union line to the enemy marching in on the Carlisle and Hunterstown roads. It is not to be supposed that Reynolds was ignorant of these facts, and it is unfortunate for the fame of that brilliant soldier if there is no posthumous evidence to excuse him. Mr. Pennypacker exaggerates his fault by implying that, after he received the order to go to Gettysburg, he was told that it was given before there was positive knowledge of the enemy's concentration, and was instructed to fall back if he found the enemy in superior force; but Bache says that the circular which contained this information and instruction did not reach Reynolds.

When the Union troops were driven back through Gettysburg on July 1, Howard ordered a part of his corps into position on Cemetery Hill to cover the retreat, and Hancock, arriving soon afterwards, confirmed this and, conformably, ordered the remainder of the First and Eleventh Corps and the Twelfth Corps, then arriving, into the position which was held from that time until the close of the battle. Meade testified before the Committee on the Conduct of the War that the account of this position which Hancock brought to him before he reached the field, determined him to fight the battle there. Mr. Pennypacker implies that it was Meade, and not Hancock, who was entitled to the credit of selecting this position. In like manner, the author attributes to Meade the initiative in sending troops to defend Little Round Top, against Warren's testimony before the same Committee that, having been sent by Meade to that hill, he, seeing the enemy's advancing lines from the summit, sent word to Meade that it was necessary to occupy it strongly. Again, the author attributes to Meade the stopping of the fire of the Union batteries in order to reserve the ammunition for repelling Pickett's charge, in contravention of the report and testimony of Gen. Hunt, Chief of Artillery, that he gave this order of his own motion.

The position taken by Sickles on July 2 is condemned by Mr. Pennypacker, because it exposed both flanks, presented an angle to the enemy which could be enfiladed, and covered more ground than the corps could defend; but the enemy did not take much, if any, advantage of any of these things, and it is well contended in Sickles's behalf that the corps fought as long, and did as much execution where it stood, as it would have if it had been in line with the corps on the right. The serious disadvantage which resulted from the advanced position of Sickles's corps, as stated by Gen. Meade in his testimony before the Committee on the Conduct of the War, was that in that position it could not be supported promptly. The author offers no excuse for the abandonment on July 2 of the intrenchments on Culp's Hill, which might have brought a catastrophe on the army. The recovery of these intrenchments required a hard battle.

Gen. Meade bore the undivided responsibility for the Army of the Potomac until March 26, 1864. No military authority of weight now contends that after Gettysburg an attack on Lee before he reached Virginia offered much chance of success. Meade's well-laid plan for striking him through Manassas Gap, while retreating up the Shenandoah, was defeated by the torpidity of French in command of the Third Corps; but during the next seven months Meade, while he established confidence in his ability to guard his army against defeat, and made some brilliant and successful attacks on portions of Lee's army, never joined battle with the whole of that army, nor manifested the resolution to accomplish its destruction by forcing the fighting whenever it could be caught outside of earthworks. One need not be a partisan of the Administration to think that this experience warranted it in doubting that Meade could be relied upon to force the relentless fighting which was necessary to destroy Lee's army.

In placing Meade's force at Gettysburg at 83,289, on the authority of 'Numbers and Losses in the Civil War,' the author does not observe that, according to that book, about 5,000 is to be added for three brigades of the Sixth Corps, which, although present, were not engaged. It appears, by a correction in a later edition of the same work, that Meade had 93,000 effectives, against Lee's 75,000.

The assertion that the strength of the opposing armies was nearly equal at any time during the nine months following Gettysburg is not tenable. The Union army always was the strongest by 15,000 to 36,000 men. After Lee reached the Rapidan, Meade did not move against him until October, when, discovering the movement of Lee's army northward, he manœuvred to place the Army of the Potomac in position to attack Lee in the attempt to cross the Rappahannock. It resulted that the two armies assumed substantially the same positions held by Lee's and Pope's armies just before the second Bull Run; and then, in 1863 as in 1862, Lee, crossing the Rappahannock, turned the right flank of the Union army, and caused its retreat, and a favorable opportunity for battle was lost in each campaign through the fault of one of the corps commanders. In 1862 it was Sigel who, under orders to sweep the country from Gainesville to

Manassas Junction, started too late to intercept Jackson, as he retreated back around the flank of the Union army. In 1863 it was Sykes who, by marching away from Bristow Station, in too literal obedience to orders, while the Second Corps was engaged there, threw away a favorable chance for a battle on favorable terms, for the Second Corps numbered 8,000 (not 3,000, as the author intimates), and the Fifth Corps 12,000, while only Anderson's and Heth's divisions of about 11,000 were engaged on the Confederate side (and not 30,000 men, as the author says). But Meade did not wish to join battle south of Bull Run, while Pope planned to fight any of the enemy encountered in the march to the rear. Mr. Pennypacker praises Meade's generalship in contrast with Pope's in these manœuvres, alleging that while Meade successfully evaded the force which had marched around his flank, Pope was involved in the disaster of Second Bull Run by Jackson's flank march. This is an error. Pope, after beating up Ewell's division in his rear, and driving it back, faced his army about and moved upon Jackson, who thereupon, as stated above, retraced his steps around the northern flank of the Union army with all celerity. The defeat in the battle which followed was not due, and had no relation, to Jackson's flank march, but resulted from Pope's facing again to the original front after Jackson had passed back towards Lee, and advancing in battle against Lee and Jackson reunited. Meade's brilliant dislodgement of Lee from his position on the Rappahannock November 7 was followed by inaction until the movement to Mine Run November 26, where the intended surprise was frustrated by the error of a corps commander, and Meade was diverted from an attack on the enemy's intrenched lines by Warren's plan for a flank attack, which later he decided to be impracticable.

Mr. Pennypacker blames President Lincoln for requiring Meade constantly to interpose his army between the enemy and Washington, and for refusing on this account to agree to his plan for taking a step nearer to Richmond by changing his base to Fredericksburg, and he implies that, by dissenting from plans "to fight the enemy slowly back into his entrenchments at Richmond, and then to capture him," he forbade Meade to do what was done under Grant in the Wilderness campaign. This is a misconception. The march into the Wilderness, May 4, 1864, was not for the purpose of fighting the enemy back to Richmond, but of interposing between them and Richmond, in order to force them to battle in which they might be destroyed before they could take shelter behind the works at Richmond. Lee moved down to attack the Union army in the Wilderness, and Meade, turning on him, promptly attacked him before Longstreet's corps had arrived within supporting distance. Probably, on May 5, a decisive defeat of the enemy was prevented by the inexcusable delay of four or five hours in the attack by the Fifth Corps, and the exposure of its flank to the counter-attack by the enemy; and on May 6, by the failure of Gibbon to attack with the rest of the Second Corps, as intended by Hancock, and the tardy participation of Burnside's command. The failure of the Confederates' counter-attack to dislodge the Union army on May 6 left them no disposition for another, and from that day to the end of the war Lee never ventured his whole army out of its works for attack, as he so often had done before, nor did the Army of the Potomac ever again retreat. From that day the initiative was constantly with Grant. Gettysburg is dramatically entitled the turning-point of the war, but the title fits the Wilderness more closely.

Mr. Pennypacker repeats the statement that, in ordering the Army of the Potomac across the James in June, Grant left Meade in ignorance of the purpose to have any part of that army take part in the attack on Petersburg. The review of Bache's Life of Meade above cited states facts which controvert this view, and also shows that the halt of Hancock's corps at the river, which prevented its arrival in time to attack June 15, was due to Meade's erroneous report that the corps was without rations. Mr. Pennypacker omits to notice this, and erroneously states that Hancock reported that he had started for Petersburg without rations. His review of the siege of Petersburg gives no explanation of the failure to dispatch reinforcements to Hancock at Ream's Station, August 25, in time to avert the disaster of that day.

The field of Boydton Plank Road was abandoned after the battle of October 27, 1864, according to Meade's report, because of the superior position of the enemy. His latest biographer, however, alleges that it was abandoned because the troops were short of ammunition, and that the failure of the movement at this time was due to ignorance of the country which would not have existed if Sheridan's cavalry command had not been away. In view of the presence of Gregg's cavalry, this statement seems to be somewhat strained. The author's hostile view of Grant and Sheridan apparently leads him to question whether, if the cavalry corps had been present on this field, the collapse of the Confederate army might not have been brought about as well then as in the following April; to characterize Sheridan's battle on March 31 as a humiliating defeat which caused everything on the Union side to be deferred to extricate him; and to assert that the battle of Five Forks did not essentially contribute to the capture of Petersburg. These statements hardly deserve serious refutation, but the facts are as follows: Sheridan's movement beyond the left flank of the enemy on March 29 had the effect, desired by Grant, of drawing them out of their works, and 7,000 cavalry and 6,600 infantry advanced against Sheridan's 9,000 cavalry, which resisted obstinately all day, retiring from Five Forks to Dinwiddie Court-House, a distance of about four miles. At the close of the day Sheridan sent word to Grant that he would hold on as long as he could. He asked for no aid, and needed none, to extricate him. The Fifth Corps was sent to seize the opportunity to break up the force which was in Sheridan's front, but not to relieve him. On the next day came the victory of Five Forks, in consequence of which, on the same night, Lee sent four brigades from his intrenched lines to the South Side Railroad to stop the Union approach from Five Forks. These brigades, with those at Five Forks, numbered about 12,000, and their departure left only 20,000 troops to hold fifteen miles of trenches from Clairborne Road to the Appomattox. The depletion of the force in the trenches was the main object of Sheridan's movement on the enemy's flank, and it contributed greatly, if, indeed, it was not essential, to the success of the assault of the next day on those works.

The climax of our author's attacks on Grant and Sheridan is the accusation that, after opening negotiations with Lee for the surrender of his army, Grant, leaving orders for Meade to attack the retreating enemy when overtaken, deliberately put himself out of reach of Meade and of dispatches from Lee, by riding around to Sheridan in front of the Confederate army in order to give him the credit of receiving the surrender; and that, by doing this, Grant invited the risk of a needless battle after Lee was ready to surrender. With this is contrasted the magnanimous decision of Meade to suspend hostilities until Lee's next letter should reach Grant. Several established facts are inconsistent with the immeasurable indifference to human life here attributed to Grant. A single one of them, if known to Mr. Pennypacker, might have shown him his error, which is that Ord, and not Sheridan, was the senior officer in the force which Grant joined in front of the enemy.

THE BARONESS DE BODE.

The Baroness de Bode. 1775-1803. By William S. Childe-Pemberton. With portraits. Longmans, Green & Co. 1900.

The family name De Bode was well known in England during the years 1820-1850 from its association with a *cause célèbre*. At the Peace of 1814 it was agreed that France should pay a sum of seven millions sterling in lieu of damages sustained by British subjects resident in that country whose property had been confiscated during the Revolutionary and Napoleonic wars. The money was to be divided among the sufferers. Under this article of the treaty Baron Clement de Bode claimed the large sum of £541,162. The grounds of his application involved several important legal points and several which are historically interesting. His parentage was unusual, and his career had been equally extraordinary. He was the son of a German father and an English mother, a fact sufficiently commonplace in itself. But his father, though German, had been an officer in the French service prior to 1786, and when the Revolution broke out was seigneur of a singular Alsatian fief called Sulz or Soultz. The feudal superior of Soultz was a German prince and archbishop, the Elector of Cologne, but homage for the holding was rendered not only to him but to the King of France.

A further complication is introduced into De Bode's suit against the British Treasury by the fact that the plaintiff did not come, at the time, from England, France, or Germany, but from Russia. He had lived in Russia ever since his boyhood, he was (or had been) colonel of a Russian cavalry regiment, and the Czar Alexander gave him funds for the prosecution of his case. The matter came before the full Court of Queen's Bench, the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, the House of Commons, and the House of Lords. The Earl of Derby and three Lord Chancellors, Brougham, Lyndhurst, and Truro, supported Baron de Bode; yet he never got the money, nor did his heir, who kept the process alive till 1861. Sir Theodore Martin says, in his 'Life of Lord

Lyndhurst': "The money out of which the Baron might have been paid part of his claim at least had been spent, and the all-powerful voice of a recalcitrant Treasury drowned every other consideration." Brougham wrote: "In all my experience at the bar, in Parliament, or in the country, such gross and impudent injustice I never witnessed."

The present volume is devoted to a very vigorous woman, Mary Kynnersley, the mother of Baron Clement de Bode, and, one must think, the natural source of his pertinacity. Her life traversed nearly the whole revolutionary period, for she died at Moscow shortly before Napoleon entered it. She had some remarkable experiences, and her whole active career illustrates striking aspects of court society as it was when the old régime closed. Her early years were unmarked by any strange events. She was the fourth daughter of a Staffordshire squire, and had no early advantages which seemed likely to bring her into contact with the crowned heads of Europe. Her fate was determined by a trip to Dunkirk with Lady Ferrers (a sister-in-law of the Earl who was hanged at Tyburn for murdering his steward). There she met Charles Auguste de Bode, whose grandfather had been a Privy Councillor to the Emperor Charles VI., and who was himself a poor but honest Baron of the Holy Roman Empire. He held a commission in a French regiment, the Royal Deux-Ponts, and eventually became a colonel. He was also well connected with families in Austrian Flanders. Indeed, his relatives would not welcome the bride until research at the Heralds' College in London had proved that the Kynnersley family "was one of the most ancient in England, and nobly allied during eight hundred years." After this discovery they could not be cordial enough.

The determining facts in the Baroness de Bode's life were the comparative poverty of her husband and the large size of her family. Year after year she had a son or a daughter until the total amounted to eleven, and almost all of them survived their infant ailments. Her chief care was to educate these children and to place them in the world, a task to which she brought a very enterprising talent. Shortly after her marriage she went with her husband to Saarbrück, and, from holding the post of lady-in-waiting to the Princess, she formed a wide acquaintance with notable persons. She began making provision for her poor children at their birth by getting suitable godparents, and thus securing a certain interest for them in the future. Clement, the eldest boy, was, through the good offices of Maria Theresa, to be a *Chevalier de Malte;* William, the second, should enter the church and be made a *chanoine;* the Queen of Prussia was godmother to Frederica, etc. At length, by dint of skilful management, presumably on his wife's part, the Baron de Bode secured Soultz, a valuable fief in Alsace which had belonged to the Cardinal de Rohan. This good luck happened in 1788, and for a twelvemonth the mother felt secure. Then came the Revolution!

We must keep our notice of Mme. de Bode within bounds, and so we shall say little about an important part of the book—the letters which describe feudalism at Soultz. The Baron had his vassals, his ingenious *banalités,* and his settlement of Jews who paid tribute for their right of residence. "'Tis impossible to tell you all the rights we have. We hardly know them ourselves yet." In short, the Baron was ruler as by right divine, and with the full authority which Sancho possessed over his subjects, when the Bastille was stormed and the peasants began to grow restless. A great deal of most animated and valuable detail is given concerning the advance of the Revolution from 1789 till 1794, when blank ruin overtook the Baron de Bode and his family. The facts are all the more authentic because the Baroness has no general grasp of politics and is not writing with a view to literary effect. Her letters to her sisters are long and crowded with circumstances. They relate her hopes and despair, her hairbreadth escapes, and those of her husband, the varying chances which she has of reinstatement, and her reliance upon the Allies. Finally, in 1794, she lost everything which could not be removed, and most of her personal property besides. She found herself with a good, but not very strenuous, husband and eight children to provide for.

Here the extraordinary and adventurous part of her life begins. She had courage and a certain kind of faith. "The Israelites became richer after all their hardships than they were before." "God restored to Job more than he ever had, and it pleased Him to render him richer in his latter days than he was at first." With maternal anxiety and religious confidence she looked about for the rope of safety which should rescue her and hers from the flood. Exiled in western Germany, she learned from a newspaper that Catharine II. had offered the Prince de Condé and his officers a tract in southern Russia. He had not accepted the invitation, but why, if such favors were being extended to *émigrés,* should not the Baron de Bode be included? He had lost one fief in Alsace, but why should he not receive another in the Crimea?

On fire with this idea, the Baroness left her husband and the seven youngest children at Altenberg. Taking Clement, the future claimant, she set out "in a little nice, blue phaeton, and two little white horses, drove by our faithful Jacob," and made a round of German courts to furnish herself with letters of introduction to the Empress. The Landgravine of Hesse-Homburg, the Landgraf of Hesse-Darmstadt, the Duchess of Zweibrücken, the court of Baden, and the Countess of Leyen, all gave her aid. "Some have helped me with money, others with letters of recommendation; all with good wishes for my success, and admiration for my courage and resolution to put such a project into execution." She drove across Germany from Carlsruhe to Berlin, got money, keepsakes, and letters from the Queen of Prussia, and then away to Stockholm. At Stralsund she sold her horses and took boat for Usted, where Count Runth, Governor of Pomerania, was her friend. From Usted she posted several hundred miles to the Swedish capital.

The end of the matter is, that she captured the fief in southern Russia for which she asked. No sooner had she arrived in St. Petersburg than Sir Charles Whitworth, the English Ambassador, put his horses and carriage at her disposal. The Empress found her with ready money, "and gave orders for us to be lodged and boarded at her expense, so long as we stay here." Count Zuboff, the favorite, got her the sum needed to bring her husband and children (545 guineas), and sent her off into the Government of Ekaterinoslav, there to select a fief which should please her. By November 24, 1795, the whole transaction was completed, and she was put in possession of an excellent estate. "The cattle that are upon it are very fine; the rivers, lakes, and pools that belong to us charming, and remarkably stocked with fish. The meadows give nearly 7,000 wagon-loads of hay at 2,000 pounds weight each; the ground uncommonly good." Mme. de Bode had some reverses at the death of Catharine, when Paul developed strong anti-English feelings; but after his assassination she came back to favor. Under Alexander her children prospered, and those who remained in Russia have intermarried with the greatest families. The Baroness was not a beauty. She accomplished her purposes by enterprise and grace. Her history shows how the nobles and princes of the old régime held together and helped each other, wherever possible, amid the misfortunes which resulted from the Revolution.

This book is a collection of letters, now belonging to Lord Norton, who is descended from one of the Kynnersley sisters. Mr. Childe-Pemberton supplies the connecting links with a clear and suitable narrative of his own. The papers have been used with much tact, and the editor does not state his case too strongly when he says, in the first sentence of the preface: "If any apology be needed for adding one more to the list of memoirs bearing on the French Revolution, I trust it may be fairly claimed that this record breaks fresh ground."

Talk on Civics. By Henry Holt. The Macmillan Co. 1901.

The aim of this book is certainly commendable, and the author is well qualified for the work that he has undertaken. He is thoroughly informed, he is a clear thinker, and he writes in a plain and forcible style. It is an ambitious design—to declare the whole duty of the citizen—but it is carried out with as much success as could reasonably be anticipated; perhaps with more success than any similar attempt has attained. Whatever shortcomings may be observed are to be attributed more to the vast scope of the undertaking, and to the controversial nature of many of the subjects treated, than to any deficiency in the author's equipment. He has a well-defined body of political principles, derived from his own reflection on the doctrines of the soundest of teachers, and he applies them consistently and conscientiously. He deserves to be honored as a patriot; for no better service can be rendered to the country than to teach its citizens how its institutions have been developed. No country, Mr. Holt observes, has been cursed so much as ours by political quackery—especially the quackery which proposes immediate cures by legislation for the abiding ills resulting from human weakness and ignorance. All our beneficent institutions have been evolved through the long and painful struggles which have produced character and morality, yet there is scarcely one, from a stable currency down to the very right of accumulating property, that has lately escaped a strong attempt to overthrow it, and to substitute some invention bearing a new name, but really a form of some protean error as old as history. Against these perennial fallacies Mr. Holt girds himself like a man, and exposes them right valiantly.

Whether Mr. Holt has presented his arguments in a manner that will be popular is open to question. He has written his book in the form of a catechism, and some catechisms—notably 'Coin's School'—have been widely read. But they are not intrinsically alluring, and, in spite of Mr. Holt's familiar and spirited style, we fear that he will appeal chiefly to the just men that need no repentance. For, to apply the principles of evolution, only those who are trained to think and reason can think and reason on politics. It is inevitable that a catechism on so great a subject as this should be dogmatic. Mr. Holt gives his reasons as fully as he can, but they are necessarily condensed, and his conclusions often imply much more than is contained in his premises. Those who do not accept them will point out many cases where arguments on which they rely have been disregarded.

Mr. Holt professes to use the Socratic method only in a modified form; but his method differs materially from that of Plato. That accomplished cross-examiner was in the habit of leading his pupils on until they confuted themselves and thus discovered their errors. Mr. Holt's pupil is omniscient; the teacher has only to broach a subject in order to let on a gush of knowledge. This artifice is not artistic, because it lacks verisimilitude; learners are not supposed to be able to overwhelm their teachers with the wealth of their information. But Mr. Holt defends his method with so much modesty as to make us quite willing to concede that it has certain advantages. In fact, we have found his book much more readable than its form led us to expect.

Possibly there would have been a gain in omitting the summary of the law of real and personal property, contracts, etc., and giving more space to the defence of doctrines which are widely controverted. Nevertheless, Mr. Holt is not to be regarded as attempting to make every man his own lawyer, and his presentation of the law is lucid and interesting. We can heartily recommend his book to young and old as containing a social philosophy of the best kind; animated with the spirit of benevolence as well as justice, free from cant and from fallacy, and practical because based on experience. Even those who do not accept all its conclusions will be benefited by observing how they are reached. To put such a book in the hands of an intelligent boy will do much to make him a good citizen. We may add that, in spite of its polemics, the tone of the book is highly optimistic.

Domestic Service. By Lucy Maynard Salmon. Second edition. New York: The Macmillan Co.

We return to Miss Salmon's excellent book on 'Domestic Service' for the sake of the supplementary chapter on the phase the difficulties of this question assume in the various countries of Europe. It is a great mistake to suppose that the conditions of the servant problem are more perplexing in America than elsewhere, while it is equally fallacious to believe that any country in Europe, not to say the world, is exempt from its difficulties. The difference is only in degree, and varies with the usages and manner of living in every land.

Chapter xvii., Domestic Service in Europe, contains the concentrated information collected by our authoress from competent authorities and personal inquiry in England, France, Germany, and Italy during the last ten years. The social and political conditions which affect the question are traced on one hand to long-accepted traditions and customs; on the other, to the development of the democratic idea since the French Revolution, to industrial movements and social changes affecting the relations of classes to each other in every country of Europe. These influences manifest themselves differently according to political tendencies and to the characteristics of each people. The fundamental differences in domestic architecture are in themselves potential in altering the conditions of service—the English house complete in itself; the French system of large houses let out in flats having one staircase uniting the different floors, and all the servants of each flat sleeping beneath the eaves; the German apartment-house in close proximity to garden cafés, affording, with the pastry cook, immense facilities for meals; the Italian palace in which everything is sacrificed to the grandeur of the reception-rooms, and the servants have to sleep in corners and mezzanines low and stuffy. Then the habits of each country tell immensely on the service required. In Italy, for instance, where no breakfast is required, and hospitality to visitors never takes the form of meals, life is generally simple and domestic service comparatively easy, while all over Europe neither baking nor washing is habitually included in the work of the house as they are in America. But, to counterbalance these requirements, we must note the uniform heating of houses and the employment of mechanical appliances to facilitate labor in America.

There is still in every country a survival of the old relationship of master and servant; these instances are to be found generally far away in the country, in ancestral domains where new ideas have not as yet penetrated. It is clear, after examining all the different sides of the question in Europe, that in essentials the same difficulties exist as in America. Up to the present moment the different methods adopted to secure efficient service in Europe are quite inadequate. The German method of Government supervision by means of service-books seems to have signally failed, for the law forbids an employer to say anything in his written report in the service-book which would prevent the employee from finding employment, and even a suspicion of honesty must be concealed unless the employer can lodge a legal complaint and show positive proof of dishonesty.

An advantage our authoress sees in domestic service in Europe is the employment of men. In Italy, France, and Germany a great number of natives adopt household service as a means of subsistence among their own people. It would seem by Booth's report on this subject that in England there are now fewer men willing to serve, the influx of Swiss and Italian waiters having thrown discredit on the profession. The want of adaptability of the Englishman, and his inability to lay his hand to any work required outside what he has been engaged for, make him fit only for establishments of extremely wealthy people who keep a great number, one for each specialty, while the Swiss or Italian or German is ready for any work which may occur, has more obliging manners, and can generally speak several languages; besides which, foreign men servants do not demand such high wages as Englishmen.

Although the rate of wages is lower in England than in America, Miss Salmon errs in supposing any ordinary English housemaid would serve for $3 a month, and that an excellent cook could be obtained for $8. Excellent cooks are nearly obsolete; the survivals know their value, and one of moderate pretensions would demand from £30 to £40 sterling per year. Housemaids, even those in their teens without experience, require from £14 to £20 yearly in England, supplemented by Christmas presents and tips from visitors. The cook receives fees from the tradesmen and purveyors, but these have been greatly reduced of late years by the custom of provisioning from coöperative stores. On the Continent, wages are far lower than in England, but the cook, as a matter of course, adds her percentage to every item of daily expenditure, which the daily marketing gives her ample opportunity of doing, while the man-servant takes his on candles, lamp oil, coal and wood, and fruit, sweets, and cakes for dessert.

In Europe the social disadvantages of domestic service are much the same as in America, so that the status of servant has become rather a refuge for the inept. Men and women of moderate intelligence prefer even harder work in factories, in shops, in telegraph offices, to the total loss of liberty involved in accepting domestic service. The conditions of such service in Europe are far harder than in America. The chasm between the English servant and his master, constantly emphasized by the extreme servility of the former, is always disagreeably noticeable to Americans. In France and Italy the relations between the employer and employed are more democratic and human. In Italy, servants are treated with little consideration as to their personal comfort, while they are supposed to dedicate all their time to their work. Even in Germany, where much is done to mitigate the difficulties of the position, and so many benefactions have been organized for the benefit of domestic employees, the lot of a servant is a hard one. Miss Salmon's concluding paragraph deserves attention:

"In one important respect the condition of domestic service in Europe is immeasurably behind that in America. Even more than here, domestic service and domestic servants are the targets at which are aimed the satire and the ridicule of literature and the press, and this is not counterbalanced by earnest study of the subject, as is the case with us. The question is everywhere discussed in America, not because the difficulties here are greater than they are elsewhere, but because it is coming to be recognized as a part of the great labor problem of the day. If the future holds for us a solution of the problem, it is because we believe it is worthy of historical study and of scientific investigation; and in giving it this recognition, we have put it on a higher plane than the one it as yet occupies in Europe."

Remembrances of Emerson. By John Albee, author of 'Prose Idyls,' etc., etc. New York: Robert G. Cooke. 1901.

If the word "appreciation" had not of late been over-used in a new meaning, it might plead for employment in a proper description of Mr. Albee's little book. There are those who have a pleasant recollection of the author in that period of youth which

he describes so happily, when his mates and younger friends regarded him as a quite typical Emersonian, reading "little Emersonian essays" instead of sermons in the New England Unitarian churches after his graduation from the Harvard Divinity School, and thereby shortening the period of his candidacy without effecting a settlement. It was, perhaps, because of a too exclusive devotion to Emerson that he was unable to attend the regular lectures of the Divinity School, so that one of the professors, being asked to sign his diploma, expressed his willingness to further Mr. Albee's ends and aspirations, but added that he lacked the basis of any personal acquaintance with him whatsoever.

None of the philosophers and moralists who have arisen within the last fifty years have swerved Mr. Albee from his early admiration. His book is all the more valuable because it has been written in full view of the long line of those who have endeavored to give to life and the world a more satisfactory interpretation than was embodied in Emerson's lofty idealism. Nor can it be regarded as a fault that Mr. Albee's style and thought reflect those of his master. The first sentences are evidence of this: "It is natural to wish for personal communication with great men. We are drawn to them as to a finer climate." We have here the explanation of his good success when meeting Emerson, compared with Mr. Howells's misfortune, frankly reported in the latter's 'Reminiscences.' Emerson opened like a flower to the ingenuous youth coming to him for guidance, and shut up like an oyster to the merely curious. Mr. Albee's account of his "Day with Emerson" and what naturally followed is very pleasing, with its side-glance at Thoreau parching corn for Emerson's children and watching its explosive energy with something similar of his own. He carried away a great deal from his first interview, and was so wise as to write down much of it and keep it until now. But his second chapter, "Emerson's Influence on the Young Men of his Time," is more important, and has quite as much of what Emerson called "the subjective twinkle." There are some good anecdotes—a few that we have heard before, but so good that they are welcome guests. Higginson or Howells has told us of the man who missed hearing Emerson's Phi Beta address, and said "it was better to miss Emerson than to hear any one else." Mr. Albee tells of the religious enthusiast who said that if some one had not written the New Testament, he should. This is as good as anything in Emerson's 'Historic Notes of Life and Letters in New England.' But Mr. Albee uses the story to illustrate the attitude of young men towards Emerson, like Emerson's towards Montaigne, of whom he said that when he first read him he felt as if he had written the book. How Emerson's quotations were requoted and bred the habit of quotation is a point well made.

"Emerson as an Essayist," Mr. Albee's third chapter, is confined for the most part to the two volumes of Essays published in 1841 and 1844. It is a careful and discriminating study, and by no means unmixed praise. It is lamented that Emerson was always fragmentary and never built his polished stones into a noble house. Mr. Albee seems to depreciate too much when he says that the perfection of Emerson's style did not go beyond the sentence. Certainly there are passages, and not a few, that are as perfect as his most perfect sentences. It would appear that Mr. Albee has sometimes written with Emerson's indifference to the agreement of his utterances within the limits of a single essay. In one place he says that he can "still faintly detect" in the Essays "the air of the lecture-room." In another place he blames those who make this criticism, and says that it certainly does not correspond to "any resemblances [in the Essays] to writing which we know was prepared for public delivery." Mr. Emerson's son Edward, who contributes several notes, states that his father was extremely fond of old-fashioned eloquence and of imitating its spoken form. But we know that his three great speeches were Lincoln's at Gettysburg, John Brown's when sentenced, and one of Kossuth's; and only the last could have had the fine last-century ring. Mr. E. W. Emerson has also a mistaken date, 1856, for his father's "entering the lists with the black giant knight Webster." Webster died in 1852. In 1854 Emerson reviewed his course in an elaborate anti-slavery address, but it was in 1851 that he attacked the living man at Cambridge (where he was hissed down) and elsewhere, saying, "Every drop of blood in his veins has eyes that look down."

Varieties and Synonymes of Surnames and Christian Names in Ireland. By Robert E. Matheson, Registrar General. Dublin: Thom & Co. 94 pp.

This is a Government pamphlet "for the guidance of Registration officers and the public in searching the indexes of births, deaths, and marriages." It has a value and importance beyond its modest appearance, and will be of interest to all attached to genealogical pursuits, especially in relation to Ireland. The orthographic changes in prefixes and affixes are discussed and illustrated, and the more important ones arising from the translation of Irish into English names, and vice versa. There are then mutations in letters, abbreviations, spelling according to pronunciation, local and family variations in spelling and form, added to changes owing to illiteracy. The most interesting passages are those in which are treated the simple translations into English meaning of Irish names. How little aware are thousands of Irishmen in the case of the names Bird, Black, Fox, Green, Hunt, Little, Long, Waters, and White, that they are in truth the descendants of Gaelic Heanys, Duffs, Shanahans, Huneens, Fehoneys, Beggs, Fadhas, Toorishes. Confusion becomes worse confounded when we find children born in wedlock called by the mother's surname, and members of the same family spelling their names differently. Registrars report extraordinary tergiversations. "In the same family the father was known as Cue, the son signs himself Hue, and two deceased children used to sign themselves MacCue." Few would recognize "Armstrongs" as being originally "Laverys," yet the change is simple enough. "Lavery" is a corruption of *lav*, a hand. The Lavery family is a large one in some districts. Some are distinguished as "*Trin*-Laverys"—"*Strong*-Laverys." The transition to Armstrong is easy.

Two-thirds of the booklet is devoted to a list of 2,091 of the principal surnames in use in Ireland, and over 6,000 of their principal synonyms. Under "Smith" we not only find "Smeeth," "Smyth," and "Smythe," but various forms of "Gawa," the Irish for a smith—"Goan," "Going," "Gow," "Gowan," "Magough," "McCona," "McGivney," "McGowan," "O'Gowan." Truly the path of the explorer in Irish genealogies can be no easy one. A perusal of these pages led us to refer to one of the letter files in most approved use in stores and offices in this country for some suggestion as to the comparative place the pure Irish "O's" have attained in the commercial life of America. We found that out of 150 alphabetical openings but one is allotted to "O," while there are three to German "Sch's." But how many who are not now "O's" or "Macs" are likely to be so in blood!

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, F. U. The Kidnapped Millionaires. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co.
Brooks, Asa P. Aldea. F. Tennyson Neely Co.
Cheney, Warren. The Flight of Helen, and Other Poems. San Francisco: Elder & Shepard.
Delannoy, Burford. "£19,000." R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Field, Eugene. A Little Book of "Tribune" Verse. Denver: Tandy, Wheeler & Co. $1.50.
Gunton, George, and Robbins, Hayes. Outlines of Political Science. D. Appleton & Co.
Hallam, J. C. The Story of a European Tour. Sioux City: Perkins Bros. Co.
Joyce, John A. Edgar Allan Poe. F. Tennyson Neely Co.
Lane, Elinor M. Mills of God. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Mighels, P. V. The Chrystal Sceptre. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.50.
Pickard, Florie W. The Ides of March. F. Tennyson Neely Co. $1.25.
Royal Academy Pictures, 1901. Cassell & Co. $3.00.
Shiel, M. P. The Lord of the Sea. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
When a Witch is Young. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.50.
Wilcox, Ella Wheeler. Every-Day Thoughts. W. B. Conkey Co.
Zelcoe, Louis B. Abandoned. F. Tennyson Neely Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 18, 1901.

The Week.

A step toward tariff settlement with Russia has been taken by the Russian Government, which has offered to rescind its action raising the duties on American iron and steel goods and machinery if we will rescind the differential on Russian sugar. Secretary Gage has replied that, since the sugar differential is now in the hands of the courts, this condition cannot be met by the executive branch of the Government. It would certainly be very awkward, but perhaps not impossible in a legal sense, for the United States as plaintiff in a lawsuit to withdraw its action. Nobody could recommend such a step, however much he might have been opposed to the differential in the first instance. Nor, taking a broad view of the matter, does it seem desirable that the case should be arrested at the present stage. We need to know what the law and the facts are in order that we may take intelligent measures for the future. We have suffered far more injury in this episode than we have inflicted. We did not intend to inflict an injury, but we went forward in the old-fashioned way, assuming apparently that we could do anything we liked in respect of foreign trade, without getting "a lick back." We have made a mistake this time, and it may turn out to be good for us.

One bright dream the steel strike has put an end to, and that is the vision which certain promoters have seen of the Trust as the cure-all for labor troubles. We all know what their reasoning was. You were to group industries into combinations so vast that labor unions could not think of measuring swords with them. And, of course, you were to have your huge corporations managed by men so wise and just that they never would give workingmen cause of complaint, and so the strike would become as obsolete as a Roman toga. The union of bigness and benevolence in the Trust was to bring about a kind of earthly paradise for both capital and labor. Well, we see now that it does not work that way. A tremendous combination of capital fairly invites, we may almost say (human nature being what it is) forces, a tremendous combination of labor. That is exactly what the Amalgamated Association officials at Pittsburgh are saying. "The manufacturers are refusing us the right which they themselves exercised in forming their combination," asserts Treasurer Williams. This may not be the strict truth. We think it is not, so far as we can make out the conflicting statements about what is really meant by "unionizing" a mill. But we have to take laboring men as they are, prone to excitement and exaggeration, not always reasonable or scrupulous; and, being such, they show that the great Trust, far from being the extinguisher of strikes, may prove provocative of them on an enormous scale.

The decision of the striking machinists at Cincinnati to return to work probably marks the collapse of the strike, which began in the latter part of May, for President O'Connell of the Machinists' Union admits that Cincinnati was regarded as the centre of the contest. Reports of the abandonment of the strike by many of the smaller branches, at Newport News, Baltimore, and elsewhere, have been accumulating for some time. The aim of it was to secure a nine-hour day. "We believe that a shortening of the working hours or an increase of wages," said the Metal Trades Association, a body of employers, "can only be brought about by the hearty coöperation of employer and employee in advancing and not retarding production, and in introducing and not fighting improved methods"—a sound doctrine, to which the machinists' leaders, however, paid no heed. The International Union of Machinists made an agreement, about a year ago, with the National Metal Trades Association of manufacturers, which was intended to cover all relationships between the employers and the machinists. This agreement provided for arbitration of disputes, in order to avoid the mutual losses involved in strikes and lockouts. The strike for a nine-hour day was made in defiance of this agreement, and accordingly the Metal Trades Association not only strengthened itself to resist the demands of the strikers, but met in convention in this city and issued a statement declaring that the Machinists' Union had shown itself "an irresponsible body," incapable of making a binding contract, and declining in the future to deal with the union in any manner whatsoever. The folly of the leaders of the machinists has resulted in a useless strike of nearly two months' duration, in the depletion of the treasury of the union, in suffering for the members, and in distrust and disapproval of the leaders on the part of the public. No incident in the recent history of strikes furnishes a more solemn warning to self-respecting workingmen.

It is still too early to say exactly how great is the damage done to this season's corn crop by the hot wave which is still scorching the agricultural West. The monthly estimate of condition, published last week by the Government, is of little value; it is based on returns of July 1, before the worst of the drought had come. On the basis of those figures a crop of average size was indicated. If it is true, as the trade now estimates, that upwards of two hundred million bushels have been ruined since July 1, the total yield would be the smallest since the crop failure of 1894. Unless the adverse conditions continue, however, the low figures of that unlucky year will hardly be reached. The corn crop of 1894 fell to 1,212,000,000 bushels, as against two billion bushels only three years before. But the destruction in the Missouri valley corn-belt has certainly not yet been as severe as that of 1894; and, furthermore, the planted area of corn this season has run at least ten million acres beyond that of seven years ago. There remains, also, the very cheering fact, to which both Government and trade returns bear witness, that the wheat crop, most of which is assured already, will in all probability far exceed any recorded in our history.

The salient fact of the foreign trade returns for the fiscal year, which the Government published on Sunday, is, of course, the movement of export trade, which shows an increase of $93,000,000 over 1900, and of $260,000,000 over 1899. It was more than double the total of any of the six years 1884-1889, and three times as great as the exports recorded in any fiscal year before 1883. It is exceeded in the returns of outside countries only by Great Britain, and if the figures of foreign merchandise reëxported are eliminated from the shipments of both countries, our exports surpass even those of England. Against the $1,460,000,000 shipments of purely domestic products from the United States, in the past fiscal year, stand total domestic exports from Great Britain, in its trade year ending December 31—the largest in its history—of $1,455,000,000. Further examination of the American returns develops another interesting point—that the whole increase over the fiscal year 1900 has been in products of agriculture. The gain in this branch of our exports has been $99,500,000; so that shipments of other than agricultural commodities must have decreased some six million dollars. This, however, is not unexpected or surprising. It was hardly to be expected that, with Europe's industrial markets undergoing severe reaction from their recent "boom," they would buy as much as before from us. This slackening of foreign demand gave the foreign manufacturers a chance to supply their own requirements as they could not do before. The fact is, that

our manufactured export trade, all circumstances considered, has held its own in a marvellous degree. Full classified returns for the fiscal year are not yet published; but, for the eleven months ending May 31, the total exports of manufactures had decreased only $14,500,000, and the exports of iron and steel goods barely half a million.

There must be some awful mistake in the figures of the Bureau of Navigation reporting American shipbuilding for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1901. What's this—1,178 vessels built, of 401,000 gross tons: a total tonnage surpassed only twice in our whole history? Why, this cannot be. It has been proved, again and again, that ships cannot be built in the United States without a subsidy; so how extremely imprudent in the Commissioner of Navigation to declare that they are being built in greater numbers than for many years. This is very near giving Hanna the lie direct, and we think that the Commissioner should be removed at once. Certainly "the good of the service" would seem to require such a step, or else the violent shutting-up of the shipyards whose owners are insolent enough to build ships after Frye had conclusively demonstrated to them that they could not do it. Anyhow, it is a comfort to know that the Subsidy Bill will be pushed next winter. Depew has said that he will ignore the ships and the facts, and declare again that all our yards will rot and our flag disappear from the ocean unless subsidies be granted. The greater the number of ships built without a subsidy, the more powerful the argument for the subsidy. But, really, the figures themselves ought to be suppressed.

That "foothold" of ours in the Orient is getting terribly encumbered with foreign goods. In fact, according to the latest official statement of Philippine trade, we seem to be standing in Manila knee-deep in English and German and French imports. Take iron and steel manufactures, for example. The United States shipped to the Philippines $136,000 worth during 1900, but England sold $660,000, Germany $249,000, and France $133,000 during the same time. Can it be that the wicked foreigner has begun his horrid work of "dumping" right there on our foothold? Surely the glee with which Briton and Gaul and Teuton have rushed in through our open door in the Philippines is enough to make our protectionists rise up in wrathful demand for slamming it full in their faces. Senator Beveridge will have to see to this. It will never do for him to let that "coign of vantage" for American trade in the East, which he so eloquently described, that "stepping-stone" to the wealth of China, be thus preëmpted by rude foreigners. How can we get off our stepping-stone if we are pinned flat to it by a deluge of foreign goods?

The corporations subject to the franchise tax in Buffalo and Rochester have, it is said, decided to pay it, under a stipulation that they may recover the amount if the Court of Appeals decides that the tax is unconstitutional. This is the tax bill passed while Gov. Roosevelt was in the Executive chair, and mainly through his energy and persistence. If its constitutionality is sustained by the Court of Appeals, it will go far toward making the State independent of the counties in the matter of revenues. It will "stand pat" with Gov. Odell's new tax bills, which, according to reports from Albany, will bring $2,200,000 to the State Treasury in addition to the sum now received from the corporation tax. The work of emancipating the State Treasury from dependence on the counties must go on till it is accomplished, and then local option in the matter of taxes can begin. This can be brought about both by curtailing the State's expenses, and by augmenting its receipts; in the former way preferably. Gov. Odell has encouragingly started both systems, and it is safe to assume that he will not stop while any unnecessary expense can be lopped off, or any available source of needed revenue can be found.

Bull-fighting has been started at South Omaha, Neb., on a new plan, under which the bull is provoked, but not hurt, while the man is hurt, but not provoked. The performers are brought from Mexico, where the sport goes on in the true Spanish fashion. When the show was opened at South Omaha, the public expected bloodshed and hair-breadth escapes, ending in the goring of a horse and the killing of the bull. When they found that it was a make-believe bull fight, in which the only serious actor was the bull himself, they were disgusted and stayed away. Later, new zest was added to the entertainment. The bull, who did not enjoy the fun, or perhaps enjoyed it too well, caught the toreador on his horns, tore his breast open, and threw him about forty feet, whereupon the newspapers and the respectable portion of the community cried out that bull-fighting was a sin and a shame, and ought to be suppressed, and the toreadors and matadors said that they would never have come to Omaha at all if they had known that they were not allowed to defend themselves against the enraged bulls. The new turn given to the show by the bull has created fresh excitement, and filled the grounds with a crowd eager to see somebody or something hurt, the Governor of Nebraska leading the procession. The newspapers and the decent people are more insistent than before that the show shall be abolished. They are right. This kind of bull-fighting is an "entering wedge" for the real Spanish blood-spilling game. If it is allowed to go on, it will end in real combats of men and beasts as a public spectacle and a money-making venture.

The Sultan of Turkey, like the unjust judge of Scripture, has at last done for "continual coming" what he would not do for mere justice. Relays of American Ministers have for six years been politely but pressingly asking him when he was going to pay that little bill, and finally, out of sheer weariness apparently, he has paid it. There is much wise debating over the question who deserves the credit for this result. Let us set it down to American patience and persistence, and have done with it. Secretary Hay steadily urged the righteous claim, and Messrs. Angell, Straus, Griscom, and Leishman presented it again and again, until at last even Turkish stolidity gave way and the money was forthcoming. There has been nothing spectacular about this method, no heroics, no taking the ruffian by the throat; but the business got done, and that, after all, is the chief end of diplomacy. It is triumph enough to have squeezed money out of a chronic bankrupt. Even the missionaries, who have been not a little impatient with the Government for not collecting their damages by means of a bombardment, must now see that the ways of pleasantness and peace have been better. The money is in hand, and there is no blood on it.

The abuse of advertising by signs and posters has raised up in England a Society for Checking the Abuses of Public Advertising, the work of which is interestingly described in Monday's *Tribune*. In a word, the Society found that the system, which works so admirably in France, of imposing a stamp tax on all posted advertisements, was impracticable in England. Instead, they worked to secure a general bill, which gave the local authorities full powers to regulate, restrict, or prohibit advertising that challenges attention in a public way. Many towns immediately adopted restrictive legislation. Dover has taken the lead, requiring a license for all advertisements which are not contained within a window, and for all vehicles chiefly used for advertising purposes, while absolutely forbidding all sky signs. London, Glasgow, Manchester, and many of the smaller towns have passed regulations covering various abuses, such as transparencies, electric flash signs, and sky signs, and regulating the size of the letters permissible in a poster. Everywhere a praiseworthy public spirit has been shown in this matter, and it may reasonably be hoped that England will eventually be as free from this disfigurement as, say, France or Belgium. What has been accomplished in

England is certainly possible here, where, in fact, reform should be easier; for we have a more strongly pronounced collective sense, and a less exaggerated idea of individual rights.

The London *Daily News*, whose splendid fight against the South African war and Chamberlainism is rapidly making it extremely offensive to the English Jingoes and Imperialists, recently printed a highly effective parallel of the views of the London *Times* on the Cuban situation in 1896, and on that in South Africa in 1901. In the former year (November 13) it found American discontent with the prevailing conditions in Cuba justified, since there was no indication that Spain could restore order in a reasonable time, although she had put forth disproportionate efforts to overcome a small population, to the menace of her Treasury. The failure of these efforts it deemed inexplicable, and the gravity of the situation, it felt, could not be denied. On November 30, 1896, the *Times* again expressed its grave anxieties as to the outcome of the operations in Cuba. It was absurd, it said, to conduct operations there against guerrillas as one would against a regular army, particularly when the commissariat was defective and the exhausted troops fell an easy prey to disease. It scored the policy of concentration, now so popular in South Africa, as defeating its own ends, and thought that, "since the sympathies of a sparse population are of considerable importance, some pains ought surely to be taken to avoid unnecessary provocation." It does not need the *Daily News's* substitution of England for Spain, Weyler for Kitchener, and rebels for Boers, to make all this, and more, too, apply to the existing situation in South Africa in the most deadly and truthful way.

Moreover, while the *Times* thought the Cubans were wise in avoiding pitched battles, it now denounces the Boers as skulkers for playing the same game. It excuses English generals for not knowing that the Boers would not stand up and fight, where it condemned Weyler for similar ignorance in regard to his adversaries. It was a matter of course for the Cubans to wreck trains, but for the Boers to do so is to put themselves "beyond the pale of civilization." No wonder that the *Daily News* cries out against this warping of a once cool judgment by a false patriotism, and thinks that, if the *Times* and other "patriotic" organs could write with a little detachment about South Africa, there would be an extraordinary awakening. Unfortunately, the *Times* is not the only victim of a distorted vision when its own country is the sinner. The record of our own Administration organs on the subject of free Cuba would still less bear the deadly parallel.

British and French naval authorities seem to be engaged just now in a match of self-depreciation. While Lord Charles Beresford, always a pessimist on the subject of admiralty preparation, has been doing his best to create the public impression that the Mediterranean Squadron, of which he is second in command, is in a desperate condition of unreadiness, without a proper supply of guns, men, ammunition, or torpedo-boats and almost at the mercy of French or other possible antagonists, Admiral Dupont, one of the most prominent of French naval officers, has been uttering an almost precisely similar jeremiad over the state of the French fleet, which he appears to regard as ripe for destruction. The Mediterranean division, he admits, is in fairly good shape, but the Channel Squadron is composed of a lot of slow and obsolete old tubs, whose obliteration would be, for England, amusement for a summer's holiday, so to speak. He wants all the French forces concentrated in the Mediterranean, where Toulon and Bizerta, he says, will some day reply victoriously to Malta and Gibraltar. Both officers, of course, would be intensely indignant if any foreigner dared to speak so disrespectfully of their national armaments, and both are animated by the same object, the procurement of larger naval appropriations. Meanwhile the responsible Ministers on both sides profess to be very well contented with things as they are.

That scores of German soldiers who served in the Chinese contingent are returning to the Fatherland in irons probably signifies more than that German discipline is strict. It tells a story, which will probably never be wholly revealed, of atrocities towards the Chinese which could not be ignored, of the reawakening of the brute in the civilized man, of a rage for slaughter which saw everywhere, often in the feeble and inoffensive, a foe. War has never been a pretty business, and it appears that the Germans steered not quite a golden middle course between the self-restraint of the Japanese and the frank bestiality of the Russians. Perhaps nothing better was to be expected of an expedition whose *Dieu le veut* was the Kaiser's "Attila" speech. But those Germans and admirers of Germany who remember the time when that nation stood preeminently for humane and liberal ideals, will hardly view the spectacle with complacency.

While the Russification of Finland goes on apace, occasional proofs are given by the St. Petersburg authorities of a desire to respect the feelings, even the prejudices, of the Finns. The project of the Russian Minister of War for compulsory military service in Finland, with the complete absorption of Finnish conscripts in Russian regiments, has been negatived by the Council of Ministers. The measure is to be recast so as to call upon Finland for only the number of troops fixed by the Diet, to keep the native regiments intact, and to provide that any Russian officer appointed to a Finnish regiment must acquire Finnish citizenship. This is a wise concession, though it amounts to only a light counterweight to the general overriding of what the Finns supposed to be their constitutional rights, to the remodelling of their schools and the suppression of their newspapers.

The recently formed Ministry of the Viscount Katsura, in Japan, faces financial difficulties of a peculiar sort. The previous Ministry had withdrawn because the Minister of Finance had refused to borrow for the prosecution of public works, thereby virtually admitting that the Government's borrowing power was exhausted, and threatening to increase taxation. As a matter of fact, the borrowing power of Japan is much impaired. Last year the attempt to float a loan of eighteen million yen was unsuccessful, and 5 per cent. consols, which have stood as high as 105, were recently quoted at 90. When such a condition exists, despite general prosperity and in the face of revenues which during the past ten years have increased from 85,000,000 to 201,000,000 yen, one can only surmise that the Treasury organization has some radical defect, or that Finance Ministers have recklessly assumed too heavy burdens.

A writer for the London *Times* finds in the neglect to encourage the investment of foreign capital the source of Japan's financial difficulties. Most hospitable to foreign ideas, successive Governments have maintained a policy of financial exclusiveness. They have attempted the almost impossible task of renovating with their own capital the machinery of an old civilization in a single generation. When one remembers the part that foreign capital has played in the development of our own country, and conjectures our condition to-day if that aid had been rejected, he can readily imagine the present case of "the Yankees of the East." In the view of the *Times* contributor, there is no more promising field for foreign investment than Japan, where railroad preferred stocks pay 10 per cent. and the best banks 7. All that is necessary is simplification of the present commercial laws, and legislation favorable to the formation of corporations by foreigners. Unless it is possible largely to increase taxation—always a perilous measure—this policy of friendliness towards the foreign investor is clearly indicated for the new Premier and his associates.

THE STEEL STRIKE.

The troubles between the United States Steel Corporation and subordinate companies, on the one hand, and the Amalgamated Association of Iron, Steel and Tin Workers on the other, have proved an unwelcome surprise to the public, which had hoped for a summer free from such controversies. But, notoriously, it is in a period of general prosperity, such as the country is now enjoying, that demands on the part of workingmen are most urgent and strikes to secure better terms are most likely. The point at issue in the present dispute is virtually the recognition of the union. "Only one question," said T. J. Shaffer, President of the Amalgamated Association, at Pittsburgh, on July 10, "will come before the conference with the representatives of the steel companies Thursday, and that is the one of unionism. We will ask that our wage scales be signed for all the mills in the respective companies, instead of in some of them." In the past there have been agreements between the Amalgamated Association and employers controlling many of the largest mills where the Association was recognized, by which a scale of wages was amicably agreed upon for application to those mills. In a number of cases the same wages have been paid by other employers who had non-union workingmen. Now the Association wants to have one rule formally applied to all.

The conference proved a failure. If the strike just ordered in consequence involves anything like the 140,000 men which, it is asserted, will be eventually affected by it, it will entail, even at this time of the year, much hardship, suffering, and loss. Public regret will be the more general because the strike seems to have been ordered by the officers of the Amalgamated Association in an effort to force the steel manufacturers to adopt a course which would be cruel toward many of their employees and humiliating to themselves. The public has no other means of judging than the statements given out by President Shaffer and by the officers of the steel companies, and on the face of these it appears that, upon the only vital point, the labor men offered no concessions whatever, taking their stand, from the beginning to the end of the conference, stolidly for compulsory unionizing by the companies of mills where the employees do not desire to join the Association. In order to avoid a strike, the manufacturers offered to unionize some of the mills not now working under the union scale though paying the union rate of wages, but this was not accepted; and, as the labor men on their part offered nothing except a slight concession relating to the scale, which was not in controversy, and a vague promise of immunity for the steel mills in possible future labor disputes, the conference broke up.

The sole justification which President Shaffer is able to offer for the course adopted by the labor men is the charge that the union mills are discriminated against by the combination of manufacturers, that the union mills are operated only when the demand for the steel products is greater than the non-union mills can supply. This is an assertion by one party to a dispute, and it is denied by the opposing party; but even if it were true, it does not appear that a strike is the most appropriate remedy to bring about a cure. The means which would be most effective, and also the most just, would be persuasion. To this end the Association had the promise of non-interference on the part of the manufacturers, and assistance to the extent of permitting Association organizers to enter the mills for the purpose. There is no reason to believe that an extension of the union organization and influence is likely to result from a strike of this nature, which in the beginning cannot command public approval or even sympathy.

The only hopeful feature of the present situation lies in the statement of President Shaffer that there will be no "trouble," by which he doubtless means violence. The men, he says, are more readily controlled than they were twenty-five years ago, or even five years ago. It is most earnestly to be hoped that this is true, and that the leaders of the Amalgamated Association will remember the price their organization was obliged to pay nine years ago as a result of the violence and bloodshed of the Homestead strike.

If we seek for the remoter causes of the strike, we shall perhaps find them in what the workingmen look upon as the necessities of Wall Street. They see a vast accumulation of shares in the market whose selling value depends upon the daily outturn of a product; that is, upon their labor. They think that the capitalists who preside over the companies cannot afford to let the quotations fall, and hence that the latter will yield the point in dispute, which is not a question of wages, rather than see the price of their securities fall. In other words, they think that this is an opportunity to compel the managers of the property to unionize the entire steel combination—an opportunity which has never occurred before, and, if not availed of now, may never come again.

The significance of the step is that, if the company yields this point, it must yield the next one, which will be a question of wages. The company is able to defend itself now by using non-union labor, but, when all the mills are unionized, it will not have this resource. Then it will be compelled to sign scales made by President Shaffer, although its competitors, the small companies and private manufacturers, may be working with non-union labor, and perhaps at lower wages than the scale of the Amalgamated Association. It appears to us that in allowing the Association to unionize all the mills if it can, the company has gone as far as prudence will allow, and that if it should take the step of forcing its employees into the union, it would commit self-destruction and forfeit public sympathy at the same time.

When the United States Steel Company was formed, we took occasion to point out the dangers which so gigantic a combination involved—the unsettlement of men's minds and the spread of socialistic ideas which it would almost certainly bring about. Flinging millions into the air is always an unsafe experiment. It causes a scramble, turns people's heads, makes some persons crazy, and upsets, among others, the habits of old-fashioned industry and economy as the means of livelihood. "Why should we toil and sweat for a bare subsistence when others make fabulous riches by a stroke of the pen?" is the question which thousands of men ask themselves. The steel combination was an incentive and an inducement to a labor combination, and if we get off with nothing worse than a labor strike, we may perhaps consider ourselves lucky. No doubt the promoters of the steel combination were themselves controlled by events. So, too, President Shaffer may say that he has been controlled by them. It is to be hoped, however, that some other mode of settlement of the conflict may be found than that of the endurance of pain which must be the lot of thousands, if not millions, of poor men, women, and children.

AN AMERICAN ALDERSHOT.

If Secretary Root succeeds in creating an American Aldershot at Fort Leavenworth or Fort Riley, he will have achieved a reform in the professional education of the army which, together with his introduction of the interchangeable line and staff system, will make his administration famous in the history of the War Department. In brief, his plan is to utilize the great military reservations at those posts for the annual assembling of a sufficient number of troops of all branches of the service to practise brigade and division movements, that line and staff officers may become familiar with the difficulties attendant upon the handling of thousands of men in the field and in the presence of an enemy. How radical a departure this will be may be gleaned from the fact that, during the twenty years preceding the Spanish war, there were only two attempts to have manœuvres on a large scale—one under Gen. Brooke in 1886, and the other under Gen. Miles near Chicago in 1894 with the troops which had suppressed the railroad riots in that city.

In other words, the great majority of

the officers who took part in the Santiago campaign had probably never seen a brigade or division drill, except those of them whose service dated back to the civil war. That the hastily constituted brigades and divisions which made up Shafter's corps held together before Santiago, is due to the simple nature of the offensive campaign undertaken, and also to the native intelligence and intuition of the American officer. It is true that, before the Spanish war, the Cavalry School at Fort Riley, the Infantry and Cavalry School at Fort Leavenworth, and the Artillery School at Fort Monroe had done much to give officers a post-graduate course in the theory of their respective arms of the service. But opportunities for the practical carrying out of these teachings were so few and far between as to quite account for the mistakes and blunders made even by regular army officers when it became necessary to mobilize large bodies of absolutely raw and untrained troops in the spring of 1898. Gen. Wherry has recently called fresh attention to the fact that, when Shafter's troops arrived on the docks at Tampa, only one officer knew to which ship each regiment was assigned, and that he was indistinguishable among 10,000 men. Yet all the officers concerned in the direction of this movement were regulars. There could be no better illustration than this of the helplessness of theoretically trained soldiers when brought face to face with a great practical problem in logistics.

Even at West Point, the education of cadets was, until a couple of years ago, confined wholly to the "bookish theoretic" and the unending repetition of company and battalion drills, without practical value except for the creation of drill-masters who could teach the a b c of a modern soldier's education. If grand-guard mountings, field reconnoissances, attacks and defence, etc., were not taught there, how could it be expected that one should find eager instructors in the few Far Western posts where whole regiments were stationed? The Indian campaigns provided the necessary training to make men good scouts, hardy and untiring, able to strike a trail and follow it for months, if necessary, as Lawton did in Arizona. But it was only the few officers sent abroad as military attachés who realized the one-sidedness and incompleteness of the regular army's education, and who, together with some intelligent students and thinkers among the younger officers, started those beginnings of reform which had just made themselves felt before the call to a foreign campaign came.

Such officers as did get an insight into European methods brought back stories of soldiers who were put through a regular military curriculum, beginning with the rifle, and passing through company, battalion, regimental, brigade, division, and even army corps drills, before a final experience in the great fall manœuvres, where generals learn to handle 40,000 or 50,000 men under conditions as closely approximating war as possible—all this in the course of one year. It is needless to say that so elaborate a system is neither possible nor desirable here. But as we have an army, common sense and economy demand that it should know its business in order that the people may get their money's worth; and Secretary Root is only doing his "plain duty" when he plans for a camp which shall serve to bring together five or ten or fifteen thousand regulars, and perhaps some militia, too, for the advanced military training which can be acquired in no other way.

Only through such practice-camps can officers be tried out and the real commanders discovered. Nearly all of the twenty-two line generals of our army never drilled a brigade before receiving their commissions. Such a camp as Secretary Root proposes would enable candidates for the highest positions to show some other fitness than political pulls and skill in getting the ear of the President or of some Senator. Similarly, the fitness of junior officers could well be reported on by their superiors after three months of constant drilling, marching, and manœuvring.

The fact that all the second lieutenants and many of the first lieutenants of regulars have just been chosen from volunteer officers of no original military schooling makes the question of the education of the army a pressing one, particularly as this same class of men has furnished the eight or nine offenders who are now in Manila jails for plain and vulgar stealing. Lord Wolseley recently said that the American army is "the best of its size in the world." To have spoken more accurately he should have said, "has in its upper commissioned grades and in its ranks the best material in the world." Whether that material shall be well digested and rounded into the best possible shape depends entirely upon the War Department. Secretary Root's plan is a long step in the proper direction, and will repay its cost a thousand-fold, whether the army be 25,000 or 75,000 men.

BRYANISM IN OHIO.

In the Ohio Democratic Convention last week a resolution to reaffirm the Kansas City platform and express renewed confidence in William J. Bryan received only six votes in a body composed of 959 delegates. The significance of this vote can be best understood by reading, in connection with it, an article published in Mr. Bryan's paper, the *Commoner*, only three weeks ago, the gist of which is embraced in the following paragraph:

"Do not allow a man to be placed upon any committee—precinct, county, State, or national—unless he is a believer in the Kansas City platform. If a man opposed to the Kansas City platform is sent as a delegate to any convention, he should be bound by instructions, and should have associated with him a sufficient majority who are sound on the platform. If a man objects to instructions, leave him at home; no Democratic delegate will object to an expression from the voters whom he seeks to represent."

The Kansas City platform embraces a variety of things, but it is not difficult to analyze it and learn what the Ohio Democracy intended to condemn. The two main planks in it were those opposing the policy of the Administration in the Philippines, and the one endorsing the free coinage of silver. Now the Ohio Democrats have adhered to the principles of the Kansas City plank regarding the colonial policy of the Government, making only such changes as the progress of events requires. They oppose any extensions of our national boundaries which are not meant to carry speedily to all the inhabitants the same civil and political rights that we enjoy. The Ohio platform in this particular is in harmony with the address of the Anti-Imperialist League which was issued on Independence Day of the present year. The Convention had an excellent send-off in the speech of Chairman Salen. Some exception may be taken to his remarks on the subject of Trusts as being too vague, but on the questions of foreign conquest and the government of subject races by a free people he gave no uncertain sound. He denounced the system of crown colonies and the subjugation of unwilling peoples, whether undertaken by the British in South Africa or by Americans in the Philippines. He gave an ideal picture of an orderly and just republic, governed by the principles of freedom handed down to us by the fathers, seeking no man's blood, and no man's money except through the avenues of peaceful commerce, setting an example of equality of all men before the law and of equal opportunity in the race of life. Such, he contended, was the ideal of the Democratic party, and the one which it sought to introduce, instead of the present policy of foreign domination and exploitation, a policy tending to weaken our attachment to the principles which gave us birth as a nation, and to embroil us with foreign Powers. If the Democratic party could be keyed up to the pitch of Mr. Salen's speech, it would deserve success.

The other main plank of the Kansas City platform was in the following words:

"We reaffirm and endorse the principles of the national Democratic platform adopted in Chicago in 1896, and we reiterate the demand in that platform for an American financial system made by the American people for themselves, which shall restore and maintain a bimetallic price level, and, as part of such system, the immediate restoration of the free and unlimited coinage of silver at the present legal ratio of 16 to 1,

without waiting for the consent of any other nation."

This plank the Ohio Democracy refused, by an overwhelming majority, to reaffirm, Mr. Bryan's exhortations notwithstanding.

When we reflect that the Ohio Democrats, from the days of Old Bill Allen to those of Bryan himself, have been perhaps the most determined and incorrigible advocates of cheap money, soft money, and "poor man's money" in the whole country, the significance of this action can be properly appreciated. It means that the Democratic party of the nation has at last definitively abandoned Bryanism, and is to be reorganized, not by a change of committeemen and stump speakers, but by the deliberate dropping of a played-out issue and candidates. This kind of reorganization is feasible, because it represents the thoughts and feelings of the voters. It is not a scheme or an intrigue. It is not the result of wire-pulling. If the truth could be told by the leaders at Kansas City last year, they would say that the sentiment of the party was then in favor of throwing silver overboard, and that this would have been done if Mr. Bryan had not insisted upon keeping it as an issue. They could not do without Mr. Bryan as a candidate, and they were obliged to take him on his own terms. In this respect they stood toward him very much as they did toward Mr. Cleveland in 1892. The candidate made the platform in both instances, but the consequences at the polls were somewhat different.

The Ohio Convention has sounded the keynote for the Democratic party in the Union. The South has long desired to get rid of silver as an issue in national politics. The Eastern wing of the party has been all the time against silver. If we look for a Bryan contingent in the next national Convention, we shall not find one, unless perhaps in the silver-mining States. The Silver Republicans must now abandon their own organization and come back as individuals to their former party allegiance, or go out of politics altogether. Silver need not be reckoned with hereafter on the floor of Congress or in any national campaign. The country has much cause for rejoicing over this event. The battle has been long, and at times almost desperate, and the Democrats have not been the only ones at fault.

ENGLISH PARTIES AND THE WAR.

The healing of the deadly wound in English Liberalism on July 9 was evidently accomplished only in the sense that a large poultice was ostentatiously spread over it. A real cure remains to be effected, if, indeed, the hurt is not immedicable. Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman's tactics were, however, sufficiently clever. Knowing that Mr. Asquith and Sir Edward Grey and their handful of Adullamites were in no condition to challenge his leadership, he craftily came down on them with a demand that they either give him a vote of renewed confidence or else set up for themselves. Of course, they immediately vowed that Sir Henry had no more loyal followers than themselves, and so all was at once outward harmony, though the internal and bitter differences remain precisely what they were.

It is obviously the Boer war which has been the temporary undoing of the Liberals. War, we may say, is always a political disaster to the Radical party, to the party of social reform and progressive democracy. It was the Napoleonic wars which kept the Whigs hopelessly out of power for a generation, and made Pitt and Canning and Wellington masters of the destinies of England. And it was no chance assemblage of words which the forefathers of the present English Liberals placed upon their banners when they began the fight to recover political supremacy—namely, "Peace, Retrenchment, and Reform." All these are connected, and peace necessarily stands first. You never can get the people to fix their minds intently upon domestic problems until the powder-smoke of a foreign war blows out of their eyes. It was during the time of furled flags and silent drums that the Liberal party rose to power and wrought its beneficent work; and until England knows a settled peace again, there is little prospect of a Liberal revival.

That Mr. Gladstone ruined the Liberal party by his bill for Irish Home Rule in 1886, is now a part of the current mythology of contemporary politics. It was a strange kind of ruin, out of which he was able to emerge with a majority in 1892. As well say that he ruined his party in 1874, though he returned triumphantly to power in 1880. But all that is a barren dispute. It certainly is not Irish Home Rule which rends the Liberal party to-day. And with that issue, or without it, what would not the Liberal party give for Gladstone now! It is safe to say that, if he and John Bright had stood in their places in Parliament in 1899, there either would have been no Boer war, or the Government that brought it on by its mistaken or malicious diplomacy would long ere this have been hurled from power. Even so virulent an opponent of Gladstone as the *Spectator*, now admits that the lack of a leader of his commanding qualities and high moral enthusiasm is what keeps the Liberal party low.

Say what men will, wars like that in the Transvaal and our own with Spain are political wars. The Boer war was a Conservative war, as Gen. Grosvenor truly warned the silly Democrats in Congress that the Spanish war would be a Republican war. There was, of course, in either case, a loud appeal to "patriotism," and much talk of sinking party differences at the water's edge; but the party in power saw to it that the war should intrench it in power. This is always the result of a foreign war. Voters being what they are, an Administration can never be turned out when it is able to charge its opponents with being enemies of the country. "A vote for the Liberals is a vote for the Boers," shrieks Mr. Chamberlain, and his analogous humbugs in this country have only to cry, " A vote for the Democrats is a vote for Aguinaldo," and the thing is done. The English Liberals were not so unspeakably stupid, on the eve of the Boer war, as our Democrats were on the verge of the war with Spain. They did not, that is, fairly drive their party opponents into a war which infallibly meant their own political destruction. But they were gravely at fault, from the standpoint of mere party strategy, for not having more stoutly opposed Chamberlain's tortuous diplomacy, and shown so strong a front that even Kruger could have seen that his best hope lay in the honorable purposes of English Liberalism, and not in his ultimatum—that blunder worse than a crime. Even Mr. Asquith has confessed the party's sins in this particular, and said with emphasis that the consent of the Liberals to the hushing up of the Jameson-raid scandal was an awful dereliction in public duty.

However this may be, it is the war which has laid the Liberals flat on their backs, and there is little hope of their getting up till peace comes. This is not saying that Lord Salisbury's Government is popular. Even the faithful London *Times* tells him that his Ministry is "justly" complained of for coming so far short of public expectations. There is something very like a Tory revolt. Members will not attend the House. On a critical division the other night the Government majority fell to 28. The Prime Minister urges his followers not to prefer dinner to staying in the House to vote for Government measures; but one of the said followers retorts that he was only imitating the "excellent example" of Lord Salisbury's own sons, and four other members of the Government, who left Mr. Balfour in the lurch. It is clear that, if the war were to end next week, the Government as it stands to-day could not live. Even the war cannot for ever save the Tories. If they are not able, with 200,000 men, to force the 15,000 remaining Boers to come to terms, English Jingoes themselves will soon insist upon bringing in a party to do better than that.

INDEPENDENCE DAY IN PORTO RICO.

SAN JUAN, July 9, 1901.

The Porto Rican may or may not have a capacity for democratic government, but his

capacity for innocent enjoyment is certainly as great as that of any other man. This year the Municipal Council of San Juan decided to celebrate the day of Saint John the Baptist, the patron saint of the city. The city is finding a little difficulty at present in paying salaries, it is true, and the old debt is being refunded as it matures, instead of being paid off, while the complaint of lack of work is not uncommon—but these are mere trifles when the celebration of a saint's day is in question. Saint John's Day comes on June 24. In order to get a fair start the fiesta was begun June 10, and, in order not to dismiss Saint John with unseemly haste, was carried over until the last day of June. When, towards the end of June, it was announced that the American Government had a little celebration of their own in reserve, the municipal fiesta was prolonged until the Fourth of July to avoid invidious distinctions between the saints of the Church and the signers of the Declaration of Independence. The fiesta, it is to be understood, was no common affair. A formal—and a printed—programme of amusements was provided for every day from the 10th of June on, and, to add the proper dash of abandon, the municipal ordinances were relaxed so that fakirs' booths sprang up all over the city, and the faro banks and roulette tables dropped for the time their customary pretence of concealment. Promptly, upon the 5th day of July, the booths were dismantled, and the gambling houses gave evidence of a delightful spirit of self-restraint and respect for the proprieties by putting up the accustomed screens.

With such an entirely adequate period of training, San Juan could scarcely help making the celebration of Independence Day a complete—and a replete—success. At nine in the morning there was an imposing parade; at ten, the Legislative Assembly convened in special session to pass the resolution that will make free trade between Porto Rico and the United States. In the afternoon there were patriotic speeches and appropriate exercises at the theatre, a regatta, a reception by the Governor, and a baseball game for a prize of fifty dollars between a Porto Rican and an American team. The event of the day *par excellence* was, of course, the passage of the resolution which, in accordance with the terms of the Foraker Act, will establish free trade between Porto Rico and the United States; but the cordiality and unanimity with which the native population joined in the celebration of the holiday have also a real significance. This coöperation is in a measure doubtless to be explained by the perennial readiness of the Porto Rican to celebrate for celebration's sake; they have an innate genius for the fiesta. On the other hand, no gravely dissatisfied people could have entered so heartily into the spirit of the day. The Porto Ricans undoubtedly cherish a mild dissatisfaction with certain policies of the Government. Their publicists and littérateurs, for instance, express a certain objective and speculative dissent from the principles laid down in the recent decisions of the Supreme Court, and the politicians are somewhat disturbed over the number of Americans occupying public offices; the banks which were to distribute the loan, and the farmers who were to share it among themselves, are somewhat dissatisfied because the Treasurer has repeatedly thwarted the project to loan several millions of the public moneys to the farmers and planters of the island; while the property-holders are a little resentful because the pleasant policy—instituted by the Military Government—of abolishing old Spanish taxes without replacing them with new ones has not been indefinitely continued. But the people—particularly the people whose good will is worth while—are satisfied. And they should be satisfied. The men who have been appointed to administer the Government are on the average abler men, probably, than the corresponding officers in any State of the United States. And the first year of civil government has been one of which the American may well be proud, and with which the Porto Rican may well be content.

Mistakes of a minor character have undoubtedly been made—most of them errors of omission rather than of commission. The original Code Commission, for instance, has been a lamentable and acknowledged fizzle—no other word so well describes its fussy failure. Owing to its inactivity, the last legislative session expired without a municipal-government bill or a land-title system—two of the most urgent reforms needed in Porto Rico. But, taking into consideration the intrinsic difficulties of the situation and our inexperience in colonial government, the success of the civil government of Porto Rico has been little less than extraordinary. In the difficulties caused by the hurricane and the change of sovereignty, relief has been provided with a generous hand, but the people have not been pauperized; at the cost of considerable popularity, the Government has kept steadily before the people the fact that self-government means self-support. Between the wealthy planters or large corporations and the ignorant peasant class which is fast learning the assertive tone of "triumphant democracy," the Administration has preserved an admirable balance, insisting firmly that the former should pay for special benefits received, but taking good care, by their sane and equitable management of large interests, that the investment of capital should not be discouraged. After a year's careful study of the needs of Porto Rico and of the policies in accordance with which the Government is attempting to satisfy these needs, I cannot discover where the Administration has made an important, positive mistake. And, I may add, I am aware of no circumstance or prepossession, either political or personal, which would operate to bias my opinion in this matter.

The passage of the resolution for free trade, to return to the events of Independence Day, was the only act of the Legislative Assembly at the special session, and was performed with all the solemnity which the Latin-American so easily assumes. The Governor read his message in person before the Executive Council, and the House of Delegates convened in joint session, but the resolution was introduced separately into the two chambers by the chairmen of the respective finance committees—Señor Luis Sanchez Morales in the House, and Treasurer Hollander in the Council. The passage of the resolution was publicly announced by a salute of seventeen guns fired from the fine old fortress of San Christobal.

The recent decisions of the Supreme Court, together with the passage of the resolution establishing free trade between Porto Rico and the United States, suggest the propriety of a few words about the much-abused Foraker Act, from the standpoint of the Porto Rican Government and its financial needs. The larger constitutional significance of the act need not be taken into consideration here, nor the motives which, from the above standpoint, made Congress both wise and generous in its treatment of the Porto Rican people. But, whatever the motives that inspired it, and whatever its effect upon the policy and future prosperity of the American Union, the Foraker Act for the Porto Ricans was legislation of the most thoughtful and adequate character. The act was generous because it set aside for the use and benefit of Porto Rico two profitable sources of revenue which, under ordinary circumstances, are reserved for the Federal Government—the total customs collections in Porto Rico, and the customs collected in the United States upon imports from Porto Rico. It was wise, because it placed Porto Rico upon a unique basis by making the internal-revenue laws inoperative in Porto Rico, and by permitting the insular Government to levy and collect a system of excise taxes of its own devising. These were the compensations and, in a degree, the results of the 15 per cent. tariff that so keenly agitated the sympathies of the people of the United States. But in so far as that tariff placed Porto Rico upon a colonial instead of the customary Territorial basis, it was a most fortunate thing for the pocketbooks of the Porto Ricans. The insular budget amounts to about two million dollars a year. Of this it is calculated that five hundred thousand dollars will come from the property tax, seven hundred and fifty thousand from the excise taxes, and a similar amount from the customs collections in Porto Rico. The last two items, constituting three-fourths of the total receipts, are Federal revenues, and, so far as I know to the contrary, are allotted to no other local government under the jurisdiction of Congress.

As for the fifteen per cent. tariff, *per se*, it was sorely needed at the time it was imposed. The condition of the finances immediately preceding the passage of the Foraker Act was graphically described by Treasurer Hollander in his speech introducing the resolution of July 4. After sketching the financial system of the Spanish Government, he said:

"With the American Government came important fiscal changes. Public expenditures were restricted to public needs; customs duties on food stuffs were removed; stamp taxes were repealed, and *consumo* taxes abolished. But the reforms effected were, from the nature of things, essentially negative. The need for revenues continued as great as before, for schools and roads became prompt claimants for what had theretofore gone to State and Church. Old taxes had been boldly swept away, but no new sources of revenue had been provided. Month after month witnessed increasing expenditures, declining revenues, and more and more alarming deficits. Moreover, unfortunate policies had been inaugurated with respect to the citizens' part in the support of the Government, and countenance given for the assumption that Porto Rico was to remain a financial appanage of the United States."

With increasing deficits and a people fast learning to believe that American freedom meant freedom from taxation, the fifteen per cent. tariff not only brought a welcome addition to the public revenue, but provided a powerful incentive to the adoption of a system of direct taxes, the condition precedent to the establishment of free trade. Most important of all, however, it served

to maintain the volume of imports from foreign countries intact, and thus kept the customs collections at their normal amount. The Foraker Act may have shunted the car of American progress upon a new and dangerous path, but, together with the "Two Million Refunding Act," it has placed Porto Rico upon a financial basis of unexcelled security. Of the two-million-dollar refund, more than seven hundred thousand dollars remain untouched, which, in accordance with the fixed policy of the Government, will be devoted to permanent public improvements, the cost of which in ordinary States or Territories would be defrayed by long-time loans. Porto Rico has no debt, and in all probability will have none for some time to come. The current customs collections in Porto Rico, as stated above, are used to meet the ordinary expenses of the Government. But of the customs duties collected in the United States upon imports from Porto Rico no part was used during the last fiscal year, so that an additional emergency fund of more than six hundred thousand dollars is held in the Federal Treasury for the use and benefit of the people of Porto Rico. It is these reserve funds which place beyond all doubt the financial wisdom of abandoning the fifteen per cent. tariff.

With these facts in mind, it is not difficult to understand why the decisions of the Supreme Court aroused no resentment and practically no comment in Porto Rico. For the same reasons, the Republican or any other party in Porto Rico that makes "statehood" a real plank in its official platform, will breed its own destruction; statehood will not repay Porto Rico for the withdrawal of the two sources of revenue which now contribute seventy-five per cent. of the public revenue. And the same facts, together with the fervid habit of speech characteristic of the Porto Rican, explain how Dr. Barbosa, the leader of the Republican party and probably the most representative man in Porto Rico, could call Senator Foraker "the idol of the Porto Ricans." The Porto Rican, it may be said, is running after strange gods; but his action, at least, is not wholly irrational.

Two other aspects of the resolution are worthy of mention: In the first place, it completes the programme of financial reform begun in the "Hollander Bill," and puts an end to the old Spanish fiscal system, with its public lottery, its octrois or *consumo* taxes, its royal dues, its taxes upon exports, its appropriation for the Church, the Colonial Office, and the army and navy, its farming out of taxes, and its widespread administrative corruption. The burden of taxation that fell principally upon the peon, the consumer of "drink, food, and fuel"—which the municipalities were also specifically authorized to tax—has been shifted upon the property-owner and the consumers of tobacco and rum. In the last case the increased tax has taken the form, not of a higher retail price, but of a little more water in the too frequent dram.

Most important of all, the resolution probably means that the whole trade of Porto Rico will eventually go to the United States; that the rice and codfish, candles, cement, butter, cheese, cottons and woollens, shoes, and iron manufactures, which now constitute the principal imports from foreign countries, will in time be supplied by American manufacturers. And to the Porto Rican planter the importance of free trade can scarcely be exaggerated. The passage of this resolution, said Treasurer Hollander, in his speech before the Executive Council, "will result in a virtual bounty of five dollars on every ton of sugar raised on the island, meaning to the sugar interests alone upon a product of one hundred thousand tons a gift of five hundred thousand dollars—more than is raised by every kind of insular property taxation in the island." And what is true of the sugar interests is also true, though in less degree, of the tobacco and fruit interests.

Was it a troubled conscience that made Congress deal with Porto Rico so wisely and so well? I have attempted to state facts, not analyze motives. 'Tis an ill wind that blows nobody good.

CARLO CATTANEO.

FLORENCE, June 23, 1901.

In the first year of the nineteenth century Carlo Cattaneo first saw the light, on June 15, 1801, in Milan, where his father, a jeweller, the son of a long line of warriors and peasants, had settled down, the first of his race to become a citizen, as all his forbears had cultivated the soil and his own grandfather came with his own flocks from the Brembana valley (the birthplace of Tasso) to pasture them during the winter in the vast fields that then surrounded Milan. This Melchiorre Cattaneo took to wife Maria Antonia Sangiorgi, a beautiful peasant woman to whom Carlo owed his well-proportioned and robust frame, his spacious brow, luminous blue eyes, and the honest, patriarchal simplicity which was one of his distinguishing characteristics. And to-day, the first centenary of the son's birth (the strikes in Milan compelling postponement from the 15th), his native city inaugurates a monument in marble sculptured by the celebrated Ettore Ferrari, who has executed monuments to Garibaldi, the finest, to Victor Emanuel and Giordano Bruno, with charming medallions of Mazzini, Alberto Mario, and other factors of New Italy.

On this same anniversary, too, is published the tenth and last volume of the writings of the great Lombard, who certainly has never been a prophet in his own country. Though recognized as the greatest political economist, as a profound and original philosopher, an authority on all questions of literature and language by the thinkers of his own and more recent times, such was the envy, hatred, and all uncharitableness which his patriotic and political action in 1848-'9 brought down upon him that, for twelve years after his death, Agostino Bertani, the surgeon soldier and the devoted friend of Cattaneo, who had purchased the manuscripts and copyright of his works, could find no publisher to bring out even the non-political works of the greatest thinker of his age in Italy. At length the successors of the well-known publisher Le Monnier agreed to publish the philosophical, literary, and social-science writings, and Bertani edited three volumes before he passed away in 1886. To your correspondent fell the task of preparing the remaining volumes agreed upon, and to find a publisher for the political writings and the correspondence. Alberto Mario had completed the 'Mind of Cattaneo' before his own death in 1883, and Niccola Mameli (brother of the soldier poet Goffreddo Mameli, who died for Rome in 1849) offered to edit the philosophical works—a most difficult task, as Cattaneo had never been able to publish these in volumes. Some of them appeared in the *Politecnico*, in the *Crepuscolo*; and perhaps the most important portion, his lectures to the students of the Lugano Lyceum, where he held the professor's chair for fifteen years, had to be pieced out of his manuscripts and collated with the copies written out by his best pupils. Gabriele Rosa, a stanch follower of Cattaneo's political doctrines, a federal republican, wrote the preface to the works of Political (or, as Cattaneo styled it, Public) Economy, and thus seven volumes in all were completed by 1892. But never a publisher could be found to risk an edition of the political writings and the letters. The Milanese *Consorteria*—I use the word in preference to that of "Moderates," of whom there have been and are many honest, intelligent, patriotic, spread over all Italy—had created such a sorry legend around his name that it had become a synonym for disunion, a return to the communes and little republics of the Middle Ages, the extermination of Piedmont, etc. No inducement—the offer of the manuscripts gratis, put in order, copied, and ready for the press—could persuade a single publisher to risk the mere expenses of printing a single volume.

Nor did the friends and soi-disant disciples of the dead master come forward, as might have been expected, to save his memory from oblivion. At last we remembered a federal republican so stanch to his loves and hates that nothing would induce Enrico Cernuschi (him of bimetallic fame) to live in Italy under a united monarchy! To him at Paris we went, and found the hero of the barricades of the five days of Milan, the stanch defender of the Roman Republic (who was kept a prisoner by France in the Castel S. Angelo for many months after the restoration of the Pope), aged beyond recognition, with a cloud of silver-white hair surrounding a pale and thoughtful face, where the old light flamed in the dark-brown eyes, and the old impetuosity echoed in the question, "Why cast pearls before swine? Publishers are excellent thermometers. If none will print, all are convinced that no one will purchase the volumes when issued. Then, as likely as not, the Government will sequestrate the heresies, and the Triple Consorteria will privately cremate the volumes." At length, however, Cernuschi consented to pay the expenses of printing one volume. Some copies did sell, and he added sufficient to print another. Then he too died, in 1897, and in the same year the bright, brave Gabriel Rosa went to his rest. Last year Niccola Mameli joined the ranks of the Old Guard; it really seemed as if the tenth and last volume would not find a sponsor in the land where the "sì suona." This last volume was in reality half through the press in 1898 when the "events of May," as the mysterious revolts in Milan and the pretended revolution in Florence are euphemistically styled, made it certain that all and any political works would come still-born into a world where Republicans, Radicals, Socialists were in durance vile. So the first sheets were stereotyped and laid on the shelf.

In the June number of the *Nuova Antologia* of 1900 appeared a letter from Senator Prof. Graziadio Ascoli to Prof. L. F. Pulle, headed

"Carlo Cattaneo and Historical Studies," in which the writer asks the author of the 'Profilo Antropologico dell' Italia' (a work which, with its splendid atlas, received the prize medal of the anthropological and ethnological Italian Society of Florence) whether Cattaneo has not suffered from a singular and most unmerited oblivion:

"He was one of the first to dwell on statistical considerations of a descriptive as of an inductive order, and to apply them with well-determined aims to the study of the genesis and the development of nations and of languages. One of his dominating thoughts was to ascertain the numbers of the human race among whom and by whom the grand phenomena and the great events of history have been developed. He was perpetually tormented by the question, How many were they; how far homogeneous, how and in what numbers heterogeneous and in conflict? Surely, it is our duty fully to illustrate this work of Cattaneo; but who will or can do this at the present moment if you don't set yourself to the task? I remember, how, proceeding methodically from the positive to the conjectural, he noted how in England the scant but continuous German immigration assimilated a portion of the indigenous population, *i. e.*, the Celtic, also scanty, and how thence issued in the course of fourteen centuries the greatest people in the world! [Indeed, from the first to the last day of our privileged intimacy, Cattaneo used to say: "Anglo-Saxon race is tautological; you are Anglo-Celts, Anglo-Britons."] Thence he rose up to higher considerations, divining the proportions of the crossbreeds by dint of which the language of the Aryans spread itself among the ancient peoples. No one has done so much, it seems to me, to sweep away from history all the fables and illusions engendered under the name of 'the great transmigrations of the peoples.' His conceptions touching the relative fixity of races, of the propagation of species and of culture in the infinite course of time, quieted the imaginary tumult of nations which fantasy imagined to be immensely populous and mixed up together from prehistoric ages."

Then for several pages the learned Professor goes on to vindicate for Cattaneo "his right to be considered the discoverer of certain truths in almost all branches of science, which have now become common property. The supreme wisdom of Cattaneo shone forth when he, first of all, collocated the study of the natural conditions of man with that of their civil conditions. In this field he displays a magic skill all his own, and, as an ethnologist and an original and perfect master of style, he ranks with Alexander von Humboldt [before him in point of time, we venture to add]." His admirable publication on the island of Sardinia, ancient and modern, though written sixty years since, needs scarcely any addition to-day. Here Professor Ascoli dilates on Cattaneo's enormous superiority in historical speculations over Gioberti, Balbo, and other historians of his own time; how, even when reviewing foreign works, such as the 'Norman Conquest,' he surpassed by long strides the great French historian in the ethnological stratification of the conquered country.

"In short, there is no field of universal history where the appreciating eyes of this original thinker failed to penetrate. He is generally placed among the economists on account of his notable writings in this department. But who to-day could venture to decide what ground his inventive and reconstructive mind most splendidly illuminated? I have no claim to the casting vote, but this I can affirm, conscious of no want of reverence for any one worthy of it, that the large and modern conception of history has in Italy no champion who can compete with or come near to Cattaneo."

The appearance of this heartfelt, enthusiastic rehabilitation of Italy's forgotten one was heart-gladdening as a spring of fresh water in a dry and dreary desert. The last third volume was ready for publication—would Pulle really accept the office of sponsor? A genial visit and cordial acceptance followed the appeal, and in a *proemio* of thirty pages the Italians have at least an index to the works of Cattaneo prepared by a young thinker of the present generation who has not been drawn into the vortex of political opportunism or the grib-grab of speculation. Poor Foscolo's sad yet now fulfilled prophecy heads the preface—"Se un dì verra l'Italia vera—io avrò giudice pia."

"The fate of Carlo Cattaneo's works," writes Pulle, "is instructive for the history of Italian thought and for our civic life. That man who reigned as sovereign over the spirit of the past generation, who matured the minds and armed the avenging hand in the days of national revolution, became invisible, vanished as it were from the sight of the next generation which reaped the fruits of the accomplished work. Like one of the granite giants which in hospitable Switzerland sheltered his austere soul during the declining years of his life and his earthly hopes, Cattaneo awaited on the heights the light which the fog at the base must fail to obscure in the future. The memory of that great one suffered from what is the perpetual misfortune of Italy, the non-recognition of the absolute value of genius when it does not respond to the opportuneness of momentary contingencies. The Cattaneo whose eagle glance scrutinized and, partially, from Milan delineated the lines of the universal movement of the peoples of Europe in 1848, was no longer at the helm after 1859, when action was directed to the aims of men who had not the supreme interest of the people at heart. He shared the fate of Mazzini and Garibaldi, and now Time unites them in a harmonious triad. A thinker and an exile, he kept apart from the daily contagion of surrounding influences. Over his grand personality, which remained inflexible and uncontaminated, silence spread her mantle. Partisan ire, whether proceeding from discordant schools or from political interests, is all-powerful over the fate of writers. The want of culture and the non-participation of the masses in intellectual movements in the past [alas, also in the present], placed the monopoly of fame in the power of the few dominating individuals and parties. The broad basis of collective opinion, the result of a number of many individual and independent judgments, which offers natural resistance to authoritative affirmations and keeps a fair balance for the merits of men, is wanting in Italy. The conscious association of thought which Cattaneo understood and defined as the 'psychology of associated minds,' is also wanting; yet it is, in a nation, the seat of its moral independence, a bulwark against injustice, an impediment to all attacks on civil liberties as on scientific truth. The extension of education and of culture tending to the creation of a collective conscience in the Italian people is, however, preparing the medium in which Cattaneo's real value will be recognized."

The learned professor brings proofs and documents to show that Cattaneo laid the basis for modern studies; how, in the science which with F. Ratzel assumes the form and the name of anthropo-geography, Cattaneo forty years since revealed the outlines, even as he delineated the aspects of sociological geography. "Nothing, perhaps, lends credence to the solidity of his knowledge and the perspicacity of his deductions concerning the relations of primitive races so much as does the comparison of his propositions with the conclusions of the most recent and authoritative ethnological studies on the Irish, the Scottish Gaels, and on the early Britons"; and here we have a résumé of the 'Races of Europe' of the American, William Z. Ripley, compared with Cattaneo's writings of sixty years ago, on the 'Historical Commencement of European Languages: On the Language and the Laws of the Celts.' "Compare them," he cries, "and you will be astounded at his divination, the lucidity of his knowledge and his dialectics!" Later on he places him among the predecessors of Darwin, quoting an article of Cattaneo's on the "Types of the Human Race," which we expressly asked Pulle to notice, knowing as we did that the solitary hermit, too poor to purchase books or even to subscribe to a scientific library, never read either Darwin or Huxley, whose works were unknown in Italy until 1866-7. One of Cattaneo's expressions is forcibly his own: "Truly, in the bosom of eternity, there is no penury of time. The nebulous geological epochs in the graduated light of analysis go on separating and multiplying. *The sublime hypothesis of continuous evolution reveals itself in that light.* The progress of humanity mirrors itself in the progress of the universe. On the astonished mind flashes the continuity of creation, the eternity of omnipotence."

If the sad, weary, solitary Lombard whose monument is at this moment unveiled on his pedestal to the public gaze, could speak to the assembled multitude, would his words be of gratitude or of admonition? The latter, we think. He knew that he had truth with him, not only in scientific matters, but in matters political, and assuredly he could not be satisfied with his Italy of to-day. This, not because his ideal of a Federal republic has not been yet realized, but because morality has not been enthroned in high places, because, instead of an armed nation, a people simply taught to wield arms in its own defence, millions are squandered in standing armies and military fleets, because the possessors of the soil, capital, and the instruments of labor have persistently shown themselves greedy in adding to their stores, heedless of the starving millions who rot in their rice fields, go mad with pellagra, send out their children by thousands to seek a better fate in foreign lands; because fifty years of this persistent ignoring of the suffering and misery around them by the cultured and wealthy classes have driven the people into the arms of the extreme factions, whose leaders have no better watchword for their new departure than class struggle, no better solution than strikes which have never reached such a point in numbers and intensity in any country of Europe. No! I doubt whether Cattaneo would care for the tribute of honor paid to him in the Italy which is not the Italy of his dreams. Yet it is well that such honors should be paid to the man whose life was stainless and blameless, even as his thoughts were high, and his action, when compelled to take his place as *Duce*, audacious, firm, and victorious. In the bas-relief of the pedestal, Ettore Ferrari has recorded the epic moment of the defence when Cattaneo, twice offered an armistice by Radetzki, thundered out, "No!" even as did Pier Capponi and Michelangelo in earlier times. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

PREFERENCES IN BANKRUPTCY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In commenting, in your issue of July 4, upon the recent decision of the United States Supreme Court concerning preferences in bankruptcy, you illustrate the effect of the decision as follows:

"If A sells to B a bill of goods amounting to $2,000, and is paid in cash, and thereupon sells him another bill of goods for $4,000, on ninety days' credit, within which time B goes into bankruptcy, A becomes a preferred creditor. If he proposes to claim his $4,000, he must give up his $2,000. If he wants to keep his $2,000, he must give up his $4,000."

This is not quite accurate, as it loses sight of another provision of the Bankruptcy Act, which allows credits extended without security after payments are made to be set off against the payments (Bankruptcy Act, sec. 60, C). Thus, if A sells to B a bill of goods amounting to $2,000, and is paid in cash, and thereupon sells him another bill of goods for $4,000 on ninety days' credit, within which time B goes into bankruptcy, A, though a preferred creditor to the extent of $2,000, can set off $2,000 out of the new credit of $4,000 against that payment, and still prove his claim for $4,000 due him. This was decided by the Circuit Court of Appeals for the Seventh Circuit in McKey vs. Lee, 3 N. B. N., 262. This provision of the Bankruptcy Act was not involved in the decision of the Supreme Court referred to.

If the second credit of $4,000 had preceded the payment of $2,000, then, under the Supreme Court decision, there would be no offset, and A would be obliged, as you suggest, to choose between losing the $4,000 still due and retaining the $2,000 paid, or restoring the $2,000 received and then proving his claim against the estate for $6,000, which would be the total amount of the debt due him.

Yours truly, Isaac Adler.

Rochester, N. Y., July 8, 1901.

CHRISTIAN MISSIONS IN CHINA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The interest in Christian missions to China is so general that I venture to ask the privilege of presenting a phase of the subject which may have been overlooked by some of your readers.

(1.) Through steam and electricity all parts of the world have been brought so close together that now the Western nations and China are, in the most literal sense of the term, neighbors.

(2.) Where two or more individuals, communities, or peoples of different standards of morality and civilization are brought into close contact, one of two things certainly follows: either the one with the higher standard sinks towards the level of the lower, or the more debased is raised towards the level of the higher.

(3.) The natural tendency is towards the degradation of the higher, since to resist the demoralizing influence of the lower civilization requires conscious and vigorous effort.

(4.) Granting these propositions, to the truth of which recent events in China have borne abundant proof, it necessarily follows that this new condition of neighborhood with the Chinese people is a serious menace to the civilization of the Western nations—a menace which will increase in strength with every improvement in ships and their engines, with the building of transcontinental railways, and with the growth of trade.

(5.) A problem of surpassing importance, therefore, is forced upon us for solution. How shall this inevitable debasing influence be most effectively resisted? How shall these four hundred millions with a low standard of morality be brought to recognize the force of and obey the great principles of respect for truth and for woman and for the sacredness of human life which underlie Western civilization? To remain inactive, quiescent, is to be conquered. Is the solution to be found in force? If this were practicable, the expense in life and treasure, the demoralizing effects on those who employ it as well as on the subjugated, would be sufficient to condemn it. But a morality gained only by force is superficial, and will last only as long as the force is applied.

In education? This method again, if it were practicable, would be vastly expensive, for it implies, not the establishment of a school or university here and there, but a school in every village, and there is not motive power enough to provide teachers, even if the money were forthcoming. But a fundamental objection is that the mere education of Eastern peoples takes from them their religious belief without giving them anything in its place, and the result is a community of persons morally weak and characterless.

In Christian missions? This method of influence is the only one which goes directly down to the root of the great material evil of all non-Christian civilizations, the degradation of women, and lifts the mother and her child to the level of the mother and child in Christian lands. It is the only method which has the strongest conceivable motive power, that of disinterested love. It is the cheapest, for thousands stand ready to do the work for no other reward than the privilege of doing it, and millions stand ready to furnish them with the necessary means.

From this point of view, therefore, I cannot escape the conviction that Christian missions in China are of vital importance, not to the Chinese merely, but to ourselves, as the only efficient means by which we can keep the high standard of our civilization. James Mascarene Hubbard.

Bread Loaf Inn, Vt., July 10, 1901.

INDIAN SUMMER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Any information that your readers can furnish in regard to the history of the origin of the term "Indian Summer," especially previous to the year 1800, will be gratefully acknowledged if sent either to Prof. Cleveland Abbe, United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C., or to the undersigned.

Albert Matthews,

145 Beacon St., Boston, Mass.

Notes.

Lee & Shepard announce for September 'Gail Hamilton's Life in Letters,' edited by H. Augusta Dodge, and 'Among Flowers and Trees with Poets,' an anthology compiled by Minnie Curtis Wait and Prof. Merton Channing Leonard.

'The Stars in Song and Legend,' by Prof. Jermain G. Porter, Director of the Cincinnati Observatory, is soon to be published by Ginn & Co.

A work on 'Irrigation,' by Dr. F. H. Newell of the United States Geological Survey, is in the press of T. Y. Crowell & Co.

'Foma Gordeyeff,' by the new Russian novelist, Gorky, translated by Hermann Bernstein, is among the fall announcements of the J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Company.

That indefatigable Baconian, Edwin Bormann, much the most interesting of his tribe, is to print in the autumn twelve literary-historical-biographical essays under the title of 'Die Kunst des Pseudonyms.' (He is his own publisher in Leipzig.) His thesis is that if William Shakspere is the pseudonym of Francis Bacon, Bacon's name must appear on the title-pages of Shakspere's productions, "or in the immediate vicinity." An appendix cites numerous judgments of Bacon by his contemporaries. As usual (and this is a substantial return for the purchase money), there are seventy to eighty facsimile illustrations.

Cassell & Co. issue their annual collection of 'Royal Academy Pictures,' being the Royal Academy Supplement of the *Magazine of Art*, with a few pages of prefatory text. In all some three hundred illustrations of pictures and statues in the current Academy are given. Half-tone cuts, generally well executed, are the rule, but a photogravure frontispiece accompanies each of the five parts which make up the quarto volume. The value of the work for reference is clear enough. Of the pictures themselves nothing much is to be said except that they have for the most part the same old Royal Academy quality, and show almost everything but pictorial intention. National pride will be gratified that Mr. Abbey's melodramatic "Crusaders Sighting Jerusalem" occupies the place of honor at the front.

Prof. Edward Arber's series of "British Anthologies" is now completed with the publication of volume i., 'The Dunbar Anthology,' and volume x., 'The Cowper Anthology' (Henry Frowde). Extended comment upon these is unnecessary. In 'The Dunbar Anthology' Professor Arber's flower-gathering, so unpromising is the field, is rather surprisingly successful; and the final volume, rich in single instances from minor poets, is one of the most entertaining of all. We must, however, regret a thing which seems a curious lapse of taste: "The Ancient Mariner" is printed without its incomparable gloss.

It is for many reasons a cause for rejoicing that the day of the dry and dusty doctorate dissertation is passing. Some years ago Columbia University set the admirable example of encouraging its doctoral candidates to attempt the composition of readable books, in place of the conventional tabulations. The latest publication of the University Press (The Macmillan Co., agents) is 'Frédéric Mistral, Poet and Leader in Provence,' by Charles Alfred Downer. Dr. Downer has produced a serviceable and suggestive study of the somewhat exotic verse of Mistral, his revival of the old Provençal speech, and his endeavor in the direction of racial idealism. By a reasonable extension of the subject there is included a good account of the general work of the "Félibres"

who have striven to revive the old renown of Provence in poetry and art. The attentive reader may, indeed, note certain blemishes which would never have occurred in a thesis of the old school. An accurate philological chapter on "The Modern Provençal Language" is oddly contrasted with some rather sentimental and precious pages in which appellations like "epic" and adjectives like "beautiful" are loosely applied to Mistral's pleasantly romantic tales in verse. The book is, however, as a whole, a good piece of scholarship and a sympathetic literary study. It should be of special interest to persons concerned with the problems of "national literature."

Altogether charming is Mr. Almon Dexter's 'And the Wilderness Blossomed' (Philadelphia: H. W. Fisher & Co.), in which he describes the conquest of an island in one of the Maine lakes. Of great value to many amateurs will be found the list of hardy plants and the observations on their culture which Mr. Dexter has made. He has evidently been overcome by the enchantment of gardening, and he certainly makes it appear enchanting. His comprehensive invitation to flower-lovers gives a pleasant finish to a book which deserves a longer notice than we can now afford it.

'Peace or War in South Africa,' by A. M. S. Methuen (London: Methuen & Co.), is a temperate but extremely impressive arraignment of the policy of England towards the Boers. It is all the more effective because the author gave his support to the Ministerial party until he became convinced that he was mistaken. The comparison with the attitude of the British Government towards the American colonies, and the quotations from Burke, are also telling. On the whole, this is perhaps as good a summary of the events in South Africa which were decisive as has appeared; and the tone of its comment is high and clear. It is hard not to believe that such an appeal must move the English public; but our own recent history promotes skepticism.

A satisfactory manual on 'Small-Boat Sailing' is that by E. F. Knight (E. P. Dutton & Co.). It will prove of practical service to the amateur sailor of small boats of all kinds, from the dinghey to the ten-ton cutter or yawl. It is generally agreed by professionals that books of instruction are of slight value in the acquisition of seamanship. This is mainly true, but exception must be made in favor of Mr. Knight's clear and comprehensive treatise. Twenty years ago a publication of this character, devoted as it is to the management of small boats employed exclusively in foreign waters, would have been of hardly any use to American amateurs. The frequency, however, of international yachting contests, and the number of foreign craft of all sorts now owned and sailed by Americans, contribute to the opportuneness of Mr. Knight's manual. It explains plainly and lucidly all that the amateur need know in regard to the choice, rig, and handling of small boats. The author's remarks as to the use of the barometer and of weather wisdom as more or less essential to safety in sailing small craft, are worthy of attention. He has confidence also in official weather forecasts, so much so that on one occasion, despite the earnest protests of local mariners, and contrary to his own judgment, he started from Harwich, England, for Holland alone, in a three-ton yawl, in a gale of wind, on the strength of a special forecast of the British Meteorological Office that he should in a few hours meet with light S. W. winds, a smooth sea, and fine weather—a prediction accurately verified. Are there many who would trust our official weather forecasts to this extent? The illustrations, technical and pictorial, fortify and embellish the text.

Among law books recently published is an institutional 'Treatise on the Jurisprudence, Constitution, and Laws of the United States,' by James De Witt Andrews (Chicago: Callaghan & Co.). Mr. Andrews is the editor of the works of James Wilson, and he declares that eminent lawyer to have been hitherto the only genuine expounder for American students of the true principles of legal analysis. "The plan he proposed is that of the civilian's, and the results worked out agree singularly with those of John Austin." We have no space to go into details, but may say briefly that much of Mr. Andrews's discussion is illuminating. His division is into the Laws of Persons, of Things, of Actions, and of Crimes; Constitutional and Public Law falling under the first head. Some five thousand cases are cited, and the work is preceded by an introduction on the development of the Science of Law and Government.

A more compendious book, covering the same ground, is the 'Elements of American Jurisprudence,' by William C. Robinson, the well-known author of a text-book on Elementary Law (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). He has cited two or three thousand cases, and each of his sections is accompanied by directions for reading. The book is evidently intended for the use of both teacher and student. The author's arrangement of the law is his own, but to our mind this is the least important point in the whole matter. The book should be regarded as a skeleton introduction to the law, and is very nearly readable. We should think it would be found of great use in schools and colleges. Here and there mistakes and omissions may be found. We cannot consider any book of American law complete which does not contain a clear account of the history of the common-law actions. Thus far there have been no really great American or English lawyers who have not known the difference between trespass and trespass on the case. Section 260, on the amendment and abrogation of treaties, ought to contain some reference to the remarkable fact that we maintain in this country the right to abrogate a treaty by an act of Congress. This is jurisprudence purely American. Considering, too, how common penal bonds still are, we could have wished an explanation of the nature of this instrument. May we, by the way, take this opportunity of pointing out, *pace* all modern institutional writers, that *act* and *forbearance* are not really true opposites? *Forbearance*, as is here explained, means a voluntary omission to act. But *act* is used every day without any implication as to will. No one, for instance, would deny that sleep-walking involved a variety of acts; but sleep-walking does not involve the action of the will. *Omission* is the only proper antithesis of *act*, and has excellent authority for its use; if an opposite for the Saxon *forbearance* were wanted, it must be found, we incline to think, in some other Saxon word like *deed*. But the difficulty here is that *deed* is already appropriated to another use. All this we submit with deference, but with confidence, to legal institutional etymologists.

'Explorations in Alaska for an All-American Overland Route from Cook Inlet, Pacific Ocean, to the Yukon, by Lieut. Joseph S. Herron,' is the title of a recent Government publication. Lieut. Herron, with a party of five men, left Cook Inlet on June 9, 1899, and travelled 340 miles with a pack train. The remaining 171 were accomplished on snow-shoes with dogs and sleds, and the great river was reached December 11. So far as can be gathered from the account of the journey, the difficulties of this new route do not seem to be much, if any, greater than those of the other routes. From his experience Lieut. Herron is inclined to think that the cheapest method of transport is first the mule, then the horse and dog. The reindeer is a failure in this part of Alaska, partly from the lack of moss, its principal food, and its inability to travel on the ice. The report is fully illustrated, and contains lists of native tribes, plants, and maps of the regions traversed.

The United States Board on Geographic Names has issued a special report giving about 4,000 "coastwise" names in the Philippine archipelago. The editor, Capt. C. C. Todd, acknowledges the valuable assistance given by the Rev. José Algue, S.J., director of the Jesuit Observatory at Manila. The names are in black-face type, and are followed by the Spanish designation of the features named, as, Acul, *punta*.

"Aboriginal Rock Pictures in Queensland" is the title of a brief paper by R. H. Mathews in the current Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society. Mr. Mathews describes certain drawings cut upon flat sandstone rocks in the channel of the Burnett River at its junction with Pine Creek. During the greater part of the year the rocks are dry, but in times of floods are wholly submerged. As a result, many of the drawings are scarcely distinguishable. The figures are small, varying from two inches to two feet in length, and represent native weapons, animals, and human feet, and include some nondescript designs. The mode of execution was to make a row of punctures along the outline of the drawing by means of a sharp piece of pointed stone, and subsequently chipping out the spaces between, thus making a complete groove around the outside of the drawing. The punctures, being deeper and wider than the other portions of the groove, are still discernible. Similar drawings have been found near Rawbelle on the Rawbelle River. They are cut in the dark, hard sandstone on the sides and bed of a watercourse. On the bank of the Leichhardt River, North Queensland, is a large rock containing aboriginal carvings of boomerangs, shields, and human hands. The rock, a kind of conglomerate, is gradually crumbling away under exposure to the weather, and some of the drawings have already disappeared.

—Readers of the *Nation* least of all need an introduction to Mr. Henry F. Waters's 'Genealogical Gleanings in England,' on which he has been engaged for eighteen years, and which have been printed with expert annotation in the quarterly *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*. A portion of these, dealing with very eminent names, have been printed separately, but now we have the

whole in two splendid octavo volumes issued by the New England Historic-Genealogical Society, Boston, with a frontispiece showing the noble face of the greatest of known searchers in the field of recorded human relationship. Here are the wills developing in the most abundant and convincing way a family connexion, with other evidence of individual origin and descent, such as shone brilliantly in the case of the Washington and Harvard pedigrees and of Roger Williams's nationality, and even (regarding England's especial domain) in the discovery of the wills of Alexander Selkirk (Robinson Crusoe) and of Thomas Hobson the carrier ("Hobson's choice"), and the burial entry of the widow of John Rogers, the martyr of Smithfield. But one must explore the great index to realize the wealth of information concerning leading families in our history, both North and South, though New England preponderates. In immediate relation with Harvard's foundation we encounter Boylston, Chauncy, Hollis, Holworthy, Mather, and Mowlson; and such other names as Bradstreet, Bromfield, Cotton, Downing, Dummer, Dyer, Eliot, Gardiner, Glover, Higginson, Hooker, Hutchinson, Pynchon, Quincy, Saltonstall, Sedgwick, Sherman, Vassall, Ward, Winthrop, and Yale. The wills are more than half-readable, viewed merely as inventories, while no one can forget the account of Mr. Waters's lighting upon the little paper which confirmed the Washington line beyond dispute. Mr. John T. Hassam supplies an introduction, and the worth of this extraordinary collection is further enhanced by a reprint of Dr. Toner's "Wills of the American Ancestors of Gen. George Washington," a table of the Court of Probate Calendars, and an index of places in addition to that of persons.

—The New York Historical Society prints in its collections for 1892 (just now published) the "Abstracts of Wills on File in the Surrogate's Office, City of New York, 1665-1707," and has thus performed a public service. Not only may this volume be consulted for the names of persons and places, but the inventories of property and items of bequest are full of interest for a study of the social customs of colonial days. Properties were, as a rule, small in size and largely personal. A will disposing of property to the value of £500 is the will of a wealthy personage, a man of some position in the community. By far the larger number of wills disposed of personal effects of small value, a lot of land and a few head of cattle. No household property was of so little importance as to be overlooked, as when a father left to his son "my best suit of clothes and a bed blanket," and to his daughter a scythe and a Bible. With land a right of "commonage" went. The mention of tools and implements is very infrequent, indicating that even the household industries were not considered important. In a few instances a "weaver's loom" is bequeathed, and in one case three such looms are named, an unusual number. The raw material and product—lambs' wool, yarn, and homespun cloth—are itemized in one will. Of other industries there is scant evidence, although some smith's tools, and a reference to the "Tinton Iron Works" of New Jersey in 1691, prove their existence. Labor was supplied by negroes and, less frequently, by Indians. The mode of valuing property, and the different currencies recognized, throw much light upon the economy of the settlement. Wampum was of importance, and was measured by so many "guilders." In 1691 a piece of eight was worth 12 guilders wampum. Of equal utility were beaver skins, the value of which was more difficult to determine. In 1677 a beaver was reckoned at 8 guilders, in 1698 a merchantable beaver was counted as 12 shillings. More complicated is a provision for "£100 in cattle, according to wheat at 5 shillings a bushel," although wheat was a recognized medium of exchange. When a ship-owner died leaving a certain share of a miscellaneous cargo, from spices up to negroes, the task of administering on the estate was by no means slight. It is possible, however, that merchantable produce was better than gold or silver, which are found in many forms and of diverse values. Gold dust is sometimes mentioned, and silver in plate was estimated at so many ounces. Currency involved some calculation, not only because of the variety of pieces passing, but also because of the light weight of the coins. In one estate the following were found: Spanish pistoles, guineas, Arabians, Arabian pieces of silver, Bank dollars and gold; the value of each being carefully itemized. There were also French pistoles (gold), double guineas and doubloons, Jacobuses, pieces of eight, "Arabian and Christian pieces of silver," and the local guilder, five of which were required to make one Holland guilder.

—Mr. Frank B. Sanborn's 'Emerson' differs from nearly all the other "Beacon Biographies" (Small, Maynard & Co.), in being deeply colored by the personal intimacy of the writer with his subject. Hence less of vague generalization, more of remembered incident and speech. There is the usual over-emphasis on the earlier life, as if Mr. Sanborn were not conscious of his restricted space until his book was half written and the story of Emerson's literary career hardly begun, with the beginning of his own acquaintance with Emerson far in the future. But, happily, there are many reflections back from this upon the earlier years. These and the later recollections give the sketch its principal importance. There is a critical opening, and some critical observations at the end, but the book is much richer for Emerson's traits and characteristics, and for his relations to Ellery Channing, Thoreau, and Alcott, than as a criticism of his genius. First of all, we are invited to admire the certainty with which we meet his thought on every road we take. That is fine self-praise where Emerson writes, "It is not the masters who spin the ostentatious continuity." Yet Mr. Sanborn regrets that Emerson did not earlier set about his 'Natural History of the Intellect,' which, in his old age, was formidable to him and disappointing, and broke his failing strength. There is not the exaggeration of Alcott's relation to Emerson that many will expect. But a notable tribute to Alcott in 'Nature' is pointed out, and there is no mistake where Alcott's account of Emerson's oratory is quoted, flowering at the top into some of Ellery Channing's most memorable lines. It is Mr. Sanborn's judgment that Emerson's anti-slavery action cost him more ostracism than his religious heresy. An interesting comment on Mr. Sanborn's extremely doubtful suggestion that Emerson left the pulpit because the Unitarians were a little sect, is Dr. Channing's remark, "If the Unitarians were not a little sect, I would not be a Unitarian."

—The London School of Economics and Political Science is doing good service by its publications as well as its lectures. The latest of its series of monographs deals with 'The Place of Compensation in Temperance Reform' (P. S. King & Son), and is written by C. P. Sanger, Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, and Barrister-at-Law. It approaches the subject from the lawyer's point of view, discussing first the meaning of vested rights, then the precedents for compensation, and lastly the special features of this particular case. The book will be useful as a record of the history of various proposals for the solution of this problem, and as a summary of the conflicting views that have been expressed concerning it. Temperance reformers, however, will probably complain that Mr. Sanger scarcely does justice to considerations that are more important than legal technicalities. The right handling of the drink traffic is one of the most urgent needs of English social life, but it is already evident that the Transvaal war has driven compensation out of practical politics. Either the saloon must be closed without compensation, or it must remain open, for it is not possible for the nation to bear any fresh impost. Patriotic Americans will read with mingled feelings the reason given by Mr. Sanger for neglecting, in his study of colonial and foreign precedents, to pay any attention to the United States: "To argue from the case of a nation whose legislatures enact laws which are not intended to be enforced, to the case of this country, would be fruitless. In addition to this, the practical certainty of renewal of a justice's license, which exists in England, is absent from a country in which the spoils system is an article of political faith. In short, the Americans are so fundamentally different from the English in habits and temperament that it is misleading to look to their legislation for the purpose of inferring the probable form which legislation may take in this country."

—Regarding population, surely never in times of peace has any other country had such a record as Ireland. A preliminary report of last April's census has appeared. (Parl. Paper Cd.—613). The population has within the past ten years declined 248,204 to 4,456,546. In 1841 it stood at 8,196,597. Scotland has now run ahead of her. Her population is less than it was a century ago, when it was about half the population of Great Britain—now perhaps one-tenth. Dublin proper, without some suburbs, is now smaller than Belfast, though, with its suburbs, it is slightly larger. Three counties—Dublin, Down, and Antrim—have increased in population from 7.3 to 7 per cent. The others have decreased, from Monaghan (13.6 per cent.) to Derry (5.1 per cent.). By provinces, Connaught has decreased 9.7, Munster 8.4, Leinster 3.5, Ulster 2.4 per cent. Of the total population, 74.3 are Catholics, 13.0 Episcopalians, 10.0 Presbyterians, 1.4 Methodists, 1.3 other denominations. Methodists, Jews, and "others" alone show an increase. The Jews, 200 thirty years ago, are now nearly 2,000. The Protestant and foreign element increases decade by decade slightly in proportion. Meanwhile, the amount of drink consumed and the number of public houses increase; also, the number of persons in poorhouses and in insane asylums. Consequent on the complications

of the land laws, attorneys are said to have increased by 50 per cent. within the past ten years. And the healthiest and most energetic of the agricultural population still seek their fortunes abroad. Where will be the end?

—'Les États-Unis et la Doctrine de Monroe' (Paris: Librairie Nouvelle de Droit et de Jurisprudence; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer) is a valuable review of the Monroe Doctrine by Hector Pétin, who brings to bear on it the full light of legal and historical research. He traces it through its various phases of development, from its appearance in the message of 1823, as the defensive declaration of a rising democracy, to its final affirmation at The Hague, where it appears as the handmaid of a very undemocratic imperialism. The author thinks, as a good many have thought before him, that logically our Executive at The Hague had to choose between Monroeism and Imperialist expansion in the East; but as a matter of fact he "chose both." In other words, the Monroe Doctrine gives us at home the hegemony of America, prescribes the exclusion of Europe, is prophetic of the absorption of Canada, and enables us to make any interoceanic canal a national toll-gate; while in the rest of the world it authorizes us to wrest colonies from European Powers, and, making of them American dependencies, extend our system into the heart of the antipodes. The American doctrine, as interpreted by our Canton Napoleon, makes absolute nonsense of the original Monroe Doctrine. It is neither international law nor common sense, but a vague declaration that we shall do what we please anywhere. That such an assertion of our position tends to involve us in perpetual aggression and to array Europe against us, any one can see. It consequently becomes more and more idle every day to attempt to discuss our foreign policy in terms of international law or traditional policy. "Might makes right" is the sum and substance of it. To any American who wishes to know how our playing fast and loose with the Doctrine looks to enlightened and disinterested minds, we commend this book.

THE FOURTEENTH AMENDMENT.

A Treatise on the Rights and Privileges Guaranteed by the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States. By Henry Brannon (Judge of the Supreme Court of West Virginia). Cincinnati: W. H. Anderson & Co. 1901. Pp. 562.

Mr. Dooley has recently said of the Constitution of the United States: "It wuddint last a minyit in thim tropical climes. 'Twud get a pain in the fourteenth amindmint an' die before the doctors cud get ar-round to cut it out." The shrewd humorist has here put his finger on the page of the Constitution which for thirty years has been more often invoked in defence of individual rights than all the other provisions of the Constitution put together since the formation of the Federal Government. "The Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States," says Mr. Justice Brannon, is "the most important of all the additions made to that great instrument. That amendment speaks principles of free government of overruling import." "Who," he asks, "will deny the right of the principles of the Fourteenth Amendment? Who will contest the inestimable value of the sacred rights which it guarantees? Who will dare to contest the principles of Magna Carta?"

No one will dare to! Nevertheless, while the Fourteenth Amendment was devised, as the Supreme Court has intimated, for the security and protection of an inferior race, the effort of our politicians in the future will be to withhold its benefits from what they deem inferior races. Men of all races will dwell in "thim tropical climes," under the American flag, and they may be held to be within some of the limitations of the Constitution or beyond some of the limitations of the Constitution; but, no matter what may be held by the courts, a new "irrepressible conflict" awaits the American people, and an inevitable alternative will constantly confront our political managers, evade it as they may; and that alternative is this—shall those men in our insular possessions live under their own flag or under the Fourteenth Amendment?

The book before us is an overwhelming testimonial to the importance of the Fourteenth Amendment—to the unprecedentedly active part which it has played, is playing, and will continue to play in our Constitutional drama. Its importance has been foreseen and seen by the author for thirty years, and nothing concerning it seems to have escaped his watchful, critical eye. It is worthy of notice that he is an unqualified believer in the Amendment, that he is a Southerner, and a member of a State judiciary; and it is greatly to his honor that this broad-minded exposition comes from the very spot where, in the ordinary weakness and prejudice of human nature, we might expect to find narrowness of construction and querulous censure and opposition. We can illustrate the sagacity, caution, good sense, and judicial-mindedness of the work by quoting what the author says on a subject with which our readers, whether lawyers or laymen, have, unhappily, only too much reason to be familiar. In one of the early chapters of the book, written before the Porto Rico and Philippine cases had reached the Supreme Court, he looked forward and made the analysis of the questions involved:

"Is Porto Rico, since the Paris treaty, a foreign country so as to justify such charge [the duties of the Dingley tariff]? The court (103 Fed. R. 72) held that the island was by the treaty 'acquired,' but not 'incorporated,' into the nation, and hence for this purpose was still a 'foreign' country. The reasoning does not seem conclusive. Its basis is largely that of Fleming vs. Page (9 How. 603), holding that goods from a Mexican port held by our forces in war, but restored to Mexico by the treaty of peace, was, for the time, land of the United States by conquest, a part of its territory, and yet not so far as to exempt from tariff; and if this be so, why not the same as to Porto Rico? I answer that one was transient occupation during war, provisional at most; the other, possession, with legal title under law of war and peace, for ever. There is a difference. Congress seems to have taken a different view from Judge Townsend's view, as it passed a temporary tariff act for Porto Rico. My view is that it is not a 'foreign' country under antecedent tariff law, and that to subject it to tariff there must be an express act. Whether Congress can constitutionally pass such act under its power to govern territories, or, Porto Rico being a part of the nation, it is prohibited by the provision that 'all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States,' is a question not yet decided. It seems to me of doubtful constitutionality; but I venture no final opinion."

And as to the Filipinos Justice Brannon says:

"It is questionable whether a Filipino can be naturalized . . . No doubt, under the principle [established by the Amendment that "all persons born" in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens] children of Filipinos born since the acquisition of the islands by the United States would be citizens. But, though the Filipinos are not within the naturalization laws, still, they are American freemen, entitled as 'persons,' under the Fifth and Sixth Amendments, and under the Civil Rights Act, and the free spirit of our Government, to the personal rights accorded by the benign system of government of the United States. They are subject to our jurisdiction and laws, *and from that very fact* they are freemen in a free republican government, not subjects of an empire or monarchy. The treaty of peace with Spain did not give the inhabitants of these islands citizenship, but committed the government of them to Congress. Congress must govern them according to principles of American free government. As the treaty conveys the islands to us, we must regard our right as based on cession, not conquest—a consideration repelling all thought of power of imposing arbitrary government on these people."

We suspect that many of our readers will wish that Mr. Justice Brannon had been sitting last May on a bench where he could have "ventured a final opinion" in regard to the "temporary tariff" for Porto Rico, and have done something towards clarifying that question of "doubtful constitutionality."

But these extracts give an inadequate idea of the hard and patient work which the author has lavished upon this book. It is, indeed, a compendium of cases decided, of points determined, of questions yet to arise and be disposed of. The index covers forty pages, the table of cases cited twenty-nine more. We estimate roughly that these twenty-nine pages contain more than 1,200 cases. Some of them relate to general principles of law, some to other provisions of the Constitution; but it is evident that the last thirty years have brought forth a fearful array of decisions bearing upon or growing out of the Fourteenth Amendment. "The Fourteenth Amendment," says our author, "is the child of our great civil war"; it was designed to guarantee the legal rights of 4,000,000 emancipated slaves, whose legal rights, it was feared, would be denied to them by the States; "but its language is broad, applying to all citizens and persons, 'without regard to race, color, or nationality.' "

And yet this comprehensive work and these unnumbered decisions do not extend to the whole of the Fourteenth Amendment, but only to two brief sections (the first and fifth), containing together less than 100 words. Moreover, the Fourteenth Amendment "creates and originates nothing new." "It creates no new privileges or immunities of citizens, no new right of life, liberty, or property, no new process of law. It only guarantees rights preëxisting, or those which law, national or State, may after its date confer"; and it confers upon Congress power to enforce "the provisions of this article," which is new.

Here at the first glance appears the phenomenal fact that a few personal safeguards, which for nearly a hundred years had been reposing in the Constitution, instantly produced, when rewritten in the Amendment, a cloud-burst of litigation, where, before, the judicial sky had been almost without a

cloud. In 1778 the corrupting methods of George III. and the acts of his corrupted Parliament, and such provincial governments as that of Rhode Island, had demoralized Americans so far as to make them suspect and distrust all governments, and especially that new and unknown government without authority, without organization, without the majesty of being—the less respected because it was the work of their own hands. Madison, therefore, promised, and proposed, and carried through the Ten Amendments which have been called our Bill of Rights. It has taken less than a century to demonstrate that it was the other repository of sovereignty in our dual system, the State governments, which needed Constitutional restrictions. As long ago as Davidson vs. New Orleans (97 U. S. R.), Mr. Justice Miller noted the fact that the Fifth Amendment, restraining Federal authority, though then nearly a century old, had hardly ever been invoked, while even then the Fourteenth had laden the docket of the Supreme Court with cases seeking the overthrow of State legislation. "The Ten Amendments," says a recent writer in the *Evening Post*, "form a noble decalogue of great principles to be kept before the eyes of all American citizens; but, nevertheless, the judicial records of the century show that the Government which the framers of the Constitution established would have moved on just as it has done if these Ten Amendments had never been proposed."

With the Fourteenth there came three new elements to disturb the serenity of the judicial sky. First, it did what the Convention in 1778 had refrained from doing—it imposed the Bill of Rights, or a little of it, on the State Governments, and did not trust them, as theretofore, to the restrictions of State Constitutions. Second, it did what the Convention had refused to do, it gave power to the Federal Government to enforce these restrictions upon the States by Federal legislation. Third, it came coincident with a new order of things, especially in the new and in the "reconstructed" States, where "carpet-bag" power, and race prejudice, and corporate corruption, and "ring government," and socialism were to evolve wild experiments of Constitutional government, and to influence and pervert State legislation as never before.

The diversity of subjects of this new litigation, *i. e.*, of these multitudinous cases which have been brought into the courts to have Constitutional rights concerning them determined, is almost unbelievable: Dogs, Rags, Drunkards, Prostitutes, Wild Animals, Domestic Animals, Dead Animals, Caucasians, Africans, Mongolians, Indians, Hawaiians, Citizens, Aliens, Naturalized Citizens, Children of Aliens, Women, Wives, Persons, States, Corporations, Convicts, Arid Lands, Ardent Spirits, Barbers, the Human Body, Carcasses, Cigarettes, Dentistry, Divorce, Drumming, Vagrants, Vaccination, Osteopathy, Oleomargarine, Mobs, Logs, Speeches, Natural Gas, the American Flag, etc., etc. It may be noted that one of the most interesting opinions of the Supreme Court is upon the subject-matter of Dogs (166 U. S. R., 698); that a State may reënact provisions of early English statutes imposing a criminal penalty on him who entices away another man's servant; that prohibiting orators from making speeches in parks and pleasure-grounds does not deprive them of "liberty"; and that the national flag is a legitimate instrumentality for making money and may be used constitutionally for advertising purposes.

Doubtless in a book of this character there are errors and omissions; but the only omission we have noticed is the trivial one that, when setting forth the restrictive provisions of the Fourteenth Amendment, the author did not give the similar restrictions on Federal power. The searching index, we should add, makes the book almost as ready of reference as an encyclopædia.

KNIGHT'S MODERN SEAMANSHIP.

Modern Seamanship. By Lieutenant-Commander Austin M. Knight, United States Navy. D. Van Nostrand Company. 1901.

There is no such dyed-in-the-wool conservative as the sailor. The indignation with which he repels the faintest suggestion of improvement in things nautical is amusing in its vehemence, clothed, as it usually is, in the choicest flowers of objurgation. Innovation is of the Evil One, to be avoided or suppressed. The seaman's true criterion is the way of the fathers. Nothing new is good; on the contrary, everything new is bad. The creed is delightfully simple, and it is held with monkish fervor. It is difficult, therefore, to imagine the shock which the generation of mariners now passing away must experience as they hear of a book, just printed, with the ominous title 'Modern Seamanship.' Such a violation of the traditions is little short of sacrilege.

And yet the technical literature of the profession embodies, on the whole, a steady advance in treatment and a constant widening of scope. Among the earliest books of the kind, Blunt's 'Seamanship, both in Theory and Practice' (1813) was a bit too *raisonné* to find favor with the seagoing fraternity of that day. The pendulum of marine opinion was at the other extreme of the swing, and Boatswain Brady of the navy, recognizing the fact, produced a small elementary work with a very large name. 'The Naval Apprentice's Kedge Anchor, or Young Sailor's Assistant,' written by him in 1840, when a sub-title was fashionable if not obligatory, was dedicated to "John Gallagher, Esquire, Captain United States Navy." (The good old custom of giving naval captains the social rank of esquire survived until the sixties.) The 'Kedge Anchor' held its own for many years, since Lieutenant Totten's 'Naval Text-Book' (1841), and 'Nautical Routine and Stowage' (1849), by Passed Midshipmen Murphy and Jeffers, both conceived in higher spirit (the former very dignified and scholarly), were unable to descend from the shelves and oust it from its place as the seaman's handbook. The 'Kedge Anchor' was even used as a text-book at the Naval Academy, although supplemented by manuscript notes copied, with faithful loyalty, by the young midshipman from the vade-mecum of some older officer, chosen as his exemplar.

The reign of the 'Kedge Anchor' came to an end at the Naval Academy in 1862, when Lieutenant (now Rear-Admiral) Stephen B. Luce was ordered to that institution as instructor in seamanship. His first duty was to supply a text-book, the want of which had become pressing, and Luce's well-known 'Seamanship' was the result of his labors. For forty years it has been used at the Naval Academy and universally accepted as the unimpeachable American authority on its subject in all its branches. But the demon of progress, not respecting the seaman's whim, has affected his calling to the verge of revolution. The adoption of steam propulsion as an auxiliary to sail power, in the third and fourth decade of the nineteenth century, introduced many new problems, of which contemporary works treat more or less perfunctorily, for the post of honor was still occupied by the man who could "reef, hand, and steer," who knew what a cat-harpin was, and who was profoundly versed in grommets, paunch-mats, puddings, Matthew Walker knots, and like creations of the marlinspike. The same conservatism dominated later works even when canvas had disappeared from the seas except for the freighting of bulky cargoes, and except, also, in the yachting, fishing, and coastwise fleets. Canvas was, indeed, spread, but, as now, only with a fair wind to increase the speed or to save coal. In its turn it had become auxiliary. So strong a grip, however, did it have on the naval mind that, long after twin-screws came into use (in the transatlantic service in 1881 and much earlier in European navies), heavy spars and broad sails were yet retained. Late in the eighties our navy was still masting its twin-screw cruisers *Chicago* and *Newark*, while the English were doing the same with such armored vessels as the *Impérieuse* and *Warspite*. To-day, however, the only masted man-of-war, except the training ship, is the single-screw gunboat designed for duty on remote stations where fuel is costly. The merchant service is practically given over to that marvel of efficiency and economy, the tramp steamer.

Since 1890, the British ship captain has had Todd and Whall's 'Practical Seamanship for Use in the Merchant Service,' a fairly good work, with a special aim. Notwithstanding this publication, the want of a treatise available for both the navy and the mercantile marine had not been adequately supplied. Something was needed which should chiefly regard the new state of affairs, giving most attention to the full-powered steamer while not neglecting the sailing vessel, and which should minister to the needs of the naval officers of to-day and to-morrow as Luce had ministered to the needs of him of yesterday. Lieutenant-Commander Knight, when ordered as head of the Department of Seamanship at the Naval Academy in 1898, found himself situated just as Luce was in 1862, for again the art had outstripped the text-book. 'Modern Seamanship' is his response to the demands of the new conditions. In an able and satisfactory way it supplements "the midshipman's Bible," as Luce's work is affectionately termed, doing for the full-powered steamer what Luce had previously done for the full-rigged ship and the auxiliary steamer.

A technical treatise on a widely ramified subject must deal with broad outlines unless the author commands unlimited space. Failing that, it must be a compromise between an encyclopædia and a manual. The value of such a treatise depends upon the skill with which the compromise is effected, and 'Modern Seamanship' stands this test very well. It is quite remarkable in explaining the principles upon which its suggestions are based. The appeal is less to precedent than to reason—a radical departure in works on seamanship. The reader who is equipped

with but a slight knowledge of vessels finds the bewildering perplexity of a modern ship's anatomy made agreeably clear in a series of excellent plates, either sectional or in perspective, as the case demands. He then plunges into ropes and knots, a topic not without its interest even to the landsman. We recall the despair of a teamster, hauling logs in Tennessee, over his inability to make the rope fast to the drag-chain; his contempt when a sailor cast a Blackwall hitch (plate 11, fig. 9) into the rope and threw it over the hook; and the teamster's astonishment when he saw that "the derned thing held." "You are the beatingest cuss on ropes I ever see," was his tribute of praise. A short chapter on masts and masting supplies the present want on a topic which formerly required so elaborate a volume as 'Fincham on Masting.' That on sails would have commanded wider reading had a few paragraphs been devoted to the recent modes of cutting and spreading yachts' sails. The introduction of the batten and the fuller belly are at least as worthy of a place as the mechanical details of sounding machines and steam capstans. Of more than mere naval value are the instructions for handling weights. Many a factory superintendent would find profit in studying them.

It has been said that a sailor is the only marine animal that cannot swim; and the statement is painfully close to the truth. It may be added that he cannot sail a boat. For these two reasons Knight's sections telling of boats and their handling are greatly to be commended. Few naval officers, for example, ever get such an experience as fell to the lot of the naval cadets who landed Shafter's army through the surf on the south coast of Cuba in 1898. The steering of steamers and their management, especially about a dock and at sea in heavy weather, are discussed in a logical manner. This part of the book, evidencing as it does originality and painstaking care to embody the best nautical experience, drawn both from the navy and the merchant service, should appeal strongly to yachtsmen who aspire to the control of their own craft.

'Modern Seamanship' is very readable in places. Its injunctions for rescuing the crew of a wreck, for example, are enlivened by short accounts of appropriate and thrilling episodes. Broadly speaking, any one can handle a steamer when the sea is smooth, the sky clear, and there is nothing in sight. It is in times of storm, emergency, disaster that knowledge and experience are of supreme importance. For the latter, familiarity with what has been done before by others under similar circumstances is the only substitute. In this respect, 'Modern Seamanship' is most valuable, the best thought and practice of competent seamen having been culled and woven into suggestions which should be studied by all who go down to the sea in ships. This feature of the book inspires a confidence which an *ex-cathedra* tone would repel.

The manœuvres of the sailing ship receive due attention, but rather affectionately, as by one who regrets the passing away of the old order of things, than as the propagandist of a new faith. The reviewer would be false to his trust did he fail to point out that "gammoning," once an art in itself, is unmentioned, and that the faithful student of the 'Bab Ballads' will seek in vain through the pages of 'Modern Seamanship' for the key to Sir Blennerhasset Portico's perplexity over the "Mystic Selvagee." We believe that "gammoning" still survives, but on shore principally, and in its grosser signification.

While the book is modern in scope, it is also modern in method, for the long, verbose descriptions which overweighted many of its predecessors are replaced by numerous illustrations which make things clear at a glance, without sacrificing any matter of importance, and gain space for the discussion of current problems. There are, naturally, a few points wherein nautical men will not all agree with Lt.-Comdr. Knight, but consideration of them would be out of place here. The book is a notable, valuable, and timely contribution to naval technics, and it should find a welcome, as a trustworthy work of reference, in all large libraries, public or private, besides serving as an approved manual of the sailor's art on board of yachts, merchant vessels, and men-of-war.

THE ENCYCLOPÆDIA BIBLICA.

Encyclopædia Biblica: A Dictionary of the Bible edited by the Rev. T. K. Cheyne and J. S. Sutherland Black. Vol. II. E.—K. The Macmillan Co. 1901. Pp. 772.

Volume by volume, this great work is of a growing significance. In spite of all that can be said against its attitude, it stands absolutely alone in width of learning, in exactness of scholarship, in acuteness of insight and fertility in conjecture and hypothesis, and in precision of statement. Very seldom do the writers permit themselves an edifying touch; we have not noticed in this volume anything resembling the *bêtises* of that kind which appeared in the first. Dr. Cheyne's remark in col. 2577, on the spiritual excellence of the Jordan, seems to stand very nearly alone. The Arabic scholarship, too—the only side of scholarship which we criticised in the former volume—seems in this to be untouchable. It must be confessed, however, that none of the learned contributors has ventured any further disport to speak of in these perilous fields.

What has been said already of the general plan and scope of the first volume applies, and perhaps still more strongly, to this. Over it all there broods the presence and influence of the editor. Out of 127 articles of greater importance, Dr. Cheyne has entirely written or weightily collaborated in no less than thirty-five. In the case of the smaller articles, his contributions must mount still higher. By far the greater proportion of those which bear any signature at all have his initials. Finally, to reckon up the notes and comments in square brackets, signed and unsigned, which he has seen fit to add to the work of his contributors would be a hopeless task. Only articles which are the barest statement of fact and carry no responsibility of suggestion or interpretation have been left unsigned. The number of formally collaborated articles is comparatively large, and the combination has sometimes produced the happiest results. "Exodus," by Cheyne, S. A. Cook, and W. M. Müller, may be adduced as an example. But, in other cases, the results are by no means so fortunate. That is especially so in the articles taken over from the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' Where the writer still lives to revise his own work—*e. g.*, Wellhausen, on "Hexateuch"—it has been successfully brought up to date. But it would have been much better if the others, including, in spite of all *pietas*, those even by Robertson Smith, had been freely recast or entirely rewritten. The patchwork renovation which they have undergone is neither satisfactory in itself nor easy to read. It is a beautiful illustration of the documentary hypothesis; but that is all that can be said for it. In some cases, too, it is highly inadequate. The article, "Hebrew Language," should have been at least twice as long to meet its own importance and the scale of the rest of the book. Another of the few examples of inadequacy of treatment is the article "Jesus," by the late A. B. Bruce. It is short (only twenty columns) and vapid to a degree. We are actually left in doubt at the end as to whether or not the writer accepted the historicity of the Resurrection. This is one of the cases in which the 'Hastings Dictionary' has an easy superiority; Sanday's article on the same subject is excellent. To Dr. Bruce's article it could also be objected that it has no place in the scheme of the book. Biblical theology was ruled expressly out in the preface to the first volume, and this sketch consists really of Biblical theology, though of the wateriest. The same criticism applies still more to the article on "Faith"; that it says nothing about the Faith does not save it from being theological.

But it must not be thought that weakness and indefiniteness characterize the New Testament articles generally. It is rather the case that they take up an extreme "critical" position, and are worked out with great detail and thoroughness. Dr. Cheyne has evidently determined to apply vigorously the methods of Old Testament criticism to the New, and to introduce to English readers the most advanced results of German scholars. In this he has not been contented with letting his New Testament authorities go their own way, but has mingled in the fight himself, and has written several articles which we should hardly have looked for from a Hebraist, or, on another side, from a high dignitary in the Church of England. For, in truth, if this dictionary is under the strict over-lordship of its editor, that over-lordship is revealing in him a wealth of miscellaneous and many-sided learning that must fill us with astonishment. Dr. Cheyne seems to have claimed all theological knowledge for his portion, and to be making good his claim. It is also revealing a freedom from prejudice—to put it mildly—which will strike many people with consternation.

In all this, it need not be said, is an element of danger. This book, however excellent it is, must be regarded as representing—and that especially in the New Testament—a single school. Whoever consults it in order to gain some idea of the perfectly assured results on any subject, must do so cautiously. A good basis and reason, without doubt, can be given for everything here, but, equally without doubt, there is here an enormous mass of contentious matter. And when, within the authority of a single school, we have the authority of a single man dominating it all, there is still more need to repeat, "Caveat lector!" Dr. Cheyne turns from his lighthearted emending of Hebrew texts and criticism of Hebrew sources to no less lighthearted Greek efforts. These things must come and go and come and go again, but it is well to remember the fate of Bentley, how happily he emended corrupt texts, and how

brilliantly he failed when he applied the same methods and spirit to texts relatively sound. And even in dealing with most corrupt Hebrew texts, it is well also to remember that a conjectural emendation which *may* have been the original reading, can by no means be treated as the certainly original reading. Such guesses as those of Dr. Cheyne on Jael (col. 2313) and Qoheleth (col. 2686) may be right, but cannot be proved right, and have large odds against them.

It remains to note some of the articles of most outstanding importance. High among these must come that on the Gospels by E. A. Abbot and P. W. Schmiedel. It is by far the longest, running to 134 columns, and could not easily be overpraised as an elaborate development of a certain position. Of course that position is most extreme, even from the standpoint of an anti-supernaturalist. The historical skepticism and subtlety of evasion displayed in it would be laughed out of court if applied to any documents or figures of "profane" history. Yet we must be grateful for it; after it nothing can come but a reaction. Equally weighty, if not so long, is that on John, son of Zebedee, also by Schmiedel (59 columns). John the Baptist is taken by Cheyne. "Israel" (72 columns) is by Guthe, and "Eschatology" (55 columns), already noticed in its larger book form, by R. H. Charles. Cheyne has treated Isaiah, Job—an illuminative article, but disappointingly indefinite in certain particulars—Esau, Isaac, Jacob, Jephthah, Jonah, and very many other rubrics. All his articles are of such a character as to make us look with impatience for his promised 'Critica Biblica.' It will evidently contain the lengthier treatment and justification of much that now seems scrappy and baldly daring. One of the best articles in the book is that on Egypt by W. M. Müller (45 columns), which stands easily first among recent English treatises on the subject. By the same author are several other Egyptological articles. Nöldeke has treated Edom, Esther, Hagar, Ishmael, etc., most fully and learnedly; A. B. Davidson, Ecclesiastes; M. R. James, Esdras; Kautzsch, Kings; G. F. Moore, many articles, including Genesis, Exodus, Historical Literature, etc.; N. Schmidt, Jeremiah; Toy, Ecclesiasticus and Ezekiel. Such, in a dry catalogue, is part of the contents of a deeply interesting book.

We have here not only a thesaurus of Biblical information—perhaps rather one-sided in its presentation—but also a clear indication of a theological drift. This drift of the whole is unmistakable, and it helps us far into the light as to the ultimate outcome of the extreme critical school. How such scholars as Professors Davidson, Driver, and G. A. Smith feel themselves in their present company must remain dubious; a certain hackneyed quotation from Molière about a *galère* rises to the mind. But the path before Dr. Cheyne and his confrères is clear. The Protestant doctrine of Scripture is for them utterly shattered; no fine fence over the word "inspiration" can help them. For a positive religious attitude they have no basis left, except authority, expressed either in the tradition of a church or in the mystical perceptions of the individual. They have moved far beyond the distinction between the historicity of the Old and of the New Testaments, to which the English critical school so long clung, and which was expressed so ably by Driver in the preface to his 'Literature of the Old Testament.' The Gospels are going the way of the Pentateuch; the Epistles, the way of the Prophets; and Driver's plea of difference between the "Song of Hannah" and the "Magnificat" has been whistled down the wind. The figure of Jesus fades into a misty uncertainty like that of Apollonius of Tyana, and we shall soon be back at a point where Blount's seventeenth-century comparison between the Gospels and Philostratus's life of the same Apollonius will again have weight. Under these conditions the Church of Rome will undoubtedly draw many into its shelter, and others will soothe themselves with vague phrases and mystical aspirations. For those who hold, however broadly, to an historical revelation, it is now time to face a crisis.

There are several maps, some of which are good and clear. Those of Palestine itself are small in scale and inadequate in details; they cannot compete in any respect with the maps of G. A. Smith's 'Historical Geography,' which seem to have been their model.

The Story of My Life. By Augustus J. C. Hare. Vols. III. and IV. London: George Allen; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1901.

Mr. Hare informs us in his preface that, with the exception of the last two chapters, these two volumes were printed at the same time with the first two in 1896. They were not published then, presumably, because of a fear that others might not share his preference for a very long book if it be at the same time a pleasant one. The change from the temper of those first volumes to that of these is certainly remarkable. Mr. Hare takes back nothing, and here and there he devotes a page to the repulsive traits of his ancestors and relatives, but time and death have softened the outlines of his denunciation of the Hares and Maurices, who did most to make his early life a torture and a shame; and as the story leaves behind the *dramatis personæ* of the earlier years, and new actors take new parts upon the crowded stage, the prevailing note is that of generous appreciation. Mr. Hare is himself the most persistent character, and he proves much more attractive as he advances from middle life to the borders of old age. He permits himself "the delights of admiration" without stint. Of personal vanity there is less than we might naturally expect in one having entrance to so many noble houses and acquaintance with so many people of importance. Best of all is his relation to his servants, and especially to Mary Lea Gidman, who nursed his infancy and remained with him until her death when she was full of years.

Mr. Hare informs the public that it is under no obligation to read his book at all, if it is thought too long; or it may be read skippingly. But the matter for the most part is so entertaining that only the most serious-minded will care to omit many pages. It can hardly be complained that the writer makes too much of his own affairs, so intent is he on those of other people. For future students of the social life of England in Victoria's reign, Mr. Hare has written an invaluable memoir. Places are described with the skill we should expect from the practised hand which wrote 'Walks in Rome' and many similar books. He seems to be always on the go, passing from one town or country house to another in an endless round of visits and festivities. He does well to remind us that this nomadic life is not exhaustive of his time; that it was periodic, and, between its recurrent seasons, there were others of quiet study at his beloved Holmhurst, and yet others of working travel, when he was engaged in preparing his literary guide-books or personally conducting the royal Prince of Sweden or some other more or less docile pupil on a course of migratory instruction.

It was the ethereal gust and not the carnal feast which attracted him to "rich men furnished with ability, living peaceably in their habitations." He counted that day lost on which he added nothing to his stock of amusing stories, or his store of personal talk. His stories, which are numberless, are good, bad, and indifferent. Many of them are of that kind which his American friends called "chestnuts." Two, at least, of the best have been associated in this country with Phillips Brooks, and the scales are only partially redressed by the attribution to Phillips Brooks of what is—so we have heard—a happy phrase of Sydney Smith. The setting of these familiar stories, as Mr. Hare repeats them, is so particular that we should be obliged to think it the genuine original setting were not our American variants equally particular. In regard to things American, there is a general contempt, qualified by particular admirations, with that degree of inaccuracy which makes us wonder if our American blunders about English matters are more frequent or absurd. Dr. Cyrus Bartol figures as "Silas" in a story which is not flattering to Mrs. Fanny Kemble. We have not only Mr. Hare's own stories of his contemporaries, which seem inclusive of all recent reputations, but reminiscences of older people to the second and third generation, which are often quite as good. In this secondary fashion the Grotes are prominent, while with Carlyle the touch is both immediate and reminiscent. Mr. Hare was often meeting Lord Houghton at one place and another, and he represents him as the embodiment of good-natured vanity. "Even I," he said of a good thing, "never said anything better than that." His bon-mots were only less numerous than Sydney Smith's. To Gladstone, saying that his own was a dog's life, Houghton answered, "Yes, a St. Bernard's; saving many lives your business." Sydney Smith's reply to Landseer, who wished him to sit for his portrait, "Is thy servant a dog that he should do this thing?" is represented as an afterthought which the wily dean was glad to substitute for his actual and commonplace reply. Did Smith say that Whewell's "foible" was omniscience, or his "passion," as here represented? It is amusing to read of George Ticknor, that typical Boston aristocrat, as "of the most lowly origin." Lord Beaconsfield was not attractive to Mr. Hare, who takes pleasure in relating that Lady Beaconsfield was originally a factory girl. Her first husband found her with bare feet, married her, and, dying, left her rich. When asked why she married Disraeli, she answered: "My dear, he made love to me while my first husband was alive, and, therefore, I knew that he really loved me." No one is touched more lovingly than Hugh Pearson, Dean Stanley's dearest friend. He would have had Mr. Hare write Stanley's biography, but one of Stanley's executors interfered. One of Pearson's contributions to Mr. Hare's

collection of felicities was the following quatrain of Mr. Justice Bruce:

> "The ladies praise our curate's eyes;
> I cannot see their light divine:
> He always shuts them when he prays,
> And, when he preaches, closes mine."

But as yet we have not mentioned one note of Mr. Hare's story which recurs more frequently than any other—so frequently that the sub-title of his book might very properly have been, "A Collection of Ghost and Murder Stories, with Many Remarkable Coincidences and Premonitions." There are dozens and scores of these things in Mr. Hare's volumes. His predilection for them was remarkable, and wherever he went they gravitated to him like steel filings to a powerful magnet. The Society for Psychical Research would find in them much food for reflection. The trouble is that most of these stories could not be verified at this remove from the actual occurrences. What they prove is the abundance of their kind and of the popular belief in them. Some of them are grim and ghastly enough to bring back the ghost of Poe; some of them curious enough to persuade Hawthorne to revisit the pale glimpses of the moon. The judicious reader will not read them just before going to bed.

The Diplomatic History of the Southern Confederacy. [The Albert Shaw Lectures on Diplomatic History, 1900.] By James Morton Callahan, Ph.D. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press. 1901. Pp. 304.

It has long been known to scholars interested in the history of the civil war that the almost complete diplomatic archives of the Confederacy are in the Treasury Department at Washington, and they have been extensively used by biographers of Lincoln and of Seward and by Mr. Bigelow in his 'France and the Confederate Navy.' However, there was still room, need even, for a systematic narrative showing how the Confederate hopes of early recognition and independence came to nothing. Dr. Callahan has undertaken to supply this. He has read the Confederate, the United States, and the British diplomatic correspondence perhaps as closely as any predecessor; he has gone through a large number of histories, biographies, and diaries about the Confederates; he has made excellent use of several files of Southern newspapers; and from all these sources he has taken good notes. In gathering his materials he has been even zealously industrious. Where he is disappointing is in construction. He marshals on his printed page apparently nearly all the notes he made, relevant or irrelevant to Confederate aims; hundreds of facts, rumors, suspicions, and guesses are distributed among eleven chapters, and are given hasty and imperfect arrangement.

The first two chapters, one-fifth of the book, describe the Confederate diplomatic archives, tell how they came to be acquired by the United States, and give a fragmentary sketch of "The Confederate Government, Politics, and Finances." There is no intention to depreciate the Confederacy and its most serious leaders, but Dr. Callahan has been so much impressed by the criticisms, fears, and discontent of weak-kneed Confederates that he has forgotten to explain to his readers what it was in Davis and Lee and Benjamin and Slidell and nineteen-twentieths of the people of the Cotton States that gave the Confederacy vigorous life and extensive European sympathy. At least the chapter on "The Confederate Foreign Policy" ought to open with sentences designed to excite the reader's curiosity, and make him feel that the diplomatic history of the Confederacy is worth serious consideration. The first paragraph, however, is as follows:

> "James L. Orr, Chairman of the Confederate House Committee on Foreign Relations, once said that the Confederacy never had a foreign policy, and never attempted any high diplomacy. Whatever may be thought of this statement, the failure of the Confederacy was certainly not due to any deficiency in the number of its agents abroad. Jefferson Davis commissioned many diplomatic, consular, and secret agents to watch every opportunity to negotiate treaties or to press Confederate interests."

Here, as in other places, the author displays a lack of literary tact; and there are very few signs that he has digested his material or done much careful thinking about it or his own composition. It is notorious that all but a few of the Confederate leaders were confident that, in the event of war with the North and a consequent blockade of Southern ports, the need of cotton for the manufactories of England and France would compel one or both of them at least to break the blockade. This would probably lead to war between the United States and the intervening Power or Powers, and such a war would surely and speedily give the Confederacy independence. Robert Barnwell Rhett had an equally complete and much more energetic plan of shaping the foreign relations of the Confederacy. He proposed, says Dr. Callahan (p. 84), on the authority of Yancey's biographer:

> "(1.) A treaty of commercial alliance involving reciprocal obligations, offensive and defensive, for twenty years or more, during which the Confederacy would impose no import duty higher than 20 per cent. ad valorem, no tonnage except for maintaining harbors and rivers, and would permit European parties to the treaty to enjoy the privileges of the coasting trade free, subject only to the police regulations of the State. (2.) A discriminating duty of 10 per cent. on all goods of all nations refusing to accept the treaty. (3.) The commissioners to have power (as Franklin in 1778) to form alliances with European Powers and guarantee their North American possessions."

Of course, if there was a good basis for the conviction that "King Cotton" would be all-powerful, it was better to be content with the natural alliance with him. But would a wise and sober-minded statesman have believed implicitly in him? Were there not developments that were vital and yet beyond the range of human foresight? Would it have been safer to start with Rhett's programme? Would that have attracted France or Great Britain? or would it have been a confession that the Confederates recognized that their own strength was wholly inadequate for their task? These are questions of the first importance in the diplomatic history of the Confederacy, and any author possessing originality and grasp of his subject could hardly have failed to furnish instructive speculations in regard to them.

"Let the facts tell their own story" is a saying accepted by many persons. Yes, but what are "facts"? What is evidence? What is a probability, even? The most that can be done here is to give a few examples of our author's poor judgment as to these questions. "Benjamin," he calmly states (p. 79), "in a letter [written in 1860] to the English Consul in New York, said that the conditions might arise which would even induce the Southern States to resume their former allegiance to England." The sole authority for this sentence is a letter printed in Barnes's 'Life of Thurlow Weed.' This letter is absurd on its face, and is made more so by Mr. Barnes's explanation that it came from the British Consul to the British Minister, and subsequently ceased to be a secret. Since it was printed by Mr. Barnes, seventeen years ago, scores of scholars have read it and would have referred to it if they had regarded it as genuine. As far as we know, Dr. Callahan is the first to be so bold as to give full credence to an apparently spurious document, in which Mr. Barnes himself had so little faith that he felt called upon to say, "This letter is published on what is believed to be trustworthy authority." This meant nothing less than that it was not copied from a manuscript in Benjamin's handwriting, and therefore may have been somebody's hoax or guess, like many other "bits of secret history" of all times of excitement. In a dozen other places the merest suspicions and rumors, which meant next to nothing, are quoted as if they were significant historical evidence. This peculiarity reaches a climax in the chapter entitled "The Last Effort—Kenner's Mission." Upon the authority of the recollections of two or three very old men, trying to recall what they were told had occurred a third of a century before, we are furnished with a minute account of Duncan F. Kenner's being given full power to negotiate a gigantic deal in cotton and make a treaty with either Great Britain or France, or both, promising emancipation in exchange for recognition or substantial assistance. His powers, we are told, were so great, although orally bestowed, that he could even displace or remove Slidell or Mason. That the Confederacy was about to change its diplomatic policy to correspond with the enlistment (and practical emancipation) of slaves as soldiers is very probable. That Kenner carried oral and written instructions to Mason and Slidell is all but certain, for one of Mason's dispatches of the time indicates as much. But it is like throwing away compass and rudder to accept as historical evidence what one man thought he recollected, long afterward, of what another man had told him had happened several years before.

The author states that shortly after the Kenner chapter was first printed—very properly in a newspaper—an editorial writer in the Washington *Post* affirmed that Prince Polignac, a Frenchman in the Confederate military service, was sent, early in 1865, to offer to Napoleon III., in exchange for the use of an army to gain Confederate independence, all the territory of the Louisiana Purchase within the borders of the Confederacy. This was important secret history, and was well authenticated; for one Major Moncure, who accompanied Polignac on the mission, told the editorial writer after his return. But Polignac himself, although still alive and vigorous, was so poor a judge of well-authenticated history as to cable a prompt and effective denial. Had he chanced not to hear the story—as might easily have been the case, for he divides his year between Paris, winter resorts, and châteaux in different European countries—

it would have had as good an historical foundation as many of the statements in the Kenner incident.

Problèmes Politiques du Temps Présent. Par Émile Faguet, de l'Académie Française. Paris: Armand Colin. 1901.

It would seem as if French critics of to-day, not finding enough to work upon in the literary realm, all felt the need of widening their range of activity. In recent years we have seen them, one after another, deserting literary criticism for politics, invading the forum, and addressing the crowd on all the issues of the day. To be sure, this interest in public affairs on the part of littérateurs is not altogether new. Villemain was a Minister of Public Instruction. St.-Marc Girardin was a Deputy. Sainte-Beuve and Edmond Scherer belonged to the Senate. But those great critics, while deeply interested in their civic duties, did not, like their successors of to-day, who have become rabid partisans, regard politics as coming within the control of their critical power. M. Brunetière was the first to start the movement when, ten years ago, he assumed the part of a lay apologist of religion as opposed to science, and a defender of Roman Catholicism as opposed to other forms of Christianity. Gradually he worked himself up to the point of making others and himself believe that he believes what he does not believe, and he is now a favorite lecturer with all theological seminaries, where he expatiates, with his unrivalled rhetorical gift, on the necessity of supporting both the Church and the army, *le sabre et le goupillon.* M. Jules Lemaître, the ingenious, skeptical, and witty critic of contemporary writers, has, ever since the Dreyfus affair, devoted all that is left of his exquisite talent to the cause of a cheap nationalism and to scathing denunciations of the Waldeck-Rousseau Ministry. M. Émile Faguet is too well-balanced and lucid a mind to throw himself into militant party politics. "As everybody knows, I belong to no party," is a statement with which he begins one of his chapters, and which he is fond of repeating. He contents himself with being a well-informed, clever, and impartial writer on political topics. No one, moreover, has been better fitted to deal with those problems than a man who has had such a profound and extensive knowledge of all the great political and economical writers of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

This new book, if anything, is timely. It goes deeply into each and every one of the questions which confront, at this very hour, the people of France. Of the five chapters which compose the volume there is but one which is not a burning question of the day in French politics. Whether the French Revolution was socialistic in its acts or its tendencies may be of great historical interest, but it has no practical bearing on the social problem of our time. M. Faguet, nevertheless, has invested the subject with the interest he knows so well how to impart to every question he discusses. He has satisfactorily demonstrated that the Revolution was not in the least socialistic, in the collectivistic meaning of that word (which is the only plausible one), but that its measures intended for levelling fortunes, though socialistic in spirit, actually strengthened the old system by increasing the number of land-owners. Moreover, while the most representative orators of the Constituent Assembly never dreamed of suppressing a right which they wanted to extend to all, the "Declaration of the Rights of Man" considered property as "sacred and inalienable." The chapter devoted to the French Parliamentary Régime is easily the most amusing of the volume. M. Faguet recites, in his terse and witty manner, all the grievances often charged against the parliamentary system as we have seen it work in France since 1870. The waste of time, the confusion of powers, the tyranny of petty politicians, the instability of government, the weakness of the President, are the criticisms which, besides many others, M. Faguet directs against the political system of his country, and which he develops with his keenness of observation and in his vivid style. "I do not believe that any factory is more badly managed than political and administrative France," sums up his estimate of the whole institution. As to the standard of French politicians, this is what he has to say: "France is governed by a class of Frenchmen who are incapable of doing anything else"—which is more witty than true. M. Faguet does not, like M. Déroulède and a score of other Frenchmen, stop with criticising; he has framed a Constitution of his own for the benefit of his countrymen, who, alas, will not be able to avail themselves of it because he will never find legislators self-sacrificing enough to reduce their number from 581 to 200, nor willing to share their Presidential vote with the élite of professional and intellectual citizens whom he wants to join with them in order to strengthen the President's power and authority. Furthermore, it may be said, and M. Faguet is too fair to deny it, that, with all its defects, French Parliamentarism has given to the country thirty years of democratic government, countless laws which make for human enfranchisement and progress, and a colonial empire the growth of which has been the most remarkable achievement of the Third Republic.

The chapter on "Army and Democracy" is merely a clever commentary on one of M. Brunetière's pamphlets, in which our author shows, without great novelty, that patriotism must find its embodiment in a strong love for the army, which both represents and protects the country. This brings us back to the period, now three years old, when half the writers of France were fighting either for justice or for the fatherland. The instinctive feelings of M. Faguet, and, perhaps, his interest as an academical candidate, did not allow him to be on the better side of the crucial fight. On the Freedom of Public Instruction, a topic which, all through the century, has been a great issue, and which is now being revived by the Associations Bill and the bill on the Stage Scolaire presented by the Waldeck-Rousseau Ministry, M. Faguet has nothing but sensible and convincing arguments. This chapter, as well as the final one, on the relations of Church and State, show our author at his best, with his remarkable aptitude for seeing every side of every question, his breadth of view, his independence and sincerity.

Those who are curious to know how the educational and religious problems which are before the French Parliament present themselves to-day, will find in M. Faguet's book not merely a clear résumé, but a brilliant discussion of both questions. M. Faguet is, above all, a Liberal. He is, moreover, a man of common sense. Thus, he was able to demonstrate victoriously, with historical arguments and examples drawn from experience, that liberty and fair play are the best policy in both educational and religious matters. The French universities will gain nothing by trying to hamper denominational instruction, and the Church, which clings so desperately to its State privileges, would gain everything by conquering its entire independence, and imitating the churches of America whose example has so deeply impressed M. Faguet. Unfortunately the trend of politics in France is not towards Liberalism. The old fight between the parties of the past and those of the future is still raging as strong as ever, and the country seems to pass merely from one clericalism to another—since Jacobinism is, in the words of a French writer, nothing but a *cléricalisme à rebours.* M. Faguet, though by temper an optimist, cannot refrain from expressing his apprehension in noting that the general movement is not towards more freedom, but more compulsion, and that the triumph of democracy and of socialism will be characterized by a reign of absolute and tyrannical "égalitarisme" which will be another name for a new era of barbarism.

Andromache: A Play in Three Acts. By Gilbert Murray. London: W. Heinemann.

In writing this play, Mr. Murray has ventured on one of the boldest experiments that can be made in literature. His contention is that "a simple historical play, with as little convention as possible, placed in the Greek Heroic Age, and dealing with one of the ordinary heroic stories, ought to be an interesting experiment." Interesting it certainly is—a most interesting failure. It is a curious hybrid production, essentially un-Greek in form and treatment, though the actors wear Greek dress and the action takes place in Phthia, the kingdom of the dead Achilles.

The points of unlikeness to a Greek play are partly connected with structure, partly with the conception of character. In the first place, Mr. Murray has used the modern division of three acts, and, recognizing that it is impossible so to resuscitate the Greek point of view in a modern audience as to succeed in making the Greek chorus interesting or even tolerable, he has cut out the chorus altogether. To write such a play as this in English verse that would satisfy the ear was possible to Shakspere; and we could imagine M. Rostand, if his genius were not so essentially romantic, achieving it in French. But Mr. Murray has realized his own limitations to the extent of confining himself to prose, and prose, moreover, that has a strong flavor of Ibsen's staccato manner, as befits a play dedicated to Mr. William Archer. The Greek convention, according to which death scenes on the stage should be avoided, is here disregarded, and both Pyrrhus and Andromache are slain in sight of the audience. We are told by those who saw the single performance of Mr. Murray's play when it was given by the Stage Society in London last spring, that, whether owing to bad acting, or to the fact that Horace was right and the thing cannot be effectively done, the effect was ludi-

crous, so that the phrase "moon-struck butchers" evolved by a London critic sticks fatally to the play. Mr. Murray's appeal is, in any case, to an esoteric audience, and the "Andromache" is like a Greek play at any rate in assuming that the spectators know the legend and can follow the plot without explanations.

The bases of all the later literary versions of the Andromache legend are the sixth book of the Iliad and the third of the Aeneid. It was the Virgilian passage that Racine took as his text; but neither he nor Mr. Murray ventured to tell the truth according to Virgil. Racine ignored the fact that Andromache bore sons to Pyrrhus, and finally married her brother-in-law Helenus—"patrio Andromachen iterum cessisse marito." The very existence of Molossus would have alienated French sympathies from Hector's widow; so, in "Andromaque" Astyanax still lives, and Andromache still resists the advances of Pyrrhus. To every age its peculiar squeamishness. The Athenians felt only a comfortable sense of the conventional adjustment of things when, at the close of the "Andromache" of Euripides, Thetis hands over to Helenus the widow of Hector and of Pyrrhus. Mr. Murray has had the courage to introduce Molossus, but even he could not tolerate a third husband for Andromache, so she dies at the hand of Hermione, "that wild beast," as Orestes, most improbably, is made to describe her.

The whole tragedy is written in a different tone from that of antiquity, transposed to suit the century, which is no more than Euripides did in order to make his "Andromache" intelligible to the Athenians. In Racine's second preface he says, "J'ai cru me conformer à l'idée que nous avons maintenant de cette princesse." Even so Mr. Murray gives us a Christianized Andromache, who turns the other cheek and almost quotes Scripture. The subject of the play is the coming of Orestes, with the inevitable Pylades, to Phthia, about fifteen years after the fall of Troy, to see whether Hermione, the daughter of Helen, wedded to Pyrrhus, "is indeed so passing beautiful." Hermione is drawn as the jealous and vindictive woman, the barren queen of Racine and Euripides. Orestes is the conventional figure, *tristis*, pursued by the Furies whom he alone can see; his is the most convincing character in the play except that his sudden abhorrence of Hermione's character is an essentially modern touch—in fact, the *Odi et amo* tone of the last scene is far too complex for the atmosphere of the Greek stage; Orestes gives the effect of having read too many novels.

The play will, we fear, fail to please either an audience of scholars or the general public. We do not say that Mr. Murray has attempted the impossible; only that he has proved it to be impossible to Mr. Murray, and demonstrated that it is not enough for this purpose to be a most accomplished Greek professor and man of letters, unless one is also a great dramatic poet and a master of the grand style.

Greek Thinkers: A History of Ancient Philosophy. By Theodore Gomperz. Vol. I. Translated by Laurie Magnus. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

Professor Gomperz's 'Griechische Denker' has been, for several years, a recognized classic in the field of philosophical literature. The first instalment of the authorized English translation is a volume of some 600 pages, and will be welcome to all English-speaking philosophical students. Professor Gomperz's style, brilliant as far as is possible to German prose, and heavily charged with metaphor, is by no means easy to translate. His coöperation with Mr. Magnus has secured what will, no doubt, remain the standard translation of this important work. The English is excellent, and we have nowhere discovered such failures of the translator to think himself out of the German idiom as usually disfigure the translations of German books. This first volume deals with the early Greek thinkers before Socrates, and, as a refreshing change from the stereotyped histories of the Pre-Socratics, includes studies of the historians and physicians of Greece; Professor Gomperz's range being, as the title indicates, wider than that of the regular historian of philosophy. The method usually employed by such historians has been to give a life of the man, an outline of his system, and its relation to the systems of his predecessors and successors. Professor Gomperz aims at disentangling all the varied influences of climate, Oriental philosophies—above all, the influence of the Greek colonies on the intellectual life of Greece.

"Greece may be said to look east and south. Her back is turned to the north and west with their semi-barbaric conditions. . . . There was Greece in her infancy on the one side, and the immemorial civilizations on the other: who was to ply between them? The link was found . . . in those hardy adventurers of the sea, the merchant people of Phœnicia. . . . Thus it happened that the Greeks acquired the elements of culture from Babylon and Egypt without paying the forfeit of independence" (p. 5).

Following his exhaustive discussions of the systems of the pre-Socratic philosophers, Professor Gomperz turns to the physicians, whose schools furnished a "third source from which the spirit of criticism derived its nourishment"; the other two being the metaphysical and dialectical discussions practised by the Eleatic philosophers, and the semi-historical method which was applied to the myths of Hecatæus and Herodotus. The beginnings of mental and moral science he traces in the work of the Sophists, and his lengthy studies of Protagoras and of Gorgias are an invaluable contribution to the history of the mental development of the Greeks. Nearly a hundred pages of explanatory notes and an excellent provisional index complete the volume, whose printing and paper are admirable.

Mr. Magnus is unable to continue the work of translating the second volume, which deals mainly with Socrates and Plato, and will be most welcome to Platonic students. This is much to be regretted; when the three volumes of which the work consists appear in English, it will be a decided defect that they are translated by different hands.

Moths and Butterflies. By Mary C. Dickerson, B.S. (University of Chicago). With two hundred photographs from life by the author. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1901. Pp. 344, fig. 233.

"The book 'Moths and Butterflies' is entirely untechnical in its treatment of the subject. It will identify by means of photographs from life forty common forms, in caterpillar, chrysalis or cocoon, and adult stages. It makes clear the external structure adapting the creature to its life; it describes and illustrates the changes in form from caterpillar to chrysalis, from chrysalis to butterfly. It is adapted to give quick insight into the secrets of the group."

The above is the author's own statement concerning her work, and in a measure it is justified. The last sentence should be amended, however, by changing the word "quick" to "a slight," and inserting the words "a very few of" after "into." For of moths and butterflies, as a whole, little is really said; and of a very few species much is said that has been said over and over again by writer after writer since Harris and Yaeger. The photographs, and the reproductions from them, are mostly good—some even very good—and generally characteristic. The author has evidently seen it all herself, and has devoted a great deal of time and work to securing life-like pictures. Many features and positions are shown that have not been previously figured, and the life histories are accurately and as a rule interestingly written.

The book starts with a detailed account of the common milk-weed butterfly or "Monarch," and this is used as a basis of reference in the accounts given of other kinds. No particular system is followed in the order of species, and 113 pages are devoted to nine butterflies, though incidentally three others are figured as adults. And here it may also be said that the author's claim with regard to "forty common forms" applies really to less than thirty, though enough to make up the designated number may be figured in one stage or another.

While preaching accuracy of observation, the author occasionally allows herself little lapses, as when, on p. 17, she speaks of "hundreds of tiny sharp hooks" on each pro-leg of the milk-weed caterpillar. The number ranges from 35 to 50 by actual count. And again, on page 46, we have "hundreds of tiny hooks," where only tens exist. Surely nature is wonderful enough without exaggeration, and surely, too, the tendency to exaggerate, naturally found in children, for whom the author writes, should not be encouraged by such manifestly erroneous statements. Further, on page 194, in the account of the "yellow bear," the caterpillar is referred to as "having passed through many moults," while really there are no more than is normal throughout the group to which it belongs. The description of the cocoons of tiger moths on page 191 would be more interesting and more accurate if the character of the larval hair and their real felting structure were mentioned.

The book will be useful to New England school-children, for whom, apparently, it is mainly designed. All the species referred to occur in that section, and some occur only in the faunal region to which this section belongs. The book is excellently printed from large, clear type, on good paper, with a full table of contents and very complete index.

Egypt and the Hinterland. By Frederic Walter Fuller. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901. Map, 8vo, pp. xv, 333.

The British occupation, what has it accomplished for Egypt and the Egyptians?—this is the question which Mr. Fuller endeavors to answer. He accordingly tells, often in Lord Cromer's own language, how

the national finances have been put on a sound basis, and what steps have been taken and with what success to relieve the peasants from their indebtedness to the village usurers. He shows by numerous statistics the improvement and enlargement of the educational system and the progress of emancipation. Then he passes to a review of the methods by which the courts have been remodelled so as to bring justice within the reach of the poorest, and describes at length the irrigation-works by which the natural wealth of the country has been indefinitely increased. These "facts and figures" are prefaced and followed by a résumé of the events which led to the occupation, and a sketch of the recent Sudanese campaign. There is also a chapter, the most original in the book, on the native Christians, in which the author corrects some statements unfavorable to the morality and intelligence of the Copts to be found in certain books on Egypt.

Mr. Fuller is evidently familiar with his subject, and has brought together much valuable material, but he has not the literary faculty to put it in an interesting form. Though he has travelled extensively in the country, he rarely enlivens his dry details by illuminating facts drawn from his personal experiences. He gives no information in regard to the improvement of the material condition of the fellahin, of which a comparative analysis of the imports of the last two decades would have afforded abundant proof. He makes no reference, in fact, beyond a few cotton-crop figures, to the commercial expansion of the past twenty years. The chief merit of his book is that it gives the latest information on the subjects which it does treat, and no one can read it without increased admiration for the Englishmen who, under the stimulating leadership of Lord Cromer, have made Egypt what she is to-day.

An account of the Coptic cult is to be found in an appendix. There is an excellent index and an admirable map of the Nile Valley.

Giambattista Vico, Primo Scopritore della Scienza Estetica. Da Benedetto Croce. Naples: Detken & Rocholl.

Some time ago we had occasion to mention very briefly the work of the Neapolitan scholar, Benedetto Croce, who had just published a thin volume on the foundations of æsthetics as the first instalment of a complete 'Storia dell' Estetica.' A second instalment of this important work has been appearing as a series of articles in the Italian periodical *Flegrea,* and of these the volume before us is a reprint. It is presented to the world of scholars as an historical introduction to the more extended work, and as a first or preparatory résumé of the author's researches.

The title of the essay, however, scarcely indicates the wide scope of its general interest. A dozen pages or so are devoted to Vico himself, in support of the author's thesis that, ten years before the appearance of Baumgarten's first book, the Italian philosopher had already laid the foundations of modern æsthetic science; but it is not merely as a monograph on a single theory of art that the essay makes its real appeal to the student of æsthetics and of literary criticism. Partly, but not wholly, in support of the main theme, Croce has given a rapid but luminous survey of æsthetic theory from the Greeks to the beginning of the eighteenth century, bringing out with great clearness the trend of Hellenic discussion, the vital deficiency of mediæval theorizing, and the positive contributions of Renaissance thought to this particular field. It is here, perhaps, that the essay is most valuable, for the historians of æsthetics, like Zimmermann and Schasler, have failed to realize the importance of Renaissance theory, and the latest historian, Bosanquet, airily dismisses the long line of writers from Thomas Aquinas to Baumgarten in a paragraph or two. Croce has utilized the latest researches of Renaissance scholarship, and has made them more vital by connecting them with the general movement of critical thought.

The Greeks had understood the problem of æsthetics, but had failed to solve it; in attempting the solution, however, they had prepared an element that was to serve as the narcotic of all æsthetic discussion. This narcotic was the pedagogic theory of art; and, while Croce has misunderstood or underestimated the universal elements in the Aristotelian 'Poetics,' he is right in finding here the general trend of ancient thought. The Middle Ages accepted and refined on the pedagogic theory of art, and, as a result, we have the allegorical expositions of Fulgentius and the "four meanings" of Dante. The Renaissance did not do away with this conception of the end of art, though it refused to accept the mediæval perversions; but, with the recovery of Aristotle's 'Poetics,' the fundamental problem of artistic truth or verisimilitude was more rightly apprehended, and it was here that the future of æsthetic science was prepared for.

A century of modern critical theorizing produced a more thorough comprehension of these problems, and by the seventeenth century had effected a general scheme of procedure as well as created a number of technical terms, which were coined or at least gained currency about this time. Such were the now familiar terms: imagination, taste, sentiment, fancy, and the like. These were all-important factors, for, without a well-understood terminology of its own, æsthetic science could not work. Croce has briefly but clearly sketched the history of each of these terms, and it is here that the information will be found most interesting and novel by the general reader. Here, too, the essay best supplements the standard histories of the subject; Bosanquet, for example, fails to take account of some of the most important of these terms, which have become part of cultivated speech as well as of technical theory.

Vico's contribution to the subject lay in his original conception of the verisimilitude of art. It is needless to enter into this question at any length, and to point out precisely how he anticipated by some years the studies of Baumgarten and later German æstheticians. If the author has not convincingly justified the title of his essay, he has at least shed light on the art theory of an important thinker, and performed true pioneer work. The essay is not without deficiencies, and its briefness alone will not account for some of the more hasty generalizations. But it is always suggestive, and particularly so when connecting critical theory with the wider fields of æsthetic science. Their relation is not unlike that which ethics bears to metaphysics, and both literary critics and æstheticians are more and more prone to forget this.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Supremacy. Charles A. Bates.
Conder, Arthur R. The Seal of Silence. D. Appleton & Co. $1.00.
Diehl, Charles. En Méditerranée. Paris: Armand Colin.
Gurdji, V. Oriental Rug Weaving. F. Tennyson Neely Co.
Harris, Frank B. The Road to Ridgeby's. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.50.
Liebknecht, Wilhelm. Karl Marx. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.
MacMechan, Archibald. Carlyle on Heroes, Hero-Worship and the Heroic in History. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Niebuhr, Carl. The Tell el-Amarna Period. London: David Nutt.
O'Rell, Max. Her Royal Highness Woman. Abbey Press. $1.50.
Sheldon, W. L. A Scheme for Class Study and Readings in the Bible. Chicago: Unity Pub. Co.
The Book of the Horace Club, 1898-1901. London: B. H. Blackwell. 5s.
Verne, Jules. Une Ville Flottante. Henry Holt & Co. 40 cents.
Waters, Henry F. Genealogical Gleanings in England. 2 vols. Boston: Rockwell & Churchill Press.
White, John. Exercises in Qualitative Chemistry. Henry Holt & Co. 80 cents.

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Mrs. LaGrange lay upon the low couch, her features scarcely paler than a few hours before, but now rigid in death. Upon the table beside her the supper stood untasted, while on the same table a small vial bearing the label of one of the deadliest of poisons, but empty, told the story. Underneath the vial was a slip of paper, on which was written:

"I have staked my highest card—and lost! The game is done."

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 25, 1901.

The Week.

It would be interesting to know what the real feelings of the "high priest of protection" are when he proclaims free trade with Porto Rico to-day. We all remember how ready Mr. McKinley was to recommend unrestrained intercourse with that island to Congress as "our plain duty," and with what characteristic grace and true devotion to principle he found it proper to advise a tariff within a few weeks thereafter. It may possibly occur to him at present that what it is right to do now it was right to do two years ago, if only for the reason that the Porto Ricans would have been so much better off during the intervening period. Difficult as it must always be for him to pronounce those hateful words, free trade, it is well that he accustom his lips to them. He may yet have to use them frequently, coupled with such adjectives as moderate and partial. It may even occur to him that, if there is advantage to be gained, as there is beyond dispute, in taking Porto Rico into the customs limits of the United States, we might find our account in free trade elsewhere. Moreover, if he achieves his wish of adding the island of Cuba to the United States as a Territory before the expiration of his present term, he will have dealt a knock-down blow to the system which he has championed so long. Meanwhile Porto Rico is to be congratulated upon this improvement in its status and prospects.

There seems to be some little difference of opinion as to how many Cuban forts this Government is going to occupy after the establishment of that free and independent republic for which it has worked so hard. That whole-souled advocate of Cuban independence, the *Tribune*, announces that the American flag will fly over the forts at Havana, Cienfuegos, Santiago, and Matanzas even after the republic is established. It kindly explains, in true Machiavellian style, that this is not explicitly called for by the Platt law, and that very little was said before about this plan "because it was feared that it would give additional excuse for delay at Havana of compliance on the part of the Constitutional Convention with the Platt law." Now that the Cubans have accepted that document, it is, of course, the proper time to let everything that was hidden behind it come to the light. Fortunately, other Washington dispatches declare that things have not yet gone quite so far as the *Tribune* would have it, and that negotiations for naval stations, the only sort permitted by the Platt law, will not be begun until the new republic is established. It might be well, indeed, to consider the feelings of the Cubans in this matter. Does any one believe that the sight of the American flag flying over Morro Castle would give unlimited joy to the Cubans, or help them to believe that the independence granted to them is anything more than a sham and a pretence?

That is sad news which comes from the Philippines in regard to the four provinces of Batangas, Cebu, Samar, and Bohol. Civil governments were installed in each of them in April and May last with a flourish of trumpets which gave ground for genuine hope that bloodshed might soon be a thing of the past in those districts. In Samar, for instance, as far back as February, Washington's Birthday was celebrated with an ardor and enthusiasm which proved beyond doubt that the true meaning of the greatest American's life had at last penetrated the dense soul of the Filipino. In Cebu, on April 17, Judge Taft himself implored the Visayans with all the eloquence at his command to be good, and to recall to the town the 200 insurgents who were evading one thousand American troops. Then the island was promptly organized under a civil government. At Catbalogan, on April 23, Judge Taft promised additional troops and a vigorous campaign to the "loyal" natives. Now we learn that the new-formed governments have come to an untimely end, and that the military arm, in the person of Gen. Chaffee, had to be invoked. The Commission has turned over the provinces, the dispatch reads, "for the severest kind of warfare," and the unhappy story of burned villages, wasted fields, and blood-spilling is to go on again. The deaths of all four of the officers shot in the last skirmish with Filipinos show that the losses on the American side may still become very costly.

A remark made by Judge Day, the predecessor of Secretary Hay in the Department of State, a few days since, in an address to the Ohio Bar Association, causes some rumbling in the Expansionist newspapers. The paragraph in question reads as follows:

> "We must never lose sight of the fundamental principles of our Government. This obligation is all the more binding now that a decision of the Supreme Court of the United States has made the government *and disposition* of the islands practically one of policy to be determined by the American people."

The words "and disposition" point to the possible separation of the Philippines from the United States by the voluntary action of the latter, and this thought leads one of our morning contemporaries to say:

> "In our humble opinion the thought of abandoning or 'disposing' by gift or sale of a single square inch of territory over which the American flag now flies as an emblem of sovereignty, is as far from his [Judge Day's] idea of American policy as it is from the ideas of ninety-nine out of every hundred of his fellow-citizens."

This shows that our esteemed contemporary is not familiar with Judge Day's record as a member of the Paris Conference. On the 25th of October, 1898, a long telegram was sent by the Peace Commissioners to the State Department giving their views of the points that should govern in the settlement with Spain. Three members were for taking and holding the whole of the Philippines. Two members dissented from this policy and sent separate dispatches. Judge Day said: "I am unable to agree that we should peremptorily demand the entire Philippine Island group. In the spirit of our instructions and bearing in mind the often declared disinterestedness of purpose, and freedom from designs of conquest, with which the war was undertaken, we should be consistent in our demands in making peace." So it appears that Judge Day is not now giving expression to new ideas, but holds the same views that he held when he was in a position of responsibility. His attitude as regards the future destiny of the islands and of ourselves is not inharmonious with that of the address published by the Anti-Imperialist League on the Fourth of July.

It is something to get a statement about the steel strike which clears the air of rumors and defines the issue sharply. This is the merit of Mr. Morgan's clear-cut announcement on Friday, in behalf of the United States Steel Corporation, that there can be no compromise on the only question in debate with the Amalgamated Association. From the first, the employers contended that it was a matter of principle, affecting their honor, both as men and as masters, not to consent to the forcible "unionizing" of mills at present non-union. This is now the naked issue, and it will be in vain for President Shaffer to try to cover it up with talk about Wall Street speculation, the tyranny of Trusts, political intrigue, and so on. He has elected to make his fight on an indefensible and outrageous claim, going to the heart of the rights of free labor; and everything else that he may say, or that the newspapers may allege, is wholly beside the main point. This is simply the serious question whether a union tyranny may be set up which will deny to men the right of selling their labor as they will. If that had to be fought

out some day even at frightful cost, the battle might as well come now as later.

Another ill-considered strike has reached a timely end through the refusal of the United Mine Workers to support the firemen employed in the coal mines of the anthracite region, in their effort to force their employers to grant them an eight-hour day. The strike, which began about ten days ago, seemed to be based more upon the belief that the mine operators could be coerced by danger of stoppage of their pumps than upon any real grievance. It was, in fact, typical of the strikes for trivial causes against which the leading coal operators protested last spring when they were asked to recognize the United Mine Workers as a body with which to deal in all questions arising between the employers and the miners in the coal districts. The failure of the representatives of the miners to secure at that time the recognition which they desired resulted chiefly from the fact, which they were forced practically to admit, that they could not control the miners, who, despite agreements to the contrary, were likely to walk out of the mines on trivial pretexts. That the United Mine Workers refused to support the firemen in this strike, and even went so far as to send their own men to take the place of the strikers and prevent the stopping of the pumps, indicates that they have learned a valuable lesson. Their action renders the firemen's strike an absurdity. It constitutes one hopeful instance at a time when hopeful instances are not too plentiful.

The spirit of the unionist striker, who claims a proprietary right in the employment he abandons, and who is ready to fight for that claim, finds its extreme but logical development in the unpoliced mining sections of the Far Western States. This was illustrated in the Cœur d'Alene district of Idaho, two years ago, and has been again shown within the past thirty days at the Smuggler-Union mine in Colorado. There the Idaho scenes of pillage and murder were paralleled, resulting in the capture of the mining property and the killing or wounding of five of its non-union defenders. Here however, the parallel with Idaho ends. Unlike the fearless Gov. Steunenberg of Idaho, the Populist Gov. Orman of Colorado temporized, threatened to send the soldiers, but did not, and left the mining company the alternative of abandoning its property or compromising with the strikers. It chose the latter course, and the striking miners substituted the pick for the rifle, with no fear, according to the Denver papers, that any of their number will be punished, and with encouragement to further pillage and murder if they cannot dictate the terms of their employment.

It would be quite characteristic of the present chaotic condition of the public mind as to what constitutes the proper attitude towards other nations in other climes, if there should be a determined effort to put up the bars against the Japanese and exclude them from this country, as the California labor-unions wish. That such a proposition would receive no really serious support from the country as a whole is plain on its face. It was the United States which forced Japan to open her gates to the Westerner. If there could be anything more inconsistent and ridiculous than our declining now to receive the people whose acquaintance we forced at the point of the sword some fifty years ago, it would be our forbidding the Chinese to enjoy here that civilization which we are forcing upon them in their own country against their desires. A counter-proposition on the part of China to exclude Americans we all know would be blocked by battle-ships. We need not point out what an outcry there would be if Japan decided to put a ban upon Americans and American manufactures by way of reprisal. Notoriously her citizens are among the best of those that come to us, being sober, industrious, efficient, saving, and intelligent.

A good piece of work has been done by the investigating committee of the Civil Service Reform League, which went through the testimony taken by the House committee that was appointed last winter to overhaul the system of employing subordinate officials for that body. It is not too much to say of the report made by Representative Moody of Massachusetts and his associates on the House committee that its revelations would have created a great sensation except that similar disclosures had repeatedly been made before. Subordinates are nominally appointed by the clerk, the doorkeeper, and the other higher officials who are elected by the House, but actually these officials do nothing but name the persons who are picked out by the Representatives (chiefly of the dominant party), according to a system devised by the latter for the distribution of the patronage among themselves. The consequence is that no official feels the slightest responsibility for a subordinate, and no subordinate has any respect for his nominal superior.

Abuses of every sort naturally flourish without the slightest check. A man is appointed to one position, as telegrapher, the duties of which he does not understand, and then transferred to a place in the stationery room, while the real telegrapher—who in this case was appointed because a number of Democrats said that he had a very large family, and must have something to do—is paid from a $900 appropriation for "hire of horses and wagons and cartage," $40 a month being paid to the teamster who actually does the cartage. Men are appointed to the House library who spend very little time there, with the result that the library is in such condition that "it would require years of intelligent labor to put it in proper order." Men are sometimes appointed to places who never appear except to get their pay, and even this requirement may be waived and the checks sent by mail. One man had been upon the roll as an employee in the cloak-room since the summer of 1897 whom the other employees had never seen and knew nothing about. These are only a few illustrations of a scandalous state of things which calls not only for exposure, but for speedy rectification.

Postmaster-General Smith has taken the question of postal reform into his own hands, so far as the law allows him to do so, and has issued orders cutting off some of the most glaring abuses of the present system. The Government has been spending millions of dollars in carrying "fake" publications and lottery schemes at much less than the cost of freight. Congress has been struggling to rid the service of these parasites for years, but in every instance the schemers have been too strong when the final vote was taken. After successive convulsions over the Loud bill, it succeeded at last in putting an end to the pneumatic-tube delivery in the large cities, which was the most important advance in postal service of recent years, and which the Postmaster-General earnestly desired to continue and extend. But it could do nothing to stop the tremendous abuses prevailing under the head of "second-class matter." It is to be hoped that Mr. Smith will carry out the reform which he has initiated, with unyielding purpose. He may not reach the desired goal of one-cent postage for letters, but it is not impossible to make the Department self-sustaining, which is the first step towards the contemplated reduction and towards other advantages.

Apparently unmistakable signs that this season's corn crop will fall considerably below the average yield, have revived the usual theories of recurrence of crop shortages. A rather general notion exists to the effect that the volume of grain harvests in a given country expands and contracts in a more or less fixed cycle—much as the general movement of trade activity advances and declines. This is true, so far as market prices are a stimulus to, or a corrective of, large harvests. In the nature of things, extreme high prices for an agricultural product during one season will be followed by more extensive planting in the next; and if weather favors, a crop exceeding even the average will be

harvested. Our own planted area of wheat, for instance, increased five million acres in the first year after the high prices of 1879; the increase in one year after 1890 was nearly four million acres. In the three years following the sudden rise in wheat during 1896, the farmlands extended nearly five million acres beyond the highest previous record. The corn failure of 1894, with the attendant "famine prices," was followed the next year by addition of fully ten million planted acres. On the other hand, the reduction of not quite six million acres in the American wheat-farm area, during the years of depression and slow markets after 1891, is a familiar recent incident. Those were the years when the Farmers' Alliance was clamoring for smaller acreage.

The present Government of Newfoundland was elected principally to revise the famous railway and transportation contract with Mr. R. G. Reid, a task of considerable difficulty, which, when the present preliminary agreement becomes law, it will have successfully accomplished. Gaining control of the transportation and telegraph franchises at a time when the island was virtually bankrupt, Mr. Reid appeared in the light of a public benefactor. When, however, these enterprises had prospered under his direction, it was found that he had driven a sharp bargain with the Colonial Government. His contract carried with it the ownership of some millions of acres of land, and the reversion after fifty years of all the railroad properties under his control. The plan to unload these great properties on a stock company aroused the opposition of the islanders, who last autumn returned a parliament almost unanimously opposed to Mr. Reid's projects. Premier Bond has negotiated an agreement by which Mr. Reid sells the 2,800,000 acres acquired under the present contract to the Government, relinquishes the telegraph lines, and, being indemnified for his initial outlay, engages to run the railroad lines for fifty years, and to expend on works within the colony the $5,000,000 capital of his projected stock company. Under the old contract eventual owner of the most important public utilities of the island, he becomes, under the new arrangement, only the temporary holder of certain valuable franchises. The achievement is a personal triumph for Premier Bond.

Lord Rosebery's description of the Liberal plight has the pungency of phrase which we expect from him. It is something for the sick man to be told so neatly what is the matter with him, even if no hope of cure is held out. In this detached attitude, however, this inability to rally his party to a watchword, or to offer it an inspiring and unifying command, we see Lord Rosebery's fatal disqualification for political leadership. Yet what he says of the need of the Liberal party making haste to find its function and its efficiency is very much to the point. However, the real question is, just what function? and how is it to be made effective? It certainly is not, just now, the holding of office. A party must have not only unity and good leadership, but numbers, if it is to take office. As long as the Liberals have neither, they must look for their function for some time to come, at least, as a party out of power.

What should that be? Why, it should be the function of criticism and expostulation and agitation; and that function, we must say, the dominant section of the Liberal party now seems to us to be discharging very commendably and successfully. Mr. Morley and Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman and Sir William Harcourt and Mr. Bryce and Mr. Lloyd-George—to mention only the leaders—are, in the first place, manfully asserting the ancient Liberal doctrine of free speech. They decline to be gagged by the miserable pretence that criticism of the Government is giving aid and comfort to the enemy. That of itself is a great service, at this juncture, not only to England, but to all the world. Furthermore, these leaders insist upon telling the truth about the war. They show how it has passed from its first pretended aim of repelling invasion and establishing equal rights for all white men south of the Zambesi, into a war for the destruction of Boer independence, and then into a war for the erection of Crown Colony government. To proclaim the falseness and folly of this course, and to cry aloud for conciliation and for humanity in dealing with the Boers; to stand firmly by the established principles of justice and generosity and self-government in the management of colonies; to protest against applying in South Africa the methods which lost America to England, and to call, rather, for such a wise adjustment as that which saved Canada to the British Empire—all that, surely, is no mean work, and it is the work which the Liberals are doing with more and more energy and success.

According to the most recent dispatches, Lord Roberts is to receive from Parliament a grant of £100,000, "in recognition of his services in South Africa, and to enable him suitably to maintain his peerage." If there is to any mind a sardonic suggestion in this, the fault is not that of Gen. Roberts. If his march to Pretoria, which will long rank as a brilliant achievement, has passed into temporary eclipse, the reason is that the Government did not second his dashing military operations with the requisite statesmanship. English military critics, even some army officers writing anonymously, have pointed out this great error in the general conduct of the South African campaign. It is not only that the lustre of Lord Robberts's feat of arms is dimmed. The Government, by its failure to grasp the situation in its diplomatic aspects, not merely lost the natural fruits of victory, but turned the whole campaign into a military blunder. If there was to be no large measure of conciliation and generous reconstruction ready to be offered the Boers the moment Roberts reached Pretoria, then his march thither was a mistake. He never should have left the Orange River. If slow attrition and the gradual hunting down of every Boer in arms was to be the true policy, it should have been prosecuted foot by foot, district by district. The rapid rush to Pretoria, after the army had been pulled out of its wreck at Bloemfontein, was bad strategy unless the whole war were to be settled by negotiations at Pretoria. Presumably, Lord Roberts counted upon healing measures being ready to supplement the work of his troops. He could not say, but other military men have said it, that an inept Government has done its best to make his successful campaign appear one long and huge blunder.

"We trusted in God's help and foreign intervention." So wrote President Steyn of the Orange Free State, in the official correspondence with the Transvaal authorities, which the British have captured and published. It is not exactly a pleasing variant of the old exhortation to trust God and keep your powder dry. The Boers looked after their powder carefully enough, but that such astute men as their leaders should have believed for a moment, unless they were basely deceived by Dr. Leyds, that any great Power would forcibly intervene on their behalf, one would have said in advance to be impossible. They knew, or if they did not, they were the only ones in the world who did not know, that Germany was out of it. The Anglo-German agreement was an open secret. From France, it is true, the Boers may have thought they had something more than polite good wishes. It has been pretty angrily asserted by men professing to be in Kruger's confidence, that the French Foreign Office promised him "moral and material aid." But this has been given a formal *démenti* by M. Delcassé, and would scarcely, in any case, deserve to be credited. President Steyn's confession is, however, the first one that has been officially and explicitly made that the Boer ultimatum would never have been launched except in the hope of foreign intervention. This is the crowning proof of its folly.

POLITICS AND THE STRIKE.

President Shaffer's address to the men at Wellsville on Thursday was, in general, moderate in tone, and bore out the reputation he has had of being a man who has a bridle on his tongue. Yet his speech unconsciously revealed the two things upon which he has really pinned his hopes in the steel strike. These are the Stock Exchange and politics. Surely there never can have been a great strike before in which the labor leaders kept their eyes glued to a stock-ticker. Not reports from the works, not telegrams telling of more mills closed, more men taken into the union, further crippling of the employers, but the rise and fall of steel shares in Wall Street! Mr. Shaffer evidently believed that it was safe to make unreasonable demands upon the steel corporation because its financial interests were so vast. The directors, he thought, could not afford to let their securities be clouded even for a day, and so would yield anything rather than fight. But it appears that they saw, even if he did not, the necessity of thinking about to-morrow and next week and next year in Wall Street as well as to-day, and determined to resist extreme demands so as to protect the future of their property. President Shaffer now undertakes to hide his disappointment over the absence of a crash in Wall Street by his delightful tale of $200,000,000 reserve kept by the steel corporation expressly to bolster stocks in case of labor troubles.

The stock market having failed him, Mr. Shaffer now turns to the politicians. "Some of the political leaders will have something to say," he told the strikers at Wellsville. Whether or not this hope proves to be as hollow a staff as the other, it must be confessed that labor agitators have only too much to go upon when they assume that politics will fly to their aid. The political influence in the settlement of the great coal strike last year was too plain for the wayfaring man not to perceive it. And the way in which Republican politicians have made use of Amalgamated Association officials for campaign purposes has long been notorious. John Jarrett was for years a kind of electoral agent of theirs, and had his due political reward. Another former President of the iron and steel workers is now Collector of the Port at Pittsburgh. Labor men can see the significance of such things as quickly as another. Nor did they, we may be sure, omit to ponder on the Babcock bill for taking off the duties on iron and steel. In that they saw the trail of politics. Doubtless they also reflected that many powerful politicians have their fortunes so tied up with the continuance of prosperity that they will move heaven and earth sooner than see it impaired. So they lift up their eyes to politics, whence they think cometh their help. It may, and again it may not; but how far afield all this takes us from the original and ostensible grounds of the strike!

President Shaffer returned to the subject in an interview published on Monday:

> "If the Republican party is going to obtain power only to foster institutions that will destroy labor, it cannot longer rely on the support of labor. I have always been a Republican, but if the worst comes to the worst, and the Administration stands idle and allows the Trust to crush us out of existence, in future I shall be all things to all men. Suppose that the Administration should become offended at J. Pierpont Morgan and his adherents and coadjutors, and, in order to punish them, should present restrictive measures to Congress or laws that will tend to confine the Morgan power, could the Administration have those laws passed? You grant that it could. Then the Administration is all-powerful, and will be responsible for the results of the conflict to labor and to the Republican party."

Exactly how the Republican party is going to help the strikers is not clear. Mr. Shaffer's remarks imply that President McKinley ought to be offended at Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan, and, in order to coerce him, ought to recommend "restrictive measures" to Congress, and that Congress ought to pass them. This does not mean that Mr. McKinley ought to wait till the first Monday in December, and then advise Congress to pass laws "tending to confine the Morgan power," but that he should take Mr. Morgan into a corner now and tell him that, unless he yields to the demands of Shaffer, he (McKinley) will, in some way, make it hot for the steel combination next winter. We are very sure that Mr. McKinley will do nothing of the kind, and that if he should do so Mr. Morgan would be utterly unaffected by such threats. However yielding the latter might be by nature, he would say to himself that a great many things may happen in four months, that strikes do not generally last so long, and that he can take the chances for that length of time as well as the strikers can. He might say to Mr. McKinley, in the improbable event of the interview which Mr. Shaffer imagines, that it does not follow that Congress would pass the laws aforesaid, "tending to confine the Morgan power," even if Mr. McKinley should recommend them.

We observe, also, that Mr. Shaffer does not indicate the kind of laws which he would like to have passed in this emergency, or tell us how they would tend to confine the Morgan power. He had already said, in the speech to his fellow-workers at Wellsville: "You know that, but for our organization, we should have no better wages than common laborers." So it seems that it is not the tariff that makes high wages for workingmen, but the power to strike. This has always been the contention of the free-traders. Mr. Shaffer calls himself a Republican. If he had spoken his full thought at Wellsville, he would perhaps have said: "The tariff law enables the employers to pay high wages, but they will pocket every cent that the law gives them if we are not so organized that we can demand our share."

That would be a true statement, and we wonder that Mr. Shaffer did not give some hint of it when he was talking about laws of Congress tending to restrict Mr. Morgan. There is one way in which the Republican party can attack the Trusts effectually, and that is by repealing the duties on articles which have been made the subject of monopoly or of attempted monopoly. Some Republican statesmen of position and influence have declared their intention to introduce measures of this kind. Why does not Mr. Shaffer seize this opportunity to scare, if not to "confine," Mr. Morgan and his colleagues? Perhaps Mr. Morgan thinks that he can stand tariff reduction as long as Mr. Shaffer can. Perhaps he thinks that the tariff is of less importance to the Steel Company than some other things now threatening it. However that may be, we insist that the only legislation by Congress that can stir the Republican party from its present lethargy on the subject of the steel strike is tariff legislation. If Mr. Shaffer is really serious in what he says about making the strike a political issue and holding the Republican party responsible for its successful outcome, let him inscribe on his banner, as Chairman Babcock has done, "Free trade in steel and its products." If he will do this, he will "make things lively" in the party at all events. If he does not, the Republican leaders will think he is not in earnest. They will see no terror in his threats, and will not even take the trouble to answer him.

THE ISTHMIAN CANAL OUTLOOK.

Lord Pauncefote is too old a diplomat to be caught sinning against the commandment, *pas de zèle*. We may, therefore, accept as very important and pleasing news his statement made in London about the bright prospects for agreement between Great Britain and the United States on a new Isthmian Canal treaty. As he intimates, there are practically three powers to be brought into harmony—the British Foreign Office, the American Department of State, and the United States Senate. That the new instrument has been drafted so as to meet the views of all three, is the significant fact of Lord Pauncefote's interview. It foreshadows agreement on the main point of a canal neutral in peace and war. Of course, the Senate may again upset the whole arrangement. Its capacities for mischief in meddling with treaties are so great as to draw even from ex-President Cleveland a flash of sarcasm. In his *Century* article on the Venezuela controversy he remarks that it was well the final treaty of arbitration was solely between England and Venezuela, and so did not have

to run the risk of the "customary disfigurement" at the hands of the Senate.

But granting that there will be a new treaty, that it will be ratified without disfigurement, and that there will be a canal, at what point on the Isthmus will it be cut? Ten years ago everybody in this country would have said at Nicaragua. Two years ago a few people began to say at Panama. Last December, when the report of our own engineers clearly set forth the superiority of the Panama route, on grounds both of location and of economy, a decided revulsion of popular sentiment on the subject set in. It has since gone on increasing in power, until now even the politicians are willing to admit the feasibility and possible desirability of a Panama Canal. The Ohio Republicans, for example, left out of their platform last month the old uncompromising Nicaragua plank, and called simply for a ship canal "across the Isthmus."

One reason for this evident chilling of our Nicaraguan enthusiasm is the discovery that all previous estimates of the cost of a canal from Greytown to Brito have been far too low. Only $100,000,000, it used to be said in the cocksure days of Warner Miller, or, to be perfectly safe and cover all contingencies, $125,000,000. But the preliminary report of our engineers last December put the figure at $200,000,000, exclusive of what it might cost to buy the right of way. And there have been plain hints that even this estimate will prove much too low. Some of the engineers who remained on the Isthmus to make further tests of rock and soil, and river and rainfall, are understood to have brought with them data which will compel pushing up the cost of the Nicaragua Canal to $250,000,000. Sir Weetman Pearson, who dug the huge drainage canal in Mexico, and who thus has had large experience in engineering work in tropical countries, has given it as his opinion that, if the engineers' estimate for a canal at Nicaragua is $200,000,000, the ultimate cost will prove to be little under $300,000,000.

This is a way canals have. When Thiers was Minister of the Interior, the authorities of Marseilles asked permission to cut a canal at a cost of $2,000,000. "If the engineers," said Thiers, "declare that it will cost but $2,000,000, the real cost will be $4,000,000." The good Marseillais complained of the "indecent exaggerations" of Thiers; but when the canal came finally to be built, the actual cost was $6,000,000! Of course, we are aware of that fine patriotic frenzy which leads Congressmen to cry out, "Let the cost be $500,000,000, if you please; still, this country is big enough and rich enough to furnish the money, and we'll do it, too, if Europe so much as hints her displeasure." But that was the talk only so long as the canal was supposed to be somehow a terrible engine of war. If it would, in some mysterious way, enable us to crush the combined fleets of the world, no price could be too high. But those crude notions have been dissipated. Admiral Dewey threw the weight of his authority against them, and Col. Peter C. Hains, in his exhaustive paper before the American Academy, showed that an exclusive canal would be, in time of war, a military weakness. Besides, the new treaty is to make the canal absolutely neutral. It will, therefore, become a very serious question for Congress to decide whether it is prepared to spend $250,000,000 or $300,000,000 in building a canal on which the commercial return is doubtful, and which other nations may use as well as we. For our part, we think it will be a long time before Congress votes the money on those conditions.

All these considerations call attention more sharply than ever to the Panama alternative. That route, it is confessed by our own engineers, has the manifest advantage in point of cost of construction, speed of completion, and ease of operation. There is no need to labor this question. Ah, but our Commission reported in favor of Nicaragua, nevertheless, since it said it could get no satisfactory answers from the Panama Company to the questions how much it would cost to buy out its plant, and on what terms control of its concession could be secured. But there has been a great change in all this since last December. When the Commission comes to make its final report to the President, it will tell him that the Colombian Government and the Panama Company are ready jointly to make over the Panama concession to this country on the fairest terms; and that it has in writing from the Panama Company an offer to sell its plant and dispose of its rights in the work actually done at a price to be fixed by disinterested appraisers. This should make a vast difference in the Commission's report. It should also have a powerful effect on public opinion. In fact, we may say that the present drift of engineering sentiment, as of financial and diplomatic belief, is that if any canal at all is to pierce the Isthmus, it will be at Panama, and not at Nicaragua.

THE NORTHERN PACIFIC CATACLYSM.

Nearly six months ago a series of events began in the stock market which transcended experience, turned the heads of a large part of the community, led to the wildest rise in prices that ever took place here on a specie basis, and culminated in a panic equal in magnitude to the speculation that had preceded it. The peculiarity of the movement was the profound secrecy with which the movers veiled their operations, and the surprises that they encountered during their progress. Of course, people do not go gunning with a brass band. If a man has a plan of campaign in the stock market, he does not publish it in the newspapers. He uses disguises. He covers his tracks, puts out misleading signals, throws people on a false scent, and some persons have even been known to tell downright lies in the buying and selling of stocks. The trouble generally is that there are too many sharp-eyed men looking on. Wall Street is not easily deceived. However delusive appearances may be, somebody is pretty sure to discover the truth, and then it speedily becomes common property.

In this case, however, although the buying, which set the whole country wild, was protracted for three months, the secret never came out until the panic forced it out. The wisest men in the Street were as much at fault as the simplest. In fact, some of the oldest heads, the most conservative leaders, men usually the best informed, were "caught short" of Northern Pacific in a way to show that they had wholly misinterpreted events which had been occurring around them for weeks. Even directors and presidents of the companies concerned were profoundly ignorant of what was going on. The old stagers of Wall Street had seen certain stocks advancing by steady gains to incredible heights. They had seen the country gradually "taking hold" and pushing prices still higher, without concert of action, but by sheer force of numbers. They got an inkling at last that somebody was buying St. Paul in order to amalgamate it with Northern Pacific, but just as this truth began to dawn, the quotations of St. Paul came to a standstill, and then began to sag. Nobody wanted it any more, and the Street was pretty well agreed that whatever might have been the original purpose of the buyers, they had abandoned it.

The reason why the Street had not discovered the truth earlier was that nobody could discern any reason why the Northern Pacific should want the St. Paul, or should want it enough to pay a fancy price for it. The Northern Pacific's eastern terminus is St. Paul, where it has half a dozen important connections and feeders. To choose one of these as its special favorite, said the wise heads of the stock market, would make enemies of all the others and compel competition west of St. Paul. Especially would these consequences follow if the Great Northern should be a partner in the St. Paul purchase. In that case the only way that the Northwestern, the Burlington, the Wisconsin Central, and the Great Western could secure their share of business west of St. Paul would be to construct lines of their own. So the wise men argued, and for these reasons they refused for a long time to believe that there was any foundation for the story that the North-

ern Pacific and Great Northern people were seeking the ownership of St. Paul. When it became known that this plan had been dropped, the Street assumed that it had been dropped not because the price of St. Paul was too high, but because it was not founded on good business principles.

Consequently, the wise men were still more deceived by the next ground swell in the market. There was an unexplained movement in Burlington shares. This stock began to rise in a manner quite as mysterious as the movement in St. Paul. The advance was persistent, indicating either a very strong purpose to control it or an increase in its earnings. Other stocks advanced by sympathy. If Burlington was worth so much money as the quotations implied, then Rock Island and Union Pacific and Atchison must be equally valuable. So the public construed the situation, and, by buying to take advantage of the rise, the public produced the situation which it expected. The buyers outnumbered the sellers from day to day and from week to week. This made the boom. Some people said that it was due to our great export trade, others that it was in consequence of the election of McKinley and the settlement of the gold standard. The appetite for stocks grew with what it fed on, and the general list continued to rise under the lead of Burlington.

There were some people doing business in Wall Street who had a greater interest to learn the truth about this rise in Burlington than the speculating public had. These were the large holders of Union Pacific. Nothing could deceive them in the long run. They could not understand any better than the public why the Northern Pacific and Great Northern should desire to control the Burlington Road, which was quite out of their field of operations, but they could not be deceived as to the fact that this was the aim and intention of the two northern companies. The Union Pacific people did know, however, that they were paralleled at most points, and were liable to be paralleled at all points, by the Burlington, and that if this property came under the control of a transcontinental rival they would thereafter be very much at the mercy of that rival. They saw that, in a case where vast capital had already been embarked in the enterprise, it would be useless to rely upon argument or to expect benevolence on the part of the rival. It was now too late to defend themselves by buying Burlington away from the other side: negotiations had been carried to a point which made this impossible. The only thing to be done was to buy Northern Pacific itself out of the hands of their opponents.

This was a movement which the Northern Pacific people themselves had not dreamed of, and it was the third surprise that awaited the Street, and the third great impulse given to the general market. The buying was so carefully arranged for in New York, London, and Berlin that the real source of the strength of Northern Pacific was not suspected by anybody. Most people attributed it to the carrying through of the "Burlington deal," which had by this time been made public. The Burlington deal might be a source of weakness rather than of strength to Northern Pacific in the long run, looking at the price paid for the former by the latter, but the speculating public did not look beyond the present quotation, and so the dance continued. The Union Pacific people continued to buy Northern Pacific regardless of cost. They forced up the price till the magnates who had arranged the Burlington deal knew that something was wrong. They discovered too late that, although they had acquired Burlington, they had no longer an undisputed control of their own property. Whether they could command a majority of votes at their next stockholders' meeting was a matter of doubt.

Now comes the fourth surprising event of the series. The trading in Northern Pacific, which had been quite breezy before, soon became a gale and presently a hurricane. Orders came into the market for 10,000-share lots. The buying was furious and the price went sky-high. As the amount of shares was not unlimited, the market was presently cornered without design on the part of anybody. The promoters of the Burlington deal, being committed to carrying it through, must do so at all hazards. They could not afford to be short one single share when the time came for closing the trade. So they bought right and left, in New York, London, and Berlin. How the two opposing lists of shares footed up at last is not publicly known, but a situation was created for the short sellers of Northern Pacific which may be imagined, and which has been frequently described. The cornering of Northern Pacific was the immediate occasion of the cataclysm on the 9th of May, but the cause was the enormous and artificial uplifting of prices due to the purchases for control which had been going on for months, but which the public knew nothing about. The situation was now well suited for compromise. There was no money to be made by further fighting. Much had been lost already by the purchase of shares at higher prices than they were worth, and here the original holders of St. Paul, Burlington, and Northern Pacific had been gainers. A compromise was effected, and the public said that it was an extension of the community-of-interest plan to a vast group of transcontinental roads. It was nothing of the kind. The community-of-interest plan was adopted, not as a choice, but as a matter of necessity, after the opposite plan had failed.

GERMANY AND THE UNITED STATES.

"Theodore von Holleben, ambassador of the young and lusty German Empire, representative of an ancient people whose racial and institutional roots are intertwined with our own—of a people whose scholars and universities have for a century given example and inspiration to the learned world." It was in these words that President Eliot bestowed the degree of LL.D. upon the eminent German diplomat at Harvard's Commencement. The university could not have chosen a better time, nor its head more fitting phrases, to honor the official mouthpiece of a country bound to us by a hundred different ties. The graceful act followed significantly on the efforts of unscrupulous mischief-makers to set the two nations by the ears.

When one considers the historic relations of the two countries, it would seem impossible that there could ever be a serious misunderstanding between them. Yet for the last three years there has become noticeable a feeling of irritation which dates back to the Spanish war, and which is by no means attributable to their healthy mercantile and industrial rivalry. That the Germans were aghast at the unnecessary war into which the United States plunged in 1898 is but too well known. But with this disapproval came no such feeling of bitter resentment and hostility as has marked the German attitude towards England in regard to the Boer war. It is therefore impossible for the mass of the German people to realize to-day that, in certain circles here, they are regarded as secret plotters against the welfare of the United States. The ebullitions of a Lodge amaze as much as they pain. The announcement that a United States naval board of policy finds it necessary to plan to build one battle-ship and cruiser for every similar ship constructed for the Emperor's fleet, leaves the German public somewhat stunned and quite uncomprehending. For more than a hundred years they have regarded their neighbors on the west as their greatest menace, for which they must arm to the teeth at any cost; and the revelation that they are considered so free of European complications as to be able to plot against both South and North America comes as something considerably more than a surprise.

A review of the incidents which have been eagerly seized upon in this country shows their triviality and their slight foundation in fact. The lack of tact displayed by a German admiral in Philippine waters becomes a threat of war in the columns of a sensational press and in an equally tactless after-dinner speech of an American naval officer. Without a single fact to go upon, the Imperialists early announced that the evacuation of the Philippines by the United States

would mean their conquest or purchase by Germany—thus crediting the Emperor with their own taste for bad bargains. The story that the Emperor's fleet was being swelled merely in order to cope with the American was promptly confuted by a naval officer of high rank, who demonstrated that the German battleships were being built with too limited a coal capacity to cross the ocean. It failed, too, in its purpose of drawing large additional appropriations from Congress.

Next came a tissue of falsehoods and exaggerations in regard to the German colonists in South America, daily displayed in that fantastic newspaper which pretends to represent American journalism in France, the Paris New York *Herald*, and feebly echoed by cable in the *Herald* of this city. The Emperor was planning, it seemed, to subvert the Monroe Doctrine, with the most diabolical ingenuity, by the creation of a great German state in Brazil, and probably by similar ones elsewhere in South America, or perhaps by obtaining control of Brazil herself. These stories being promptly and conclusively denied by the Brazilian Minister in Berlin as "the merest twaddle," as well as by the German Foreign Office, it next became necessary to turn the harmless visit of a German man-of-war to Margarita Island into a surveying expedition preparatory to the purchase or seizure of the island as a base for an aggressive naval attack upon the United States. Here was indeed a *bonne bouche* for the scandal-mongers, and it duly served its turn until completely disposed of by the American Ambassador, Mr. White. It had, however, together with Senator Lodge's outburst in Buffalo, aroused the German press to no small degree, in their ignorance both of the true status of the Paris *Herald* (a journal without news, influence, character, or standing) and of Senator Lodge's record. To complete this midsummer madness and the utter confusion of the unmasked German people, it was next only necessary to assert that, in the event of war, the German-Americans would fight for America. After that only the war remained to be declared.

If there is a comic side to this, the serious one must not be forgotten. It is not only that we have to go to Germany more than to any other country for those university ideals and that inspiration to which President Eliot referred. So close have the trade relations grown between the two countries that, as Mr. Mason, the United States Consul-General in Berlin, has pointed out, "The German empire is, next to England, our best customer," and therefore anything which affects the prosperity of Germany will directly affect that of the United Staes. Both on the intellectual and commercial side the United States can and should gain enormously by closer relations with the motherland of so many of our citizens. Any attempt to disturb the pleasant and satisfactory relations which have so long existed between the two countries merits immediate condemnation. Such actions as Harvard's in presenting the degree to Herr von Holleben, and Mr. Andrew D. White's repeated public utterances on behalf of friendly relations between the two countries, make enormously in the other direction. They cannot be too heartily welcomed. Serious friction with Germany would not only be inexcusable and indefensible, but a national misfortune.

THE GLASGOW EXHIBITION.

LONDON, June 26, 1901.

I might as well say at once that the Glasgow Exhibition interested me chiefly because of its Art Gallery. One big international exhibition must necessarily be very like another, and Glasgow—though I should not have ventured to hint it while I was there—is a trifle overshadowed by memories of Chicago and Paris.

Everything has been done, and (it must be admitted) successfully within the limits, to make the show attractive. It is held in Kelvin Grove Park, the most delightful part of Glasgow. Pleasantly wooded banks rise gently from either side the Kelvin. The University and rows of Glasgow's gray houses overlook the open space from the surrounding heights, and the Exhibition buildings are distributed so as to interfere as little as possible with the pretty walks and shady corners of the Park. These buildings are, of course, mostly white; Chicago was the model it will take many long years to supplant. Only, it is curious to note how much less appropriate the white seems here than on the shores of Lake Michigan or the Seine. Under Glasgow's low, gray skies, all the brilliancy and gayety has gone out of it. Indeed, in the end, in every country, the color people have chosen, perhaps unconsciously, for their architecture, will usually be found the color demanded by their climate and atmospheric conditions; the gray of Scotland's castles and cottages strikes one as less gloomy than this expanse of white, dull and hard without the sunshine of the South or the fierce dry heat of an American summer. As for the architecture, it is of the distinct Exhibition style, a little less extravagant than in Paris, much less stately than in Chicago; a medley, partly rococo, partly Spanish Renaissance, partly Oriental, partly eccentric, leaving one with an impression of domes and towers and gilding and flamboyant sculpture, amusing perhaps for the moment, but irritating if destined to be permanent.

The exhibits in the buildings are what such exhibits usually are. I know little of machinery, but I fancy much is included that would interest the man of a mechanical turn of mind. In the main building there is the accustomed industrial display. Russia has put up two or three pavilions apart, Canada one, Japan one; Austria, France, and other countries contribute to some small extent. But, throughout the industrial section, the exhibitors are chiefly Scotch; even England contributes as little in proportion as to the Paris show last summer; and, it seems to me, the bazaar element, always present more or less on such occasions, becomes overprominent. Indeed, since I have come away from Glasgow, the shopkeepers in the town have protested against the brisk trade done in different stalls. Then there are the inevitable amusements—music, diversified by bagpipes; a water-chute, a switchback, an Indian theatre. If there be no gay Rue de Paris, surely this proves a small surprise in a land where men take their pleasures sadly, and do not know how to be frivolous with grace.

So far, the Glasgow Exhibition conforms to the all but invariable type. The Englishman who crosses the border for the first time may find novelty in the daily performance of the pipers, and the variety of scones and solid cakes in the tea houses, for Glasgow has managed to give a local flavor to many details. But the one important feature of the show, a clue really to the history of Glasgow's development during the last fifteen or twenty years, is the Art Gallery.

Of late, the corporations of most of the large provincial towns in England and Scotland have been trying to turn themselves into art patrons. Already, people begin to go to Liverpool not only to take the steamer, but to see the Rossetti and other things in the Walker Art Gallery, or to Manchester for the Madox Brown frescoes in the Town Hall, or to Birmingham for the Pre-Raphaelite pictures in the permanent collection. But even these three big centres, where something substantial has been achieved, are eclipsed by Glasgow, though nowhere, perhaps, would so little be looked for as in so essentially commercial, rather gloomy and squalid, decidedly money-making a town. But it is Glasgow that can boast, as every one knows by now, a school of painters who, if they have not fulfilled their first promise, are still the most accomplished group of artists in Great Britain; Glasgow that had the intelligence to buy Mr. Whistler's beautiful "Carlyle" at a time when the world had not yet awakened to its value; Glasgow that, emulating Paris, has commissioned its most distinguished painters to decorate the new Municipal Building; Glasgow, in a word, that not only gave so successful an exhibition in 1888 as to make a good profit by it, but determined to invest this profit, increased by voluntary subscriptions, in a new Art Gallery and Museum Building, "to be the future home of the art and science collections of the Corporation." This building, now finished, stands at the southwest corner of Kelvin Park, and its inauguration was really the most important ceremony at the opening of this year's Exhibition.

In Paris last summer, while the architect was allowed any excess so long as there was question only of temporary buildings, he was kept, or kept himself, well in restraint when it came to the two Palaces of the Fine Arts. Much the same is true of the Glasgow architect. He has been flamboyant after his own fashion in the Main Building, the restaurants, and so on, but he has been careful to chasten his style in designing an Art Gallery that is to remain a monument to Glasgow's artistic enterprise. He has maintained the same discretion in the matter of color: the building is of a red sandstone from Scotch quarries, in keeping with the atmosphere and the characteristic severity of the town. The Glasgow architect in this case happens to be a London architect, Mr. J. W. Simpson, and the ornament is the work of sculptors collaborat-

ing under the immediate superintendence of Mr. Frampton, and, in certain special details, the work of Mr. Frampton himself. One's standard is very different in judging a permanent building. It seems, therefore, a matter of regret that the Gallery, standing as it does, is somewhat dwarfed by the University, which, at least, produces a greater effect of height and size, and has the further advantage of towering above the new building from higher ground. From the southern side the Gallery is just now screened its entire length by a covered-in "Grand Avenue," useful enough in rainy Glasgow, but architecturally an excrescence. But for that matter the big staring white palace and smaller houses and pavilions so surround the Gallery as to interfere with, if they do not belittle, the architectural effect, and I should hesitate to pronounce an opinion until their disappearance at the end of the fair. But I must confess myself disappointed with the sculpture. To intrust it entirely to the superintendence of a man of Mr. Frampton's position and ability was something of an experiment, and it may be too much was hoped for. The central arch of the double stairway leading to the main entrance is not only filled but *crowded* by Mr. Frampton's group of St. Mungo with the figures of Art and Music; his bas-reliefs in the spandrels modestly efface themselves, as if he had been only too determined to avoid the French sculptor's over-emphasis; while the allegorical figures perched above the central and end pavilions are the designs, I believe, of another artist, who seems to have quite forgotten the angle at which they would be seen—an angle that reveals only an unfortunate clumsiness of pose and draperies.

But the interior of the building is more disappointing. A fine, well-proportioned central hall is connected by two long courts with four pavilions, two at either end. The galleries run round these courts, and occupy the pavilions. Down stairs the side light makes them useless for pictures; up stairs, they have been narrowed for the sake of an arcaded promenade opening upon courts and central hall. If the object of the building was, as one thought, the exhibition of works of art, then it is hardly a success. Space has been so recklessly wasted that I have heard the building described as a Casino, with a few odd corners for pictures; and the description, if exaggerated, is not wholly unmerited. The loan collections that all but fill it explain, by their arrangements, how little room there is to spare.

These collections are, practically speaking, four. One of the long courts and the surrounding galleries on the lower floor are devoted to "Scottish archæology and history," a wonderful series of pictures, sculptures, relics, papers, any and everything that could help you to follow the development of Scotland, from the days of arrowheads to the yesterday of Gordon and Livingstone and the country's latest heroes. Here is an unrivalled opportunity for the student of Scotch history. Then, in one of the long galleries at the other end of the building, and here, there, and everywhere, in odd rooms and passageways, are what the catalogue calls "art objects," a series recalling, on a smaller scale, a very much smaller scale, the Petit Palais of last summer. Finally, the other courts and galleries are filled by retrospective and contemporary collections of painting, sculpture, and drawing, "formed with the view of illustrating the progress of art during the nineteenth century." Considered by the standard thus set, they fail lamentably; they illustrate chiefly the amiability of certain collectors in lending their treasures, and, apparently, the directors' readiness to take whatever fell in their way with least trouble to themselves. But, considered merely as loan collections, got together for the purpose of giving pleasure, not instruction, then their success is beyond dispute. Certainly, many of the centuries' masterpieces are scattered through the galleries.

You begin with the "Deceased British Artists." To the opening years of the nineteenth century belong the last of the one distinguished school of British portrait painters—Romney, Hoppner, Lawrence, and Raeburn, who is just commencing to be appreciated, and who, though I do not think justice is fully done to him, reveals his power in two portraits of elderly, gray-haired men, marvellous as renderings of character and triumphs of technique. But, after all, the portrait painters of this group carried out the traditions of the eighteenth century, and cannot be said to have influenced the art of the nineteenth. The new inspiration came from the landscape-painters, and what is there to represent a genuine movement, felt not only in Great Britain, but in France, and therefore throughout the entire Continent? I say nothing of the several examples of Turner, for Turner also, at his best, has more in common with the eighteenth century; at his most original, he inspired no one but himself and, perhaps, Ruskin. But what of Constable, Bonington, the Norwich men? Bonington is the most fully represented—two paintings and four water-colors. There are, however, only a couple of Constables, a single Cotman, two Cromes; though, at almost every step, you chance upon a landscape by Chalmers, of Alexander Fraser, both second-rate artists, who happen to have been Scotchmen.

Another distinct movement, even if its influence ended with the men who originated it, was the Pre-Raphaelite, and this is amply represented. To Dyce, who deserves to be more famous than he is, the Pre-Raphaelites owed something, and Dyce, fortunately, has not been forgotten. Millais's "Carpenter Shop" and "Lorenzo and Isabella," Rossetti's "Mariana," Ford Madox Brown's "Work"—the most genuinely "Pre-Raphaelite" picture, and the most extraordinary of them all—characteristic examples of Mr. Holman Hunt, Mr. Windus, Mr. Brett (the latter three, however, appearing in another section)—are here, but so scattered as not to tell half as well as they should. Indeed, the hanging of this historical series is forlorn. Only upon reaching the water-colors do you find any attempt at chronological order, or the grouping together of the same men and same schools. But how keenly the improvement is realized when a screen is reached with, on one side, a number of drawings by the Pre-Raphaelites, on the other, the work of Pinwell and Fred Walker, who owed their scrupulous minuteness to the Pre-Raphaelites, and who were in such close sympathy in their own aims and methods.

In the "Living British Artists" section it looks as if the hanging committee had not been without a pleasant sense of humor. One of the three galleries is full of the pictures of Academicians and their friends, hung in the established Academical fashion, very suggestive of Burlington House. In the other two galleries the Academical element is less obvious; harmony has been observed in the general treatment of the walls; though, because of the restricted space, there is more crowding than there should be, many of the canvases overflowing to the arcade, where, so poor is the light, they can barely be seen. This contemporary collection is far more representative than the British section was in Paris last summer. But the selection still seems due largely to chance, and numerous omissions could be pointed out. Even the Glasgow school is not as complete as might have been expected. Mr. McTaggart, practically unknown outside of Scotland, but honored in Glasgow as one of the pioneers—a painter of the sea, with a fine feeling for light and atmosphere and the movement of water—may be studied in almost every phase. But Mr. MacGregor, one of the leaders, and essentially one of the most accomplished, has absolutely nothing. And here, again, one would have liked to see all the Scotchmen grouped together. It is a pleasure to note that Mr. Whistler, who appears with British artists, as there is no American section, and who received such scant courtesy in Glasgow in 1888, is now given the centres that are his by rights—one for the beautiful "Princesse du Pays de la Porcelaine," the other for the stately "Fur Jacket." It is curious that Mr. Sargent should be among the absent. The only painting by him is a portrait of Mr. Penrose, hung down stairs with the architectural drawings. Space, however, has been found for Mr. Abbey's large "Trial of Queen Catherine" from last year's Academy.

The collection ends with a "foreign" section, absurd if it were considered as representative of the development of anything but the taste and knowledge of collectors in Scotland. "Foreign" here means Dutch and French. There is a solitary Lenbach, a chance Fortuny, but all the other pictures and water-colors are the work not only of Frenchmen and Dutchmen, but, with not very notable exceptions, of one school of Frenchmen and Dutchmen. However, if you want to study this school, if you want to know something of the artists, now called the Romanticists, in their most masterly performances, no better opportunity could be had. Paris, last summer, could show more Corots, but nothing to compete with that most exquisite of all his idyls, "Le Rond des Enfants," or with the dignified "Don Quixote," or the lovely little study of the nude in open air, "The Bather." Nowhere else could so many fine Monticellis, or such delightful examples of Matthew Maris, an artist who grows shyer and shyer of exhibitions, be found in one and the same gallery. And it seemed to me I had never before understood the full glory of Millet as a colorist, or of Jacque as a pastoral poet. Of the artists who followed the Romanticists in France, there is next to nothing. But, when the little that is shown is so splendid, one can afford to forget the much that is not shown.

The sculpture is gathered together chiefly from recent Academies. Save for M. Rodin's John the Baptist and one of the figures from the Calais group, Mr. Macmonnies's horses and one or two smaller works by M. Meunier and M. Vallgren, the "foreign" sculptor might be supposed not to have existed

during the century. For the Arts and Crafts, only a down-stairs gallery in one of the pavilions has been reserved, though upon photographs about three times the space has been lavished.

The Black-and-White shares the faults and virtues of the other sections. Many fine drawings and prints are included, but the omissions are only too conspicuous, if you accept as serious the desire to illustrate its development throughout the last hundred years. The hanging is bewildering. Old work and new jostle each other. Etchings, woodcuts, lithographs, and drawings are all mixed up together in hopeless confusion, and the individual artist's work is scattered from one end of the badly lit gallery to the other. Take one instance: two of Goya's famous lithographs of bullfights hang side by side so low it is almost impossible to see them; you go further on, and discover a third badly skied; further still, and a fourth looks down also from the sky line. Nor is this an exceptional case. But, as I have said, in the midst of the confusion are many things you are glad to see. There is an important series of Mr. Whistler's etchings. Other American artists well represented are Mr. Abbey and Mr. Pennell, but better and more characteristic examples could have been found of Mr. Howard Pyle and Mr. Remington.

If I add that two small reception-rooms have been hung with a few well-chosen "Old Masters," I have said enough to explain that the Art Gallery, unsatisfactory in some respects, is still more than worth the journey to Glasgow. N. N.

FOUCHÉ.—I.

PARIS, July 3, 1901.

The most important historical work published lately on the Napoleonic period is the 'Fouché,' in two octavo volumes, of M. Louis Madelin, former member of the French School at Athens, and professor of history in the French University. M. Madelin has not avoided the error, which is common to all biographers, of magnifying their heroes and finding excuses for their faults. In the case of Fouché these errors are too often crimes; and when M. Madelin defended his thesis before the professors of the Sorbonne (for his remarkable book was originally a thesis, which he had to produce and defend in order to obtain the degree of *agrégé* of the University), after long discussions, one of the professors became impatient, and said, much to the amusement of the audience: "This is all very well, M. Madelin, but, after all that has been said, your Fouché was a scoundrel (*gredin*)."

This *gredin* played such an important part that history cannot neglect him, and throw him away among all the criminal characters that sprung out of the confusion of the revolutionary times. He may well be said to have been, with Talleyrand, the most important civil servant of Napoleon; and, strangely enough, as both owed their great fortune to him, so both betrayed him and became the agents and servants of the Bourbons. They both appear to us, at a distance, as arch-traitors, and both covered and colored their treason with patriotic reasons. They both have something Mephistophelian in their character which justifies the great severity of the judgment passed upon them by Napoleon at St. Helena. Talleyrand has been judged more leniently by history than Fouché; he had not been one of the cruellest actors in the Revolution, and he was so fortunate as to be able to render great services to his country in the latter part of his life. Fouché ended his days in disgrace, while Talleyrand died in a sort of apotheosis, after the London Conference, where he presided at the creation of the new kingdom of Belgium.

On the 17th of November, 1781, the seminary of the Oratory of Jesus in Paris received a new pupil, a young man, twenty-two years old, of humble aspect, coming from Nantes. His name was Joseph Fouché. He belonged to a family of sailors, and, like almost all his future colleagues in the Convention, to a middle-class family in easy circumstances. The tradition will have it that Fouché was a priest; the tradition is wrong—he never was a priest, nor even engaged in the major orders; he was only tonsured and a "confrère de l'Oratoire," a title which he kept till 1792. On leaving the seminary, he became a semi-lay professor at the college at Juilly where the aristocratic families of Paris sent their children. He was afterwards sent to Arras, where he was professor of physical science, and made the acquaintance of a lawyer, Maximilian Robespierre, and of Lazare Carnot. It is said that he made an offer to Robespierre's sister, Charlotte, which she accepted, and that he did not fulfil his promise. Did he try to repair a fault when, afterwards, being already Minister of the Empire, he procured a pension for Charlotte?

In 1789 Robespierre was appointed a member of the States-General, and borrowed money from Fouché to pay his expenses at Versailles. Fouché early became imbued with the ideas of the Revolution; sent back to Nantes, he threw himself completely into the movement, and became a member of the club of the Friends of the Constitution. As there were at Nantes many families living by the slave trade, these Friends of the Constitution thought it necessary to protest against a speech by the Girondin Brissot, who had eloquently attacked the slave trade, and Fouché made himself their mouthpiece. He was already what we call now an opportunist, conforming his ideas to the circumstances of the case. Brissot denounced him justly. "The public," he said, without doing him the honor to name him, "will see with indignation a priest, and a priest who calls himself a patriot, becoming the apostle of the most revolting brigandage, which is condemned by the Scriptures."

Fouché was elected, in September, 1792, a member of the Chamber; he married and went to Paris, where he took lodgings in the Rue St. Honoré. He took his seat on the right side of the Assembly, as he represented Nantes, with Daunou, Condorcet, and Vergniaud, the Girondins. He spoke little at the Convention, alleging as a pretext the weakness of his voice, but in reality preferring to witness the course of events rather than to control it. When the trial of Louis XVI. began, Fouché hesitated between his desire to please his constituents at Nantes, who held the opinions of the Girondins, and his desire to vote with the majority. He even prepared a speech in which he pronounced against capital punishment. This he read to Daunou, and told him to place himself in the centre in order to hear it when he had to give his vote. When Fouché showed himself at the tribune, on the 16th of January, Daunou was at his place; but he heard Fouché utter only one word, "La mort," with his feeble voice. The next day Fouché published a violent pamphlet, 'Reflections of J. Fouché on the Judgment of Louis Capet.' The Girondins had joined the Mountain, and Fouché was in the majority. He often spoke afterwards of "the unfortunate monarch," "the virtuous monarch"—especially after 1814; he pretended to repent his "fault" even a few weeks before his death; he had been deceived; he had condemned the "horrible phantom which had been presented to the Convention," not the real Louis XVI. M. Madelin justly protests against these utterances? "He never was more cold-blooded during a crisis. . . . If it be true that he changed his opinion on the day when he had to declare himself, it was because the majority was changing from day to day; he followed it and swelled it."

The day when he became a regicide was a turning-point for Fouché. He now belonged to the Mountain, that bloodthirsty and cruel party which inaugurated in France the Reign of Terror, and has left in history a name that can never be forgotten. Fouché became one of the most systematic Terrorists, and the chronicle of the missions which were confided to him by the Convention in the Provinces is among the most repugnant pages in the history of France. Fouché played the part of proconsul in the year 1793 at Nantes, Troyes, Lyons, in all the departments of the west and of the centre of France; he was responsible for the wholesale executions at Lyons. *Ex uno disce omnes.* On the 14th Frimaire, in the plain of Les Brotteaux, between two parallel ditches, destined to be graves, sixty-four young men, in chains, were placed; in front of them were placed the guns of the Revolutionary army. The victims sang the admirable "Chant du départ." At a signal given from the stand where sat the Commissioners of the Convention, the guns were fired, and the martyrs fell.

M. Madelin finds an excuse in the fact that Fouché was accompanied at Lyons by the furious and half-mad Collot-d'Herbois; he also contrasts the tone of his correspondence with the Convention and the Committee of Public Safety and his real action in some places.

"When one reads this correspondence, one is really stupefied, terrified, especially when one reflects what the man really was, what he must have been. Written by a madman like Carrier [the Carrier who drowned his victims in the Loire], such letters are horrible, but not surprising. But Fouché—that cold, skeptical, ironical, shrewd man! The mask is abominable, but it is a mask. His letters written from Lyons are atrocious in their cool ferocity; the literature of the pro-consuls in their mission offers hardly any more revolting. The Deputy from Nantes appears in them like an executioner intoxicated by the blood which he sheds. What an account he gives of the *mitraillades* at Lyons, of the executions in the Place des Terreaux! Expressions of a mild humanitarianism serve as an accompaniment to the discharge of the guns which mow down in an instant a hundred, two hundred, five hundred victims. . . . With all this, we have anti-religious declamations."

All this correspondence, all the decrees issued in various cities, are, in the opinion of M. Madelin, but a screen behind which Fouché conceals his real want of demagogic faith.

"He knows that Robespierre watches him from the Committee of Public Safety. He will not incur the terrible reproach of moderatism. He is committed to a road which

he must follow. He is of the most radical group, has adopted its ideas, defends them, since Hébert, Chaumette, Collot, Billaud retain power under their influence—for this is the persistent character of Fouché: he is the man of the victorious faction, and the victorious faction in the summer and the autumn of 1793 is the Hébert faction. Robespierre trembles before Hébert, who is master of Revolutionary opinion, thanks to his *Père Duchesne*, which sells sometimes 600,000 copies a day. Chaumette proclaims Atheism as the official religion, and celebrates the Feast of Reason in the Church of Notre Dame; Ronsin is at the head of the Revolutionary army, Bouchotte is Minister of War; and a little later, at the end of 1793, at the beginning of 1794, Collot and Billaud balance in the Committee the influence of Robespierre and of Couthon. Under these guarantees of protection, the man of circumstances reveals himself suddenly as the boldest theorician of the party, giving lessons in Jacobinism to Hébert, in Atheism to Chaumette, in Communism to the Commune of Paris."

On the 17th Germinal (April 8), 1794, Fouché came back to Paris, after his bloody proconsulate of seven months, with his wife and a young child dying of consumption. He returned the next day to the Convention. He took his seat with the Mountain, and could see the empty seats of a hundred Deputies who were there no more. Vergniaud had been guillotined on the 30th of October, Daunou was in prison, awaiting death; Condorcet was in hiding. Neither was Danton any longer there, nor Camille Desmoulins. Robespierre had decimated the Convention, and what remained of it was in a state of abject terror. Fouché knew himself to be an object of hatred and of contempt to Robespierre; all he had done in the provinces would be vain if Robespierre had condemned him in his mind.

Correspondence.

IMPERIALISM VERSUS UNION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am cited as saying that the spectacle of the United States "going in for tropical islands and subject races has greatly cooled the ardor of those Canadians who had advocated union with their neighbors on the south." There can be no doubt what the effect of such a spectacle must be. You dominate Cuba and Porto Rico. You annex the Philippines, in this case burning the Declaration of Independence. The process is not likely to end here, especially as your own Southern States are apparently reverting to the social relations, which carry with them the political tendencies, of slavery. The impelling force, apparently, is the craving of the capitalist for new fields of exploitation to be operated with servile labor. It is not unlikely that the vision of the slave-owner will be fulfilled. Cuba, prime object of his desire, you control. You will have the West Indies, San Domingo, Mexico, probably everything north of Panama. The Nicaraguan Canal will be a lure. From all these extraneous sources unrepublican influence will flow. Then one of two things, apparently, must happen: either your Commonwealth, with or without change of form, must become an empire, or there must be a severance of the Union. Prudence enjoins Canada to await the issue.

In the meantime, the question of commercial reciprocity is independent of that of political union. One is glad to see that in this respect the dictates of nature, long thrust out of sight by monopoly, have once more a chance of recognition.

Yours faithfully, Goldwin Smith.

Toronto, July 22, 1901.

HESSIANS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to call the attention of your readers to a request of Prof. Edward Schroeder of the University of Marburg. Professor Schroeder is making a study of the repute of the Hessians in America, and he is desirous of obtaining every scrap of information upon the subject. He is looking particularly for popular expressions mentioning or referring to the Hessians, and is prepared for vulgar or insulting terms or phrases. Any information about the matter should be addressed to Herrn Prof. Dr. Edward Schroeder, Marburg, Germany.—Very truly yours,

George Hempl.

Ann Arbor, Mich., July 17, 1901.

Notes.

'Secrets of the Woods,' by W. J. Long, is on the point of publication by Ginn & Co.

Thormanby's 'Kings of the Rod, Rifle and Gun' is promised for next month by E. P. Dutton & Co.

Cassell & Co. will soon publish 'An Eton Boy's Letters,' by Nugent Bankes.

The Cambridge Encyclopædia Company of this city will issue next month 'A History of the Precious Metals, from the Earliest Times to the Present,' by Alexander Del Mar.

The Philippine Information Society, No. 12 Otis Place, Boston, announces that its first series of pamphlets will be finished in September, bringing the history up to July, 1901. A second (monthly) series of "Facts about the Filipinos" will be begun in October, and will be a repository of current information derived from Government reports, Congressional debates, etc., in addition to special correspondence from the islands. The subscription price is $1 per annum; but the membership fee of $5 covers all the Society's publications.

The late F. Max Müller died before completing his autobiography, which has been published since his death as a torso ('My Autobiography: A Fragment,' Scribners). The book is full of lively anecdotes, and has a certain value in depicting University life in Germany and at Oxford half a century ago. The characteristics of the author's Auld Lang Syne are conspicuous in the present volume, which gives a somewhat painful impression of the author's vanity. But the book is well written and entertaining, though Müller's attitude toward his contemporaries is unpleasing, and his statements in regard to his own importance as a scholar must be taken *cum grano*.

The same writer's 'Last Essays' (First Series; Longmans, Green & Co.), also published since his death, contain papers (republished) on language, folklore, and other subjects. The editor, Professor Müller's son, announces in the preface that another volume of selected essays will appear in the autumn of this year. It is a pity that the author did not live to revise these essays, which, in their present form, repeat each other to a certain extent, and even contradict each other's views, as in the estimate of Tacitus's 'Germania.' Historical students will be interested in the paper on the Schleswig-Holstein Question, and in that entitled Coincidences; while the essay on Kant and that on Thought and Language will attract the student of philosophy. As all the essays have either been delivered as addresses or appeared in print in recent years, between 1887 and 1899, no extended notice is necessary; they are very welcome in their new and convenient form.

There is a class of persons whom 'Knowledge, Belief, and Certitude,' by Frederick Storrs Turner (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan), will precisely suit. Let a man, with no intention of seriously studying philosophy or of forming any decided opinions about it, wish principally to kill time, and incidentally to gain from some candid and fair informant so much acquaintance with the doctrines of Riehl, Hegel, Lotze, Wundt, Bradley, Hodgson, and other philosophers whom he sometimes hears praised as can be gained without the inconvenience of his being called upon to do any thinking, or of being importuned with paradoxes, and we do not know what author we could recommend to him so confidently as Mr. Turner. For a young student of the subject, however, no teaching could possibly be worse. As for the trained metaphysician, he may have his reasons for looking into the book; but he will not do so in any hopes of improving his comprehension of epistemology, after the first five minutes. Let nobody attempt this book whom either twaddle irritates, or who attaches the slightest value to his time.

Publishers do not shrink from putting on the same list works which compete with each other. Henry Holt & Co., who brought out Gasc's excellent French and English Dictionary in 1898, already issue another by Prof. Hjalmar Edgren of the University of Nebraska and Percy B. Burnet, formerly an assistant professor in the same institution. The new volume is somewhat squat in form, and mounts up to 1,252 pages, in double columns instead of the triple columns of Gasc's 956 pages. Its arrangement is much more condensed, and ease of alphabetical reference is sacrified to derivative grouping. *Ferme*, for example, is to be sought in the section introduced by *fermant*. The wisdom of this will always be doubted, as the first resort to a dictionary is most frequently, beyond comparison, for definition and idiom. In neither of these respects is the new candidate for public favor so full as Gasc. *Fer* is a word in point; *fenêtre* and *ferme* still more strikingly so. Honors are divided in the case of *fête*. (We are running through a single letter.) On the other hand, Edgren and Burnet indicate pronunciation, etymology, and century of first appearance; matters disregarded by Gasc. They also, as under *feindre*, show the irregular parts of a verb. On the whole, the two dictionaries supplement each other, and the later one has had the advantage of the complete Hatzfeld-Darmesteter-Thomas 'Dictionnaire Général.' They will not quarrel on the same shelf any more than they do in Messrs. Holt's list. The later work has the more open typography.

'The Story of Bruges,' by Ernest Gilliat-Smith, is the latest addition to the Dent-

Macmillan "Mediæval Towns." After a somewhat elaborate historical sketch of the history of Bruges, from the earliest times to its incorporation in Maximilian's empire, the architecture and paintings in the present city are dispatched in some hundred pages. The author reminds us that, though the records of Bruges are practically complete from the end of the thirteenth century to the present day, the history of the town is yet to be written. Craving a pioneer's indulgence for himself, he pays a deserved tribute to the illustrators, Edith Calvert and Herbert Railton, whose work notably enhances the attractiveness and value of his book.

A new treatise on the 'Conflict of Laws, or Private International Law,' by Raleigh C. Minor (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), merits attention on account both of the novelty of the analysis underlying it and of the conscientious care with which the author has attempted to work out his theory. He finds the great foundation of private international law in *Situs*. This leads to rather curious results, for we have not only the "Situs of Status" and "Situs of Contracts," but the "Situs of Remedies." If this view is correct, the conflict of laws might more properly be called the Law of Situs, a rather startling conclusion to those familiar with the subject as treated by Story and Dicey. The treatise is a valuable addition to the learning on the subject.

Frederick N. Judson of the St. Louis bar is the author of 'A Treatise upon the Law and Practice of Taxation in Missouri' (Columbia: E. W. Stephens). The book is a review of local law and decisions, and embodies the conviction of the author that the Missouri system (not unlike that of other States in principle) is a confessed failure so far as securing equality of taxation is concerned. There is also some discussion of suggested reforms and remedies. It seems that at some points the taxpayer is better off in New York than in Missouri. He can, at any rate, invoke the power of the courts to correct inequality of assessment, while in Missouri the assessors, if they know what they are about, can make this impossible for him (p. 311).

John S. Ewart's 'Exposition of the Principles of Estoppel by Misrepresentation' (Chicago: Callaghan & Co.) is a learned and very acute treatise, which deserves more extended examination than we can here give it. It can be tested only by detailed comparison with Mr. Bigelow's work. It seems to us, so far as we have been able to look into it, to throw a great deal of new light on the subject, as, for instance, in the discussion of estoppel as a rule of evidence (pp. 188, 195).

Charles P. Norton's 'Hand-book of the Law of Notes and Bills' (St. Paul: West Publishing Co., Horn-Book Series) has reached a third edition. This has been prepared by Francis B. Tiffany, and contains, in an appendix, the Negotiable Instruments Statute now adopted by so many States.

The current Proceedings of the Vermont Historical Society (Burlington) contain Dr. Matthew H. Buckham's address last November on the late Edward J. Phelps, with a good portrait. The appendix gives particulars of the acquisition by the Society of the sword of Lord Byron, through the heirs of the late Col. Jonathan P. Miller, one of the American Philhellenes. A portrait of Col. Miller, also a prominent abolitionist, has likewise been presented to the Society.

In the 23d annual report of the Providence Public Library, just published, attention may be drawn to original statistics of American public libraries, showing their order by volumes (above 20,000) and by annual book expenditure; the above institution ranking (with its 93,368 volumes) seventeen in the first list and only forty-seven in the second. Even Boston falls to third place in expenditure, being outranked by the Free Library of Philadelphia and by the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh.

The *Moniteur*, one of the oldest and, in earlier days, one of the best known of the world's journals, ceased to appear last month after an existence of more than a century. Founded in 1790, it was the official Government organ till 1868, when the *Journal Officiel* was founded. For the last thirty years it has been a Royalist newspaper.

A brief autobiographical sketch of Sofia Kovalevsky, in the July *Rundschau*, should be brought to the notice of those whose interest in that remarkable woman has not ceased with her death. It is a translation (by Sophie von Adelung) of an account which the great mathematician gave of herself at the house of a friend during her last visit at St. Petersburg, in May, 1890, and which was, with her consent, taken down in shorthand.

The editor of the *Journal of Pedagogy* (vol. xiii., No. 4) welcomes, as a gratifying sign of progress in public-school administration, the tendency toward greater centralization of power. He holds that all authority on educational matters in any locality should be concentrated in one officer, the Superintendent, whose tenure of office ought to be secure at least during a fixed number of years. To the reader the question naturally suggests itself, What if the officer in question is a political wire-puller, who has obtained his position not because of any distinction as an educator, but through his "influence" with members of the Board? Unfortunately, a large proportion of the school superintendents in the country are men of this class. But even so, as long as they are in position, is it not better that the responsibility for the condition of the schools should rest upon them, instead of somewhere between the Superintendent and the Board, in consequence of continual "specific mandates" by the latter?

The New Radcliffe Library, a building for the reception of scientific books, is a recent noteworthy gift of the Drapers' Company to the University of Oxford. Heretofore a considerable proportion of the revenues of this ancient guild has been devoted to technical and scientific education in London and the great manufacturing and mining centres, but this is the first contribution which it or any of the great London companies has made to the educational resources of the older universities. The Vice-Chancellor, in accepting the gift, called attention to the fact that, through the reduction of rents, the revenues of the colleges and University amounted now to about 50 per cent. only of their former income; and, "with the enormous increase of the calls upon them through the multiplication of the subjects of study, and especially through the rapid growth and constantly increasing subdivision of the natural sciences, they were barely able to maintain their educational efficiency without incurring pecuniary obligations beyond their power to meet."

The Oxford Local Examinations, which are being held this month at more than two hundred places throughout the empire, including Hongkong, Malta, and Natal, are an indication not only of the interest in the higher education, but of its changes and direction. The number of senior, junior, and preliminary candidates is 10,583, an increase of 500 over last year. Of the subjects chosen by the seniors, the Scriptures and Shakspere are still taken by the majority. There is an increase in the number taking geography, but in natural science there is a considerable falling off, except in chemistry and electricity. It is interesting to note that, notwithstanding the disturbance of the war, Natal offers 89 preliminary candidates, being exceeded only by Liverpool (with 92) in the 199 centres or places for examination.

The Gordon Memorial College at Khartum is nearly ready to open its doors to the Sudanese youth. For some time the endowment has supported a preparatory school, with more than 150 pupils, at Omdurman, where the bulk of the native population still reside, and one with about 90 pupils at Khartum. A recent English visitor, Mr. H. S. Wellcome, in view of the considerable possibilities for technical education in that region, has presented to the college a bacteriological and analytical laboratory, which will be specially adapted to the requirements of the population and fitted with every modern appliance. It is also proposed to put a museum of Sudan products in the college building.

The preliminary work for the International Congress of the Historical Sciences, appointed to meet in Rome in the spring of 1902, has been practically completed, and the prospects for a successful convention on a grand scale are excellent. King Victor Emanuel III. has accepted the protectorate of the Congress, and has directed that the Government authorities coöperate in the matter with the savants. Prof. Dr. Garriani, Director of the Archives in the Foreign Office, is also the General Secretary of the Congress, and he has sent out the invitations to the foreign academies, institutes, and savants. The Ministry of Public Works grants the participants special rates on the railroads, and the Ministry of Education has promised free admission to all the museums and other collections for four weeks. Hundreds have already accepted the invitation, Germany alone being represented by 117 names, including all her leading historians. The Congress will do its work in sixteen sections, viz.: (1) Classical Archæology; (2) Numismatics; (3) History of Classical and Oriental Antiquities; (4) History of Ancient Literature; (5) History of Ancient Jurisprudence; (6) Diplomatics, Ancient and Modern; (7) History of Mediæval and Modern Literature; (8) History of Ancient and Mediæval Art; (9) History of Laws; (10) History of National Economy and the Social Sciences; (11) History of Philosophy and Pedagogics; (12) History of Religion; (13) History of Geographical Sciences; (14) History of Mathematical and Experimental Sciences; (15) History of Music and Dramatic Art; (16) Methodology of Historiography. The managers of the Congress emphasize the fact that this movement has no connection whatever with the International Congress of Historians having headquarters at The Hague and in Paris.

The Archæological Congress planned for Athens has now been practically decided upon, King George, on his recent return from abroad, having given final orders to this effect to the Department of Education. Only financial matters remain to be adjusted, and as the Congress will deal largely with problems of international concern, such as the restoration of the Parthenon with the fragments found in such abundance in the Athenian Museum and on the grounds, it is hoped that contributions from abroad will come to the aid of the exhausted Greek Treasury. A preliminary programme has been made, and the exact date for the convention, to which the leading representatives of classical antiquities in Europe and America are to be invited, will be determined in the near future.

—Upon the appearance of the first volume of Mr. Russell Sturgis's valuable 'Dictionary of Architecture' (Macmillan) we made a somewhat lengthy report of the work in general. The publication of the second volume cannot be allowed to pass without a brief note of its more important features. It covers the alphabet from F to N, a space which includes many articles of the highest interest. Perhaps the most notable of these is one of great fulness upon the architecture of Italy from the pen of Prof. Arthur L. Frothingham, jr. The same author also contributes an extremely lucid article upon the Memorial Arches of the Romans, in which he approaches the subject in a way as unusual as it is searching. The architecture of France, largely from the hand of the editor; of Germany, by H. W. Brewer; of Japan, by Ralph Adams Cram, who treats his subject *con amore;* and of North Africa, by Alexander Graham, all fall within the present volume and add greatly to its usefulness. In practical matters the volume is not lacking, as it has, for example, articles on structural steelwork and on masonry by Mr. W. R. Hutton, while, in purely decorative affairs, it includes Fresco and Mosaic, by Frederick Crowninshield, and Mural Painting, by Edward H. Blashfield. The great number of minor articles, upon the most varied subjects, contributed by the editor, are fresh evidence of his remarkable versatility and of his firm grasp on all that he undertakes. The third and final volume of the work is expected during the autumn.

—'American Diplomatic Questions' (Macmillan) is the title of an octavo volume of 529 pages by John B. Henderson, jr. The author deals with the Fur Seals question, the Interoceanic Canal problem, the Samoan imbroglio and its solution, the Monroe Doctrine, and the Northwest Fisheries. The greater part of the book is historical, and will be found to contain much information not otherwise easily accessible; for the general reader the author's conclusions would be of great interest, but here we are rather baffled by Mr. Henderson's impartiality. He prefers to put before the reader a picture of the discussion as it stands, with the arguments, pro and con, and leave him to find the way out. But, if we are not mistaken, the weight of the argument as to the Canal question is allowed to develop itself by giving the upholders of a neutral canal the "close" in the debate. At any rate, this is his concluding paragraph, admirably put: "With the neutrality of the canal guaranteed by international agreement between the great maritime Powers, there would be no need of fortifications, because, in the face of so powerful a combination, none would dare to violate the freedom of the route. American armies would not be needed to defend its banks; American ships would not be called upon to raise a blockade or disperse a threatening squadron. The United States would escape the many pitfalls of foreign entanglements which the selfish policy of sole political control must inevitably place in her path; and thus—the advocates of neutralization maintain—by the adoption of a more liberal policy in Central America, an 'inexhaustible source of international conflict' would be avoided."

—"Main Currents in Nineteenth Century Literature," by Prof. George Brandes, has long enjoyed an honorable repute among scholars qualified to judge it in the vernacular. It is, therefore, with pleasure that we welcome an authoritative version in English (The Macmillan Co.). Of the six projected volumes, the first, which is now in hand, has as its subject 'The Emigrant Literature.' It is not important to revive here the discussion of the many interesting and troublous questions of which Professor Brandes treats. In this, as in all his work, the reader nurtured upon the best English criticism may sometimes feel the lack of fineness of scholarship, of perfect delicacy of taste, a defect in poise. But all this amounts to saying that he is not persistently devoted to the furtherance of the dry light of letters. He has the advantage of multifarious learning, the virtues of catholicity and geniality, and his writing is always pregnant with meaning. It may be well to remind the reader that, in Professor Brandes's classification, 'The Emigrant Literature' comprises the work of Chateaubriand, Sénancour, Nodier, Constant, and Barante; all grouped about the historic personality of the amiable Madame de Staël. The stormy and stressful writing of this group, perturbed by the impact of romantic ideas upon the rationalism of the previous age, constitutes in his discussion "the prologue to the great literary drama of the century." It is interesting to note that, like all Continental critics, Brandes is disposed to regard the romantic and revolutionary turmoil in the early years of the nineteenth century as the true golden age of literary history, whereas the more conservative English mind seems more and more to consider it as a very significant but still distinctly subsidiary eddy in the general course of letters. The work of translation has been ably done; this, coupled with the romantic field of the book, and Professor Brandes's rather exceptional skill at retelling a story, render the volume one which should tend to the pleasure of the general reader as well as to his edification; while the peculiarities in the point of view of the study make it of extraordinary interest to the reflective student.

—Dr. A. von der Leyen, a well-known authority on railroad affairs, discusses in the June *Rundschau* the results of "Ten Years of State Railway Management in Prussia." The Prussian State railway system comprises at present more than 30,000 kilometres of track, and represents an investment of 8,000 million marks; its annual budget amounts to nearly 1,500 million marks, and the officials and laborers in its employ number not far from 350,000. That such a gigantic concern, by far the largest in existence, could be successfully managed by one central administration, was not thought possible a quarter of a century ago. It appears that twenty-one years ago scarcely one-half of the Prussian railroads were under Government control, while to-day less than one-tenth remain in private hands. The change was nearly effected ten years ago, and a few figures will show the increase of business during the decade 1889-99. Number of passengers, increase 135 per cent.; distance travelled over by passenger trains, 59 per cent.; passenger kilometres, 94 per cent.; receipts from passenger traffic, 70 per cent.—the discrepancy being due to reduction in fares; freight, ton-kilometres, 63 per cent.; receipts for freight, 52 per cent.—reduction in rates representing a saving to shippers of 60 million marks during the period; number of coal cars furnished in the Rhenish-Westphalian district, 60 per cent.; increase of employees of all classes, 32 per cent.; increase in salaries and wages, 72 per cent. One hundred and forty-three million marks were expended on fourteen of the larger new station buildings; and the annual average for improvements of the roads, for new rolling-stock, etc., is 73½ million marks. The rate of interest on the invested capital rose from 6.26 per cent. in 1889 to 7.28 per cent. in 1899, and the excess of receipts over expenditures from 1882 to 1900 amounted to 6,083 million marks.

—'Von Quarto zum Volturno' (Berlin: Alexander Duncker) is a faithful translation from Italian into German of Cesare Abba's diary kept during the eventful months from May to November, 1860, of Garibaldi's expedition with his thousand volunteers to free the two Sicilies from the yoke of the Bourbon. Abba had already fought for Italian independence in 1859; and as the unity of Italy was his ideal, he joined the legendary hero at Quarto just in time to win the glorious title of "One of the Thousand." Signora Sofia Guerrieri Gonzaga, whose paternal forbears are famous in the annals of Mantua, and whose names figure honorably in the modern history of Italian independence, has chosen wisely this simple narration of the hourly and daily actions of the heroic youths who followed in the footsteps of the martyrs, the brothers Bandiera, those "hearts devoted unto death," of Pisacane and his noble companions "who died that Italy might live," whom Garibaldi in his hour of triumph acclaimed as the "true pioneers." Most of the so-called histories of the *Mille* are one-sided narratives, the writers being fierce partisans of Cavour or of Mazzini, of Victor Emanuel or of Garibaldi. Abba does not concern himself with politics; neither does he write to exalt this or that politician or general, still less to put himself forward as a hero or chief actor in the great drama. A modest student, he returned to his studies at the University, then reappeared in the Tyrol, and fought splendidly the last battle of the volunteers at Bezzecca, where it was touch and go for the Austrians, whose general declared himself beaten. But for the order to abandon the blood-stained and hard-won heights where the Italians left over two thousand dead and wounded, the Italian Tyrol would not now be separated from the mother country. We yet hope to see a memoir of Benedetto Cairoli and of Gabriele Rosa from Abba's pen, and he may think himself fortunate in finding a translator who

writes with equal fluency her paternal and maternal tongues.

—In view of the work which it has undertaken and is doing, the Vorderasiatische Gesellschaft deserves to be more widely known. The organization is five years old, and has now a membership of about one hundred. Its headquarters are Berlin (Wolf-Peiser *Verlag*). The annual subscription price is 10 marks ($2.50). How, out of this sum, the Society contrives to publish its numerous *Mittcilungen* is a mystery. For the year 1900 five appeared, averaging 40 pages or thereabouts, and illustrated with numerous plates and facsimile reproductions of inscriptions. The first number, by Prof. Max Müller of Philadelphia, dealt with the original home of the Philistines, correcting in some points his well-known book 'Asien und Europa.' He believes that the Philistines came for the most part from the southern shores of Asia Minor, from western Cilicia westward, although some, the Cherethites of the Bible, may have come from Crete. Caphtor he believes to have been a term equivalent to "the far west," including the Asia Minor coast lands and the Ægæan Islands. He is inclined to think that the Philistines were Indo-Europeans, at least in the main. In the same number he published a translation of "The Papyrus Golenischeff," and, largely on the basis of this document, reached the conclusion that the Philistine invasion of Syria and Palestine took place as early as the latter half of the thirteenth century B. C. The second of these *Mitteilungen*, by Dr. Peiser, under the title "Studien zur Orientalischen Altertumskunde," presented a new theory of the Babylonian origin of the Semitic alphabet, in opposition to that set forth by Friedrich Delitzsch a few years since. In the fourth and fifth numbers L. Messerschmidt commenced the important and desirable work of collecting all the so-called Hittite inscriptions, now scattered through all sorts of publications, under the title "Corpus Inscriptionum Hettiticarum." Forty-five plates, containing more than as many inscriptions, are published, with a descriptive text giving such information as exists with regard to the place where each inscription was found, on what material written, present resting-place, former publication, etc. In addition to these official publications, the Society commenced last year the issue of "popular presentations" (*Gemeinverständliche Darstellungen*), to be sold at low prices (15 cents apiece, or two marks a year), for the purpose of arousing and informing public interest with regard to the Orient. This series is entitled "Der Alte Orient."

—The last number of the *Mitteilungen*, by Otto Weber, just published, deals especially with the question of the age of the South Arabian Minæan kingdom. In general he agrees with Glaser and Hommel as to the antiquity of the inscriptions. He endeavors to prove that the Minæan kingdom antedated the kingdom of the Sabæans, reaching its highest point of prosperity about 1000 B. C. At this time the Minæans had the commerce of Southern Arabia in their hands, while by means of a colony in the northern part of Arabia, Musri, frequently confounded in the Bible with Egypt, they were in close commercial intercourse with Mesopotamia, Egypt, Edom, and the Mediterranean countries. The Minæan inscriptions carry us back, he believes, at least as far as 1200 B. C., and, of course, the Minæan alphabet was developed much earlier. The Minæan kingdom lasted until about 600 B. C., when it was overthrown by the Sabæans. Almost by the same mail we received the second part of the first volume of Lidzbarski's 'Ephemeris für Semitische Epigraphik,' which deals with the same subject from another standpoint, that of epigraphy. Lidzbarski discusses the relations of the south Arabian script to the north Semitic script, as found in the Phœnician, Moabite, and similar inscriptions. In opposition to Hommel, who supposed the Minæan script to have been the parent of the Phœnician, Lidzbarski reaches the conclusion that the south Arabian script was derived directly from the north Semitic or Phœnician. Now, that the latter was not in existence in 1400 B. C., is shown pretty clearly by the Tel el-Amarna tablets. It meets us fully developed possibly as early as 1000 B. C., and was probably developed somewhere between that date and 1200 B. C. in Phœnicia or the neighboring regions. From there it was carried at about the same time to Greece and Arabia. Allowing time for the very considerable development shown in the oldest of the south Arabian inscriptions yet discovered, Lidzbarski concludes that they cannot antedate 800 B. C., thus supporting the view generally entertained of the date of the Minæan-Sabæan civilization, in opposition to Glaser, Hommel, and Weber. Some space is given to the pottery with royal markings found by Dr. Bliss at Zakaria, Safi, and Judeideh, in Palestine. Lidzbarski argues very effectively that these markings must be pre-exilic. Incidentally he discusses the forms of the letters of the famous Siloah inscription from Jerusalem, and on epigraphical grounds concludes that this inscription is very ancient, as was at first supposed, and not of the Herodian period, as has recently been claimed.

LANDOR'S CHINA AND THE ALLIES.

China and the Allies. By A. Henry Savage-Landor. 2 vols., illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons.

At last, in a brace of octavos weighing nearly eight pounds, we have Mr. Landor's story of the Boxer uprising and the battle summer of 1900 in China. In yellow bindings, stamped with black letters and the symbol of the Boxer brotherhood clenched and supported by the five-clawed imperial dragon, it fills over 800 pages. The end papers between cover and frontispiece are facsimile reproductions from a Chinese army drill-book. It is the story of a lucky and a plucky war correspondent, who, in the nick of time, was on the field with pen and camera, seeing much of the fighting at Tientsin and around Peking, and whose brief preface is as follows: "The aim of this book has been to give a record of events as they occurred and to avoid national or personal prejudices."

Having read the book through, we must acknowledge that Mr. Landor has fairly succeeded. Perfection could hardly be expected. Naturally the man who was tortured by Buddhist priests, and, even worse, was baffled in his quest and purpose to enter their sacred capital in Tibet, charges the blame for the Boxer uprising upon these gentry of the yellow robe. Indeed, he confesses to having gratified his personal feelings so far as to offer personal violence to a peaceful Buddhist priest, "shaking him by the neck" and sending "him sprawling into the middle of the courtyard." After this, one can scarcely avoid thinking that some quite human prejudice may yet disturb his vision. His strictures upon the British Minister, Sir Claude MacDonald, have the flavor of a personal grievance, and one feels all the way through, as his severe condemnations of Gen. Chaffee are freely and repeatedly expressed, that the true inwardness of his relations with this officer is not revealed. Standing out with the clearness of a lighthouse, amid much that is as dark and as puzzling as are the features of an unknown shore in twilight, is the action of the American Admiral. After reading this fresh confirmation of the wisdom and righteousness of Admiral Kempff's refusal to attack the Taku forts, before the Chinese Government was known to have committed a warlike act, we wonder why the American people do not give him an ovation.

Mr. Landor's literary style is simple, clear, and straightforward. He gives in several chapters a careful account of the Boxer movements, both hidden and phenomenal, showing how absurdly blinded were the diplomatists in Peking, even when the missionaries at the outposts and among the people kept repeating their warnings. Historically, the case suggests Braddock and the American militia. Mr. Landor's wit and sarcasm do not fail him in showing much British and American stupidity in high places. The story of the events in Peking, down to the investment of the legation by the Boxers and the attack on Tientsin, is told with fulness and in the vivid style of one who has actually seen much, and has been very near to most, of what took place. The author's personal courage seems undoubted. One can see in the photographs themselves, taken on the battle-field, the results of the concussion of the air and the shaking of the ground made by the discharges of cannon. Blurred and indistinct, as many of these pictures are, they are tremendously suggestive.

Beside the most realistic pictures of carnage, even to the feasting of the dogs upon human flesh, Mr. Landor reproduces the documents found in the yamen at Tientsin showing the secret support given by the Government to the Boxers. Some of the papers had drops of candle grease on them, suggesting that the transactions of rewarding Boxer ruffians and assassins took place at night. Only the day before the city of Tientsin was captured, the viceroy's day-book proved that a sum of ten thousand taels was paid to the head Boxer, Cheng. In one case the female Boxer Society had presented the head of a foreigner, for which the viceroy had handed over fifty taels. The chapters describing the capture, destruction, and looting of Tientsin close with a description of the famous book-store from which, in 1898, during the period of reform, the Emperor had ordered 140 scientific and religious books. During the brief dominance of the Reform party, 47,000 such books had been sold in one year in the four northern provinces. Fourteen of the staff of sixteen of Mr. Gammon's book and Bible distributors were slaughtered in the Boxer uprising. Besides the historical Bible store, Mr. Gammon had "an historical wife," who, when a child in 1870, escaped from the massacre at Tientsin, and in 1890 from the bombardment of the same city. When the reports of this

American gentleman's helpers were given at his country's legation, they were received with patronizing hilarity, as not being officially gathered by the employees of the legation.

Between his narrative of Tientsin and that descriptive of the advance of the allies on Peking, the author interjects a description of his journey, in 1891, to the quaint monastery of La Trappe in the interior of China. He shows hearty appreciation of the scenery, and describes the great wall, which is largely a tumble-down structure. He gives, with almost superabundance of vivid details, a moving account of the march of the allies to the rescue of Peking. He was with the composite army, often taking photographs under fire. His description of the battle of Pei-tsang, in which the Japanese bore the brunt of the fighting, is wonderfully realistic. Besides the artistic temperament, which makes the author sensitive to many insignificant matters that lend charm and color to his narrative, he is highly appreciative of humor, and many of his pages sparkle with amusing incidents. He chuckles over the American Consul's July telegram to Minister Conger, which, besides advising the advance of troops, reported the results of the political nominating conventions in America. This keen sense of humor helped the author over many difficulties and dangers.

Volume second begins a day-by-day narrative of the siege in Peking. The author derived his information from many sources, chiefly eye-witnesses, and was able to check his information. It appears that the civilians and diplomatists had become utterly hardened to threats and rumors, probably thinking that they would end as had the same vain breath of the foreign-haters and alien-expellers in the Japan of the early seventies; but, after the dinner-ball on Queen Victoria's birthday at the British legation, the danger seemed to be but a stone's throw off, for news came of the attack on the European railway employees at Feng-Tai. Then it was that the Frenchman Chamot and his brave American wife, at the head of a small party of foreigners, forced their way for miles through a menacing mob, freed the Europeans, and conveyed the twenty-seven men, women, and children to Peking. The Boxers immediately, on their retreat, set fire to everything Western and combustible. One engine, with steam up, on being tampered with, started at full speed down the line with a load of Boxers on it, who, at the end of the rails, were dumped with the engine down a steep embankment.

Resisting all temptations to quote striking passages, we can only say that the full, thorough, and for the most part unprejudiced account of the siege, first by the Boxers, and then by the imperial army—let loose immediately on the declaration and act of the allies in making war on China by attacking the Taku forts—is worthy of all praise. It is followed by an ample narrative, critical, as well as descriptive in mass and detail, of the behavior in war, in battle, and camp, on the march, and in all circumstances, of the various nationalities that made up the rescuing force. Mr. Landor only confirms the judgment of other writers in declaring that, of all the troops, the Japanese were the best equipped for the particular work in hand. While he praises the American soldier, officer, and private, as individually the best of all fighting machines, he seems to demonstrate that, in practical hygiene, and in the care and selection of camps, the higher officers of our army are decidedly lacking in either will or judgment, while the waste of life and health in the American service, as compared with the Japanese, for example, to speak of none others, is disgraceful. He does not think that khaki has the advantages of whole or partial invisibility claimed for it, and thinks that white clothing makes men more sensible in seeking reasonable cover. His respect for the Russian soldier is very great. Nevertheless, it does seem that, in dealing out his various judgments, Mr. Landor is sometimes too nicely expert in balancing, as though keeping an eye on the probability of his books being translated and copyrighted in other than English-speaking countries.

In discussing the subject of loot Mr. Landor is clear, calm, and philosophical, showing especially how national traits reveal themselves even in the manner and purpose of plunderers. With more intimate knowledge of Chinese civilization, the Japanese officers know just where to go to get the stores of rice and silver, while even the common soldiers dallied in artistic delight and appreciation over what less susceptible looters from "civilization" smashed at once. That part of the book which will be perhaps most interesting, because covering less trodden ground, contains a full account of Pe-Tang, or the northern part of Peking, where stands what is left of the new French cathedral. Its defence was contemporaneous with that of the legations, on which the chief interest of the world was and has been centred. The Chinese appear to have employed against the Roman Catholics not only the usual fire-arms and methods of assault, but also the terrible rocket, in the manufacture and discharge of which they showed special abilities, and which seems to have been most destructive in effect. Several chapters are given to the recent history of China. Those in conclusion treat of the occupation of Peking by the allied army, and more particularly the formal entrance into the Forbidden City.

EAST INDIA COMPANY LETTERS.

Letters Received by the East India Company from its Servants in the East. Vols. I.-IV. 1602-1616. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co. 1896-1900.

The Embassy of Sir Thomas Roe to the Court of the Great Mogul, 1615-1619, as Narrated in his Journal and Correspondence. Edited by William Foster. London: The Hakluyt Society. 1899.

The Hakluyt Society recently finished its first series of one hundred volumes, and bravely began a second with the issue in two parts of Sir Thomas Roe's Journal. More formidable still in their forecast of ultimate dimensions, the letters received by the East India Company from its servants in the East are now appearing with regularity. The editorial speed is not high, for if we reckon from 1893, when the late Mr. Quaritch published 'The First Letter-Book of the East India Company,' the volumes have been issued at the rate of less than one a year. The series which we now notice began in 1896 as a continuation of the work just mentioned, and took for its general title "East India Company's Records, Vol. I." So far the "records" have been restricted to correspondence, though we may assume that other documents will be given at a later stage. The undertaking has the official support of the India Office, and unusual care is taken to secure a faithful copy of each manuscript. With an accumulation of four volumes at hand we may call the enterprise well started. How far it will extend or how long a time the task of publication will occupy, we can only conjecture. The letters for 1615 fill one large volume, and those for 1616 fill another still larger. We therefore infer that, should all the correspondence between 1602 and the days of Clive (when business broadened out into politics) be published, the next century will possess a stupendous mass of information about "John Company," its methods, and its results.

It is often stated by those who make no pretence of admiring England, that she has sent her traders with their cargoes of rum and her missionaries with their Bibles into valuable parts of the earth as advance agents. A little later along comes the Government and annexes a new province upon some plea of damage to its subjects or other like subterfuge. This theory derives no color whatever from the early annals of the East India Company. If any race grasped the idea of securing wealth from the Far East by means of political pressure, it was the Dutch. The natives of the Spice Isles were made to feel very soon after the Hollanders came that the open door between them and the rest of the world was closed by artificial means. Until Dupleix's success in the Carnatic showed what political management could do, the East India Company kept pretty strictly to commerce. One great exception is furnished by Sir Josiah Child's ill-fated design of coercing the native states in 1684, long after the period with which we are now dealing.

The Scotch have the name of being cautious, yet, when they undertook the commercial and colonial adventure of Darien, they embarked on the largest scale and lost everything at a single blow. The London merchants were much more canny than that when they began the India trade. Taking the year 1601, when Lancaster sailed forth on the Company's first voyage, we need not compare the English with the Spaniards, whose fleet had been so badly damaged during the decade 1588-1598, nor, on the contrary, with the Portuguese, whose long dealings in the East enabled them to employ a large number of ships with a sense of confidence. But if we compare them with the Dutch, a nation like themselves new to the Malabar Coast and the Malay Straits, we shall see that the English were decidedly outnumbered. Thus they lost their chance of dividing the pepper trade and the still more profitable traffic in cloves, nutmegs, and mace. Each of the first twelve voyages was a separate venture, supported by a special subscription and concluded after the inward cargo had been sold. A systematic policy was rendered impossible by this arrangement, and, as an example of the anomalies which it caused, a single case may be cited. Sir Henry Middleton was placed in charge of the sixth voyage, and Capt. John Saris of the eighth. Owing to a series of misadventures Middleton was detained longer than usual on his way out, and Saris overtook him. Friction then arose between the two officers over the division of trade and profits, as both fleets would be trading in the same waters at the same time. After

some debate, it was agreed that two-thirds of the goods procured by trade should go to the credit of the sixth voyage, and one-third to that of the eighth. But fresh trouble began at Mocha (May, 1612), and Saris sailed out of the Red Sea "without paying the usual courtesies to Sir Henry Middleton."

We need not enter into the details of the Company's organization at the start. It was very primitive and admitted of no political designs. Even after the different interests had been consolidated, it took many years for a persistent, corporate spirit to make itself felt. Mr. W. H. Woodward, indeed, in his excellent book, 'The Expansion of the British Empire' (1899), says of the East India Company, p. 72:

"The records of its earliest years show the extreme care which was bestowed upon its ventures both at home and afloat. The steps taken to raise capital, to secure freedom of action from the Crown, to maintain the corporate nature of its trade, to select, to fit out, and arm vessels suitable for an adventurous traffic, to appoint captains, masters, and factors of skill and integrity, to prepare letters and presents to native princes—indeed, all points of business detail indicate the keen practical judgment which was at that time characteristic of the English and Dutch, as contrasted with their rivals in France, Spain, and Portugal."

We find much evidence in these four volumes of letters which would lead us to qualify this statement. The Company, we admit, made great efforts, especially after the renewal of its charter in 1609, when it built the largest English merchant ship of the day, the *Trades Increase*. But often it appears niggardly and penny-wise. Thus, a splendid sailor, Nicholas Downton, who brought the *Peppercorn* through her terrible homeward voyage of 1613, writes:

"Out of my desire of the prosperity of your business I could wish that both sails, ropes, and cables for your ships this way were proportioned and appointed by some one that understands the voyages, rather than by such, though otherwise very honest, whose experience enables them no further than in home short journeys, for they are subject to many things which cannot be foretold, as in case by the suddenness of a gust of wind, by the disability of men's strength, part or most of one's sails should be blown away."

And a greater man still, Sir Thomas Roe, criticises unsparingly the presents which have been placed in his hands for the Great Mogul and his courtiers:

"The Presentes you have this yeare sent are extreamly despised by those who have seene them; the lyning of the Coach and Cover of the Virginalls scorned, beeing velvett of these parts and faded to a base Tawny; the Knives little and meane, soe that I am enforced to new furnish the Case of my owne store; . . . the burning glasses and prospectives such as no man hath face to offer to give, much less to sell, such as I can buy for six peence a peice; your Pictures not all worth one Penny, and finally such error in the chooyce of all things, as I thincke no man ever heard of the Place that was of Councell. Here are nothing esteemed but of the best sorts: good cloth and fine, and rich Pictures, they comming out of Italy overland and from Ormus; soe that they laugh at us for such as wee bring."

The captains and traders who represented the Company were doubtless selected with more care than the presents, and some of them showed much talent. It was an enormous risk to place one man in supreme authority at a distance of twelve or eighteen months' journey from home, but the danger of trusting the head of the expedition proved less than that of checking and thwarting him by a system of espionage. Though certain individuals were a disappointment, the English merchants succeeded in awakening a genuine loyalty among their agents which Spanish and Portuguese methods could not arouse. Apart from Sir Thomas Roe (a political envoy more than a commercial traveller), we meet with no man of genius between the establishment of the Company and 1616. But a large number could be named of those who did their duty well and worked hard to double or quadruple their five talents. This class includes James Lancaster and Nicholas Downton, among the ship captains; Thomas Aldworth, the first English agent in Western India, and Thomas Kerridge, among the factors and negotiators ashore. The worst error made in the early years of the venture was the appointment of Richard Cocks to the control of the Japanese business at Firando. Sir E. Maunde Thompson has already edited his Diary for the Hakluyt Society, and it is abundantly proved that he was the wrong man for an important post at a critical moment. "Easy-going and unpractical, he was a singularly inefficient head for a factory where the strenuous competition of the Dutch and many other difficulties had to be encountered." On the whole, however, the really inferior agents seem few.

Where the profits of a good voyage amounted to 234 per cent., the competition was naturally severe—not so much between rival companies of the same nation as between different nationalities. On this continent the Hudson's Bay Company was for a while in wholesome dread of the Northwest Company, but Sir Thomas Smith and his associates trading to the East found their worst obstacle in the hostility of the Dutch and Portuguese. Concerning the latter little need be said, for their power had culminated before the English appeared on the scene. They caused some trouble at Surat by threats and diplomacy, but, after Downton's victory in Swally Roads, 1614, they did little to retard English progress in the dominions of the Mogul or elsewhere. With the Dutch the case was quite otherwise. They came to the Malay Archipelago in strong force, and possessed of the valuable idea that the natives might be compelled to guarantee them a monopoly of trade. Despite the political troubles at home which sprang from the Arminian controversy, the jealousy between Holland and the other provinces, etc., Dutch traders chose their zone of influence cleverly, and (if we can overlook their treatment of the natives) showed positive genius in keeping it to themselves. The islands of the Molucca group would have welcomed competition and a larger market, but they could not secure these advantages alone, and the English did not give them effective help. The East India Company was simply following the line of least resistance when it took to the Malabar Coast. The massacre of the English merchants at Amboyna, which established Dutch supremacy in the Spice Isles, did not occur till 1623, and so has no part in our survey. It is seldom that a Power driven as England was from the Archipelago finds such ample indemnity in other quarters. Holland won the extremely profitable Spice Islands, England won the Indian Empire.

The letters published in these volumes are not official dispatches alone. Many of them are private letters (how very private may be judged from Nos. 149 and 155A), and one is surprised that they should have found their way to the Company's archives. Even the official reports are full of life and color, deriving strength in every sentence from the rich Elizabethan speech which is the common possession of the Bible and Hakluyt's 'Principal Navigations.' The mixture of slightly archaic English with the names of Eastern islands and the Hobson-Jobson of Oriental words which are becoming a kind of sailor's slang, gives mellow tones to the most practical business report. The letters embrace all kinds of trading interest along the littoral, and disclose the nature of trading methods. Where there is friction between English and natives or between the Company's servants themselves, it comes to the surface. The style is very free, and what was written has not been mangled by insincere editing. Each document is given verbatim.

We have placed a second title at the head of our paper for two reasons. 'Sir Thomas Roe's Embassy' has been recently edited for the first time in ungarbled form by the same scholar, Mr. William Foster, who edits three volumes of the correspondence. Moreover, it runs parallel with many letters from Roe and others which are printed in the correspondence. We wish that we could write at large upon Roe's mission to the court of Jahangir, what he saw there and what he did. This journal of an expedition to the Hinterland, with its vivid description of Mogul society and its portrait of Roe himself—a splendid envoy if ever there was one—deserves its place at the head of the Hakluyt Society's new series. We can only point to the uncommon interest of Roe's career, and of the record which he left concerning English operations at Surat and thereabouts.

TEN YEARS IN COSSACK SLAVERY.

Ten Years in Cossack Slavery, or Black Russia. By Julian Jasiencyk. Translated by Marie de Mankowski. New York: The Abbey Press. 1901.

Rightly judged, this book should take a high rank among the Problem Novels—unless the observant reader should prefer to consign it to the category of practical jokes. The problem (joke) begins on the cover and frontispiece, which are adorned with the name and portrait of the translator instead of the author. The title-page is problem-joke number three, after which the comic mystery thickens so fast and furiously that we must decline to keep tally of the successful efforts in both lines. We must disabuse the reader's mind of any commonplace ideas which he may heretofore have entertained as to ethnographical or geographical distinctions. The title-page does not refer to any one of the famous bodies of Cossacks; neither does "Black Russia" constitute a well-defined section of the country, either as to race or situation, like White Russia, Little Russia, or Red Russia. Both words are used in the sense of imprecations of the most violent order—being Polish—and signify, respectively, merely Russians and their land in general, though in a few passages of the book itself the intention is to allude to the specifically registered bodies of Cossacks in the Russian sense. Precisely what the coroneted cat-o'-ten-

tails on the cover may mean, it is difficult even to conjecture, unless it be regarded in the light of a pictorial "scare-head" allurement to the mythical horrors within the covers. It is not a Cossack *nagaïka*, nor yet the official *plet;* and by what right it arrogates to itself the "nobility crown" it is difficult to divine, as it was not used upon the person who appears as author, either nobly or otherwise, or on other individuals in the queerly composed volume. But before we reach the main line, we are side-tracked again by a "Biographical Note," wherein the publishers—most unfortunately for the reputation of our vaunted public-school system—explain that the translator, born of Polish parents in Houston, Texas, and educated in the public schools there and in San José, California, is "fond of Polish literature," and, after reading this book, "was so enraptured with it, and with its many objects, that she undertook to translate it into English, for the benefit of other nations, in order to make them acquainted with Polish literature." No more deadly blow could have been aimed either at Polish literature or at the English language than this. But of the latter hereafter.

The book professes to be the diary of a Pole who was arrested in Warsaw in the year 1846 for some sort of plotting, in which his friends have also been implicated. Just how far to blame this Julian Jasiencyk and his imprisoned comrades were, he never informs us; though when, at last, after several months of confinement, the list of his iniquities is read to him by the authorities, he admits (to his Diary) that about one-tenth of the accusations were true. That the prisoners underwent hardships is, no doubt, quite true; it is not the object of any Government to render prisons palaces of pleasure. But it is difficult to reconcile the record of these severities with the liberties hinted at when convenient; and, in any case, the "persecuted" Pole should have been grateful for his opportunities to indulge in coarse violence of language. After a time, several prisoners, including Jasiencyk, are assigned to military battalions, at Orenburg and elsewhere, and the intermittent account of the journey thither is far from clear in many places, though everything which can be scored up against the "Cossacks" (meaning ordinary Russian soldiers) is carefully set down, while the indulgences are passed over lightly. This point is worth noticing because of what follows.

When Orenburg is reached, the story becomes more incoherent than ever. Instead of narrating the details of the "Cossack slavery," Jasiencyk spends thirty-seven pages—one-sixth of the whole—in an historical account of Russian campaigns in "Chiiwy" (Khiva), "Buckary" (Bukhara), and Kokand, between 1839 and 1853. Possibly, this is done in order to laud a Polish captain concerned in the Kokand campaign, with references to other Poles, as the writer does not seem to have taken part in any military operations himself. Just how, in the course of this hated "slavery," he became an officer, travelled to St. Petersburg (which seems to be an error, as no object is alleged), to the central governments and so forth, on Government business, playing the great man, journeying in style, and the like, he does not allow the reader to guess. One can but perceive that he fared better, reached a higher rank, in "slavery" than he would have done had he remained in Warsaw, in all probability; and the object of telling either side of the story, under the circumstances, is a puzzle, since each in the very nature of things casts doubt upon the other or upon the man's inconsequence of mind and conduct. It will be seen that the choice of this rambling, incoherent effort as a representative work of Polish literature, as one over which any one accustomed to real literature could grow enthusiastic or offer to the cultivated nations of the world in translation, is a serious blunder. There are vivid passages, it is true; but the style is abrupt, art is entirely lacking, and the interesting portions are so few and brief that they do not make up for absolute absence of literary quality.

As translation the work certainly merits the booby prize; as a specimen of English it can hardly be surpassed, and the same may be said of the amazing unintelligence as to geography and other matters of ordinary knowledge. Here are a few quotations: "During that time the head of a policeman was in the door, which seemed as if it was truncated, who watched every movement of the dumb servant." On page 34 we read: "Rap; they will give you a teapot, put that grass in it, the soldier will pour some boiling water on it, and afterwards drink it." The steeped "grass" (meaning herb) must have been very refreshing to the prisoner. In several places, untranslated Polish words and expressions are used, probably because the translator did not know their meaning. One such case (p. 92) is the following: "Those are the Candalyszke, who are going to hard labor . . ."; and a few sentences further on: "Then Candalyszk approached the balcony and scattered his clothes. The Colonel examined to see if his chains were locked good. . . ." Precisely what the man did with his clothing we leave to the reader's imagination; but the mention of the chains should have suggested to Mme. de Mankowski that "candalyszk" was not a surname; and that, in short, it simply meant "the fettered men . . . the fettered man." All the names of places and persons are spelled in Polish fashion, which often renders them almost unrecognizable to the public at large; *Volodzimir* for Vladimir and *Nyninovgorod* for Nizhni-Novgorod are specimens; also *Mount Wrobel* for the Vorobei or Sparrow Hills, on the outskirts of Moscow. Another instance is: "For whom are those genuflections? Are they for the Greek Church or for Kremel?" Kremel is not a surname, but the Kremlin (*Kreml*, Russian) at Moscow. "Fate placed upon our road one more noble person and that was our ordinator," meaning orderly. On p. 120 we find a gem: "Quite often a footman in gold livery carries a golden tray with eggs filled preceded by an armorial lady." Page 146 contains an interesting bit of history and matter for the statisticians of life-insurance companies: "There was one station named Maryka, established by Mary Mnischowne, wife of Dmitra, an impostor. It was rumored that she resided there yet." The allusion is to Marya Mnichek, wife of Dmitry, the First Pretender to the throne of Moscow during the Troublous Time, just preceding 1612. Comment is superfluous. Another extraordinary statement occurs on p. 152, in connection with the historical account of the Khiva expeditions already referred to. Gen. Perovsky is making preparations to start from Orenburg for Khiva; and among these preparations, recorded in a single, detached sentence, is this: "A regiment of soldiers was sent to St. Petersburg." That is to say, the clever General strengthened his scanty forces by sending part of them about three thousand miles northwest, instead of a few hundred miles southeast, to the goal! Is geography taught in Texas and California, or is this the result of arbitrary "editing"? Precisely why "clubs" should be used for *rods*, in recording the number of blows decreed for punishment, is a riddle; so is the use of "russet" for *coat*. The genitive case is persistently used in the wrong form, and counterbalanced by employing the same word as a proper noun of person immediately afterwards. "Orenburg's battalion" is a case in point; and on page 217 there is a good instance of the double error: "With the greatest astonishment I observed Jumkrow's Academy students stretched out on the benches smoking cigarettes. In the gloomy Orenburg steppe, Jumkrows were not allowed to be seen walking publicly." The allusion here is, in all probability, to the Yunkers' (cadet) school. In this "gloomy Orenburg steppe" the writer saw something curious: "I turned toward a shady alley, which led to a castle, in which grew lime trees." A little later, we are informed that "*Pan* [the Polish Mr.], served in Caucus"—a very upsetting performance as here recorded, since there is no such thing as a Caucus in Russia. If *Kavkas*, the Caucasus, had been intelligently rendered, the wonder would cease. But is it possible that the translator's dictionary, or her general reading, left her ignorant as to this word, and as to one on a subsequent page—"An archiery came and found a place"—otherwise, an *archierei* or Bishop?

This volume, as to contents and execution, is very far from meriting the space we have devoted to it, except that it furnishes a terrible example for the benefit of our public schools all over the land which contain multitudes of foreigners, who, together with the native Americans, should, first of all, be taught to use decent, intelligible English, and because the honor of Polish literature requires some defence after the over-ambitious prefatory note.

The History of Medicine in the United States. By Francis Randolph Packard, M.D. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1901.

The supplementary title, "A Collection of Facts and Documents relating to the History of Medical Science in this Country . . . to the year 1800," is a truer name for the above work. The welding art of the historian has not been exercised, and the preface frankly represents that what is offered is a series of essays and compilations, three of which have already been published in medical periodicals, rather than a continuous historical work.

The original conditions of American medicine were what might be expected. A few men skilled in the medical art of the day accompanied or followed the earlier settlers; but they were very few and some were merely sojourners. Much of such service was in the hands of the matrons whose practical information came from domestic association with the sick, and the more serious

general cases were treated by the clergy, with whom, as among other primitive or isolated people, the higher learning rested. This was especially so in New England, where, indeed, as with the medical missionaries of to-day, many of the ministers formally studied medicine as well as theology, and had a care for the bodies joined to that for the souls of their parishioners. Is it atavism that still leads the cloth, no longer learned in medicine, to encourage with a faith that in others might be credulity the nostrums of the hour? Two of the earlier Presidents of Harvard (Chauncy, 1654-'71, Hoar, 1672-'5) were graduated and practising physicians, the former a clergyman as well. Gov. Winthrop of Massachusetts did not hesitate to prescribe as with authority from his general knowledge; and his son, Gov. Winthrop of Connecticut, was famous for his medical skill and its exercise. Anne Hutchinson and Anneke Jans, both chiefly remembered for very different reasons, exercised functions in particular aid of their own sex which men did not assume until long afterward.

The successive medical generations, not imported, either were pupils of individual practitioners or acquired independently, to their own and their neighbors' satisfaction, a working knowledge of the art. As the settlements grew older, but had no professional schools, medical students indentured themselves to established practitioners; and, upon the expiration of their apprenticeship, these pupils began practice for themselves with varying standards and acquirements. Those who could afford it crossed the water for wider study and diplomas, but it is reckoned that of thirty-five hundred actually practising when the Revolution began, the academic title did not belong to more than one in nine. Nevertheless, as Morton points out, this small group had much better classical education and was more strengthened and polished by travel than a great majority of the doctors of to-day.

The collective study of medicine commenced slowly. In Philadelphia Dr. Cadwalader gave anatomical lectures to physicians in 1750, and in New York the first dissection for professional study in the colonies was made the same year. The Pennsylvania Hospital, opened in 1752, immediately placed an excellent field for clinical observation at the disposal of its staff and their pupils, and it has continued this valuable public office ever since. There followed next "The Society of the Hospital of the City of New York," chartered in 1771; but, from the obstacles of fire and war and poverty, the institution was not opened for permanent occupation by patients until 1791. The efforts of Drs. Morgan and Shippen, both native Americans and both conspicuous later in the Revolutionary army, graduates in medicine of Edinburgh, led to establishing the medical department of the University of Pennsylvania in 1765. From that mustard-seed has grown a tree of knowledge, or at least of teaching, which in 1900 was represented by 119 medical colleges. Within that year these, exclusive of any of irregular faith or of none, taught nearly 23,000 and graduated 4,700 students. A crop so extensive and quickly grown can hardly be nutritious and full-flavored.

In view of the infrequency with which the medical profession now passes outside its clinical province, except occasionally in letters, the number and importance of those who were really public men in the early days of the republic are remarkable. Five physicians were among the Signers; Wolcott, Irvine, and Mercer were generals, and others were Continental officers of rank; many, like Warren and Brooks, were in the more or less active provincial militia; and numerous legislative and high administrative positions were filled with credit by those whose formal profession was medicine. Excepting for the engrossing nature of his usual pursuit, the cultivated physician, robust in body and alert in mind, should lead his fellow-citizens as well as others who temporarily assume military duties.

The History contains essays upon yellow fever at the North, upon inoculation for smallpox, and upon the Pennsylvania Hospital (which may be taken as the best type of the older charitable institutions), that are interesting as history and valuable as abstracts, and indicate besides where the original memoirs may be found. It contains also general information as to the difficulties that enveloped the medical affairs of the Continental army, which simply prefigured those of every establishment where men not organized by discipline are called soldiers because they are armed. Those who do not insist on learning only by their own experience may understand from what happened in 1777 what will happen in 1977, if the conditions are the same. There stands by itself (pp. 150-'1), extracted from Morton's 'History of the Pennsylvania Hospital,' a narrative of one of those singular dreams of premonition in which the Society of Friends seems peculiarly rich. In view of that body's constant sobriety of speech and honesty of motive, this vision, in anticipation of a tragedy which did occur, is commended for the files of the Society for Psychical Research.

Laudable pains have been taken to name the authorities drawn on in this compilation, but unfortunately the page, and sometimes the volume, is frequently omitted. Where quotations are at first hand it is so easy to facilitate verification and further study by exactness of reference that such omissions are inexcusable. The text opens (p. 11) with an incorrect and incomplete statement that Mr. Pratt was appointed under contract by the Court of Assistants as surgeon for the plantation March 5, 1682. The plantation, which is left for inference, was that granted by the Council of New England to Endicott and others. The date is an obvious error for 1628, but it shows little antiquarian interest in an historian that it should not have attracted attention in the proofs, and especially that the subject's Christian name should not appear. John Pratt seems to have arrived in 1629, settled at Newtown (Cambridge), took part in the Connecticut migration led by Thomas Hooker in 1636, sailed for England by way of Spain on the *Seafort*, John Hawkins, master, in the autumn of 1645, and was one of the few lost in the wreck of that ship near Cales (Cadiz). The erudite Samuel Latham Mitchill (pp. 220-'6) appears, as often happens but should not, as Mitchell. Braintree is "Baintree" (p. 37). There is no warrant for describing Jonathan Dickinson of New Jersey as a physician; and Toner, who is given as authority, does not mention his name. This Dickinson was born in 1688, was graduated at Yale in 1706, studied theology, commenced preaching at Elizabethtown, N. J., 1708, was ordained there in 1709, and retained that charge until his death in 1747. He has possibly been confused with Dr. John Dickinson of Connecticut, who is mentioned by Toner and barely referred to here (p. 239). Such errata, casually observed and not sought for, throw discredit upon the minute accuracy of a book which, speaking generally, is a useful contribution to early medical history.

The World of Graft. By Josiah Flynt. McClure, Phillips & Co. 1901. Pp. 221, including a Glossary.

This book is not simply a curious book of travel in a portion of the social under-world, like Mr. Flynt's 'Tramping with Tramps'; it is also a severe arraignment of the police in large cities—perhaps the severest arraignment that they have received. A descriptive sub-title of the book might run—"What the professional thief knows and thinks about municipal corruption." It is a record of a number of conversations with professional thieves "in the open," in circumstances in which there was no reason why a man should falsify or conceal what he knew. Indeed, in the majority of cases the thief supposed himself to be talking freely with a "pal," and in almost all cases he was sure that his confessions would not be used to make trouble for himself or for any other individual.

The point of the arraignment is that the police do not, and as at present selected and organized will not, and indeed cannot, do their duty of suppressing theft, without becoming in some measure sharers in its profits. The police force in great cities consists, in Mr. Flynt's judgment, on the evidence before him, partly of honest men, who with few exceptions possess little of the special knowledge that to men in their position is indispensable, and partly of rogues who make arrests for theft when they are obliged to, and at other times show themselves little better than receivers of stolen goods. A still celebrated ex-member of "Mother Mandelbaum's gang" bears witness that he did business for twenty years as a bank-robber and never got arrested or did a bit of "time"; and that his ultimate arrest was due to the Pinkertons.

"Durin' those twenty years it was the crooked municipal copper that kep' me from gettin' sloughed up, an' I'd be on the turf yet 'f I'd only him to deal with. As a rule, when the city copper ain't a dead one, he's a crooked one, an' neither of 'em ever kep' me awake o' nights, cause the dead one doesn't know anything an' the crooked one forgets everything after you've bribed him."

The way in which he managed in New York city, for example, he says, was this:

"If we made a get-away all right an' knew that the police wasn't on to us, 'course we didn't cough up any coin to 'em; but if there was any trouble about the get-away—if the holler was big—one of us used to go straight to the percentage coppers on the force, tell 'em our tale o' woe, whack up the plunder, an' stop worryin'."

The root of the evil lies in the tolerance of the so-called "mouthpiece system," and in the dishonesty and false economy on which the tolerance of that system sets a premium. The mouthpiece system amounts to nothing less than a detective's making a bargain with a professional thief, to the effect that, in return for certain favors, the thief shall point out to the detective certain men whom it will profit him in repu-

tation or in money to find. Thieves know the members of their own fraternity, and where they are to be found, and which one of them did what; and can, if they will, relieve the detective of the labor for which he is paid; the favors which they receive in return stretch all the way from a detective's simply permitting them to live undisturbed in a city, so long as they do business elsewhere, shutting his eyes to all information that they are "wanted" for thefts committed in other cities, to his deliberately protecting them in thefts committed in his own city and sharing their plunder. An honest man can learn the faces of the thieving fraternity, their haunts, their distinctive modes of workmanship, only by an immense amount of labor and travel that lie wholly outside of the duties for which at present members of the force are paid; a dishonest man can make a bargain with a thief, take a part of his winnings, and without labor make such arrests from time to time as will benefit him personally. Both by the organization of the force and by the practice of his rivals, the scales are weighted heavily against the honest policeman; and the public pays for what inevitably it will not get. The honest policeman cannot suppress theft because his routine does not permit him to gain the necessary knowledge; and the dishonest policeman at first will not suppress it, and later dare not even if he would.

"As the American police are now managed," it is the deliberate opinion of Mr. Flynt, who, by the way, has been an officer himself, that "the mouthpiece is an unavoidable necessity." It is difficult to conceive how a graver charge could be made against a police management than that it does little towards making honest officers efficient, or towards enabling them to make themselves efficient, and harbors dishonest officers, whose efficiency depends on their being in league with and protecting and sharing with the very men they are employed to arrest. The charge, in a late article by Mr. Flynt in *McClure's Monthly* (here reprinted as a chapter), which made Capt. Titus so indignant—the charge, namely, that there is a man with a well-known criminal record at this time on the detective force under his control—is a bagatelle by comparison. That the police, and the political clubs and organizations which dictate the government of this city and the conduct of the police force, should share the profits of saloons, gambling houses, and houses of prostitution, has excited no small indignation on the part of people other than Capt. Titus; but grave as this offence may be, there is a plain difference between sharing the profits of men who encourage or minister to vices, and sharing the plunder of men who commit crimes. About the ultimate responsibility of political bosses and clubs for this sharing of plunder neither Mr. Flynt nor his informants are in doubt. "I've known Tammany ever since I struck the turf," the ex-thief quoted above says; "I've been protected by it, 'n' helped protect it. . . . As a gun I used to like Tammany. Every organization like that makes a town easier for a gun to live in, an' if I were on the road to-day an' expected to live in York, I'd want Tammany to hold the offices." "The league [between law-breakers and those whose business it is to restrain them] could not exist in New York," Mr. Flynt says in a summary, "without the consent of the ruling political bosses, and the bosses could not remain in power if they refused the under world the chance to live, which means to graft." In regard to the expense for the taxpayer entailed by the league, "It is the universal opinion of all [*sic*] the men I talked with that New York could be managed on an honest basis at least one-third more cheaply than it now is with the league in force."

Le Nouveau Don Juan. Par Marcel Barrière. Paris: Alphonse Lemerre. 1900.

Among recent attempts at the revival of romantic fiction in France, the three volumes comprising the above work do more than any others to justify Matthew Arnold's epigram which places the imaginative writers of that country among the worshippers of "the great goddess Aselgeia." While reading 'L'Éducation d'un Contemporain,' 'Le Roman de l'Ambition,' and 'Les Ruines de l'Amour,' one is irresistibly carried back to the days of Gautier's vogue, to an atmosphere which, in the words of the Duchess in 'The Gay Lord Quex,' may be euphemistically described as consisting chiefly of "warm evenings." It argues a certain temerity on the part of a novelist to seek to adapt the Don-Juanesque legend to the conditions of contemporary French society, to substitute for the picturesque garb of the romantic hero the uniform of a modern cavalry officer, and to overlay the whole story with a comprehensive philosophical purpose to which the various episodes contribute each a share. For the central personage of this trilogy is neither the gay heart-breaker of tradition nor the mere "depraved Cherubino" of Byron's poem; he plays his double rôle of *réussisseur* and *homme à bonnes fortunes* with all the solemn unscrupulousness of Casanova or Bel-Ami, and with unflaggingly wearisome priggishness. The combination is, momentarily, piquant enough, but, when carried through eleven hundred pages, it loses its savor.

Two elaborate prefaces set forth the general design of the whole work, which is to be completed by the addition of a "philosophical trilogy" and the analytical history of the synthetic scheme. The author warns his critics against hasty conclusions, and disclaims any intention of following the lead of either Balzac or Zola, though he remains discreetly silent about D'Annunzio. In its general conception, the "heptalogy" of the French author, however, suggests a very close resemblance to the divisional plan adopted by his Italian compeer, while the motto of "Habere, non haberi" will apply indiscriminately to the principles and practice of the leading characters in both cases. This ethical, as well as structural, affinity, together with the total absence of wit or humor in either writer, enables the critic to dispose summarily of the present work under the convenient rubric of the first ambitious contribution of a French novelist to the loudly heralded "Renaissance Latine." We may note a further correspondence in the too frequent obtrusion of the respective authors' predilections for this or that school of art, as well as in the padding-out of almost every chapter with pages of *bravura* description.

To discuss seriously the philosophical plan of which these volumes form a part would lead at once to *ex-parte* judgment. It is sufficient to say that the avowed purpose of their author is to represent a purely individualistic type, endowed with gifts all but godlike, pursuing his chosen career of a professional lover of women and master of men in the midst of modern conditions; the author meanwhile complacently playing the part of a highly literary Leporello. But, up to the present point, we fail to see now any of the more serious mishaps that befall the votary of pleasure and ambition can be interpreted as the consequences of his conduct, and hence as illustrative of the moral and social principles announced in the preface. The fascinating American woman he meets at Monte Carlo (scented, by the way, with *wintergreen*, "le parfum favori des Américaines"), is whisked away by the brutally monopolizing jealousy of a husband too much attached to his own rights; the magnificent duchess who absorbs Don Juan's exclusive regard for many months is accidentally drowned; and the *cantatrice* who gives up all for his love falls a victim to a mysterious disease. Other unnamed frail ones are "like ships that pass in the night." Various reverses of fortune, chiefly the result of prodigality, are set right in the nick of time through unexpected legacies or by restitution of Russian estates; for it should be added that, apparently out of politic compliment to the Franco-Russian alliance, the modern Don Giovanni is represented as closely connected with the imperial family of the Romanoffs. The whole plot of the story is, indeed, so incoherent that we await with some curiosity the "synthèse" that is to unite its now ravelled threads.

In the concluding paragraphs of his introduction, the author lays some stress on the importance of style as contributory to the worth of a book. Fortunately for his readers, practice in his case keeps pace with precept. If M. Marcel Barrière will but undertake subjects less enslaved to the conventions of one school in French fiction, and work on canvas of less ambitious proportions, the facility and richness of his own style will undoubtedly recommend him to the more favorable notice of future reviewers.

First on the Antarctic Continent: Being an Account of the British Antarctic Expedition, 1898-1900. By C. E. Borchgrevink. London: George Newnes. 1901. 8vo, pp. xvi, 333. Maps and illustrations.

The voyage described in this column is one of the "reportorial" class, and, in the main, was sustained financially by Sir George Newnes, the well-known British publisher. The vessel used was the *Southern Cross*, a bark of 521 tons with auxiliary steam power, drawing eighteen feet of water. A crew of fourteen persons (chiefly Norwegians), two Norwegian Lapps, and fourteen officers, including Mr. Borchgrevink, in charge, comprised the personnel of the expedition. Dr. H. Klövstad, surgeon; Nikolai Hansen, taxidermist; H. B. Evans, assistant zoölogist; Louis Bernacchi and William Colbeck, magnetic and meteorological observers, formed the scientific staff of the party.

The vessel left the Thames on the 22d of August, 1898, touching at Madeira, Adventure Bay, and Hobart, Tasmania, and entered the pack in the vicinity of the Balleny Islands, in January, 1899. After a more or less successful struggle with the ice, the *Southern Cross* dropped anchor off Cape Adare, South Victoria Land, February 17, 1899. Here storehouses and huts were erected, and the wintering party, consisting of the commander, the scientific staff,

cook, general utility man, and the two Lapps, were landed, with outfit, dogs, and sledges; and March 2, 1899, the vessel departed for Australia. The winter passed without remarkable incident, the party being occupied with the usual observations, short sledge journeys, and collections. On the 14th of October Mr. Hansen died, from causes apparently not connected with the expeditionary work. About the end of January the vessel returned, the camp was dismantled, the party with their records taken aboard. The expedition then proceeded southward along the east coast of Victoria Land and beyond it, along the northern border of the ice-cliffs, until on February 16, 1900, a break in the barrier was discovered. Here a natural harbor had formed, with low shores of ice, and was entered with great precaution. It was situated in west longitude from Greenwich about 164° 10′, and the vessel was able to reach south latitude 78° 34′. Here Borchgrevink landed with a sledge and outfit, and, accompanied by Colbeck and the Lapp, Per Savio, succeeded in reaching about sixteen miles further south over the surface of the ice. No land was discovered in this region, but animal life, penguins, and seals were not infrequent, and the termination of the trip marked the southernmost point yet reached in the Antarctic regions. On February 19 they proceeded; touched at Franklin Island; on the 21st anchored in Port Ross, and on the 30th reached New Zealand.

The experiences of the expedition were less trying than those of the party on the *Belgica*. It doubtless gives comfort to feel that the solid earth is actually under one's feet. Violent gales blew for a large part (more than a quarter) of the time, sometimes reaching ninety miles an hour; but the hut seems to have been comfortable, the party generally increased in weight, and the conditions were endurable. During much of the time animal life was abundant, seals and penguins abounded, and fish, of several species and reasonable size, were secured not only for the collection but in sufficient plenty to supply the larder. No predacious animals existing round about, the supplies of food required no protection except from the weather.

The mean temperature for the year was 7.05 degrees F. The extreme minimum, on August 4, was 43.1 degrees below zero. The maximum temperature at Cape Adare was 48.9 degrees F., on the 23d of January, 1899. The sun was invisible May 15 to July 29, and was above the horizon continuously from November 16 to January 26. The best weather was during the month of November. The frequency and force of the gales, the persistency with which they blew from one direction, E. S. E., with an invariable marked rise of temperature; the sudden changes of the barometer; the dryness of the winds; and the motion of the upper clouds from the northwest, according to Bernacchi indicate that the South Pole is covered by what may be regarded as practically a great permanent anticyclone, more extensive in the winter months than in the summer. Nothing can be imagined more appalling than the gales, which, carrying tons of dry drifting snow, blew at Cape Adare for ninety-two days with a velocity of more than forty miles an hour, and on several occasions over ninety miles an hour. The precipitation was trifling, that for the whole year being the equivalent of not over three inches of rain. The total number of hours of bright sunshine recorded during eleven months was 703.

The observations of the expedition will be of permanent value. Owing to the death of Mr. Hansen, the zoölogical notes printed are confined to records of birds seen or killed. The marine collections are stated to have been rich. The additions to geography are not strikingly important, but creditable. The maps do not show the relation of the wintering-place to the rest of the world, which would have been convenient, and one of them is misleadingly entitled "Track of *Southern Cross* over Wilkes Land"; Wilkes Land being situated to the westward of any area covered by this particular map. The author of the volume is neither a scientific man nor a trained explorer, but he seems to have been a lively companion and enthusiastic in his work. He has written an interesting book, often amusing, and never more so than on the occasion when he attempts a philosophical flight (see pages 232-4) of darkly mysterious character. Many of the illustrations are good, and the book will occupy a respectable place among the volumes of Antarctic literature.

Celtic Folklore: Welsh and Manx. By John Rhŷs, M.A., D.Litt. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1901. 2 v., pp. 718.

For the second time within a year it is our pleasure to record an important contribution to Celtic studies by the professor of Celtic at Oxford. The earlier work, 'The Welsh People,' was produced in collaboration by Professor Rhŷs and Mr. D. Brynmor-Jones, and took its place at once as the best existing book on Welsh history. The second, which now follows so closely upon it, furnishes the most considerable treatment of Welsh folklore that has yet been attempted. Neither of these books was entirely a new production, both being based to some extent upon earlier publications of the author; and in the case of the second this patchwork character here and there annoys the reader, and seriously impairs the unity of the work. Still, the material is very valuable, and, though plenty of contributions have been made before to the study of Welsh folklore (as is apparent from the extended bibliography prefixed to the book), none of Professor Rhŷs's predecessors had produced anything approaching the dignity of a treatise upon the subject.

The work falls mainly into two parts. In the earlier chapters Professor Rhŷs brings together a large collection of the fairy stories current among Welshmen and Manxmen, and relates at length their traditions about goblins and witches, their cave legends, and their superstitions about sacred wells. This makes a very interesting body of popular narrative, and it is all reported with scrupulous scientific accuracy. In the later chapters, which form substantially the second volume, the material collected in the first volume is analyzed and discussed in the light of general folklore; an attempt is made to trace the origin of the different types of fairies; and the relation of the modern tales to the older sagas of both Brythonic and Gaelic Celts—as well as to those of more remote races—is considered at length. This second portion of the book has special interest for the student of ethnology, comparative mythology, and the history of mediæval romance. Professor Rhŷs sets forth with new arguments various doctrines that are already familiar to the readers of his earlier books. In dealing with the Picts he reiterates his opinion that they were not Aryan in race, and it must be granted that he has made out a strong case. In discussing the Goidelic elements in early Welsh stories, particularly in the 'Mabinogion,' he adheres to the view (called in question of late by Prof. Kuno Meyer) that these traditions came down from the Goidelic inhabitants of Wales, rather than that they were imported from Ireland. The chapters in which old sagas of the Irish and Welsh are compared are particularly interesting, and point the way to a line of promising investigations.

In this field of study the evidence is just beginning to be collected and sifted, and Professor Rhŷs's whole discussion is by no means free from bold conjectures. But if he appears to be over-confident now and then in the identification of gods and heroes, or in marking out just the part that each ancient race contributed to the superstitious stock-in-trade of the modern Celt, it should always be said for him that he neither himself forgets, nor allows his reader to forget, the line between knowledge and opinion. Professor Rhŷs is usually courageous in the formation of theories, but he does not take his theories too seriously. In other words, he combines a pretty vigorous scientific imagination with a sense of humor and a sense of fact.

The Improvement of Towns and Cities; or, The Practical Basis of Civic Æsthetics. By Charles Mulford Robinson. Pp. xii, 309. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1901.

The subject of civic æsthetics is one which, at least in America, is attracting to its study a constantly increasing number of people. Our artists are keenly alive to its importance, and no congress of architects, painters, or sculptors is held nowadays which does not give some of its time to a consideration of the city's beauty. Citizens in general are at work for the betterment of the places in which they live, in countless associations such as improvement societies, civic clubs, and municipal leagues. Even city governments show some signs of responding to an increasing pressure on behalf of beauty. Mr. Robinson's book, therefore, if it had little but its timeliness to commend it, would be welcome. But it has more than mere timeliness; it is a sincere attempt to reduce to small compass a subject of great breadth and complexity, and it is a much more successful attempt than one would imagine possible. The variety of the topics treated may be gathered from the naming of a few of them. The book properly opens with some consideration of how to make the most of a city's site and how best to plan its streets. Then follow such details as bridges, street pavements, street cleaning, lighting, etc.; then things to be suppressed or rendered less annoying, as wires, poles, smoke. Next the question how to make advertisements less hideous and utilities more beautiful, claims much space. Parks and public gardens, squares and playgrounds, trees in cities—these and a dozen other matters fill separate chapters.

It has been maintained that the subject of civic æsthetics is not yet sufficiently ad-

vanced to permit of the preparation of a satisfactory digest of it, but Mr. Robinson's book gives us at least the best general statement of its many problems and of the known ways of solving them that any author has offered. It shows great care in preparation. To have assembled the facts in regard to what has been done both in Europe and in America along any chosen line, such as rules governing the display of advertisements, is a task involving much inquiry, but to apply such inquiry to all the branches of civic æsthetics represents vast labor. The facts thus ascertained are not dryly presented, and the book may be read with a lively interest by all who feel a definite impulse to help our towns and cities to become pleasanter and more seemly places of abode.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Handbook of the S. P. Avery Collection of Prints and Art Books in the New York Public Library. Privately printed.

Bradley, A. C. Poetry for Poetry's Sake. Henry Frowde.
Crockett, R. S. Cinderella. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
De Gubernatis, Prof. A. Su le Orme di Dante. Rome: Tipografia Coöperativa Sociale.
Fane, Violet. Two Moods of a Man. London: J. C. Nimmo; New York: Scribners. $2.
Goodell, R. R. L'Enfant Espion, and Other Stories. American Book Co. 45 cents.
Hartshorn, M. A. On the Threshold. Abbey Press.
Hope, E. W., and Browne, E. A. A Manual of School Hygiene. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Kinglake, A. W. Eothen. (Temple Classics.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Lang, Andrew. Magic and Religion. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Leigh, Lennard. Bridge Whist. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co.
Lennox, Cuthbert. The Practical Life-Work of Henry Drummond. James Pott & Co. $1.
Leroy-Beaulieu, Pierre. Les Nouvelles Sociétés Anglo-Saxonnes. Paris: Armand Colin. 4 fr.
Lloyd, Nelson. A Drone and a Dreamer. J. F. Taylor & Co. $1.50.
Marston, E. Sketches of Booksellers of Other Days. Scribners. $2.
Matthews, F. S. Familiar Trees and their Leaves. New ed. D. Appleton & Co.
Maxey, Edwin. Some Questions of Larger Politics. Abbey Press. $1.
Milroy, Elizabeth. A New Version of an Old Story. Abbey Press. 25 cents.
Moore, J. T. A Summer Hymnal. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates. $1.25.
Morison, William. Johnston of Warriston. (Famous Scots Series.) Scribners. 75 cents.
Peters, D. M. Songs from Nature. Abbey Press. 50 cents.
Peters, F. N. Modern Chemistry. Maynard, Merrill & Co. $1.10.
Prune, Nat. Wedding Bells. Abbey Press. 75 cents.
Rigby, C. S. Toydom A B C. W. B. Conkey Co.
Ripley, N. B. Cordelia, and Other Poems. Abbey Press. 50 cents.
Rural Science Series: (1) Watson, G. C. Farm Poultry; (2) Jordan, W. H. The Feeding of Animals. Macmillan. $1.25 each.
Schultz, Jeanne. La Neuvaine de Colette. American Book Co. 45 cents.
Selous, Edmund. Bird Watching. (The Haddon Hall Library.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Sendall, W. J. The Complete Works of C. S. Calverley. George Bell & Sons.
Skeat, Rev. Walter W. Notes on English Etymology. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Smith, A. W. A New Theory of Evolution. Abbey Press.
Stockwell, G. A. Our Choir. Abbey Press.
Stuart, R. M. The Snow-cap Sisters. Harpers.
The Letters of her Mother to Elizabeth. John Lane.
The Living Age. Vol. 229. Boston: Living Age Co.
Tracy, Lucy. Like the Lilies. Abbey Press. 25 cents.
Versteeg, Dingman. The Sea Beggars. Continental Pub. Co. $1.50.
Winslow, I. O. The Natural Arithmetic. Books I., II., and III. American Book Co. 50 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 1, 1901.

The Week.

A newspaper correspondent, writing with becoming awe from the President's home in Canton, describes the way in which he is there engaged in "working out some of the broad policies of his Administration." Trade and the tariff are, it is admitted, giving Mr. McKinley as much concern as anything ever causes his Olympian calm, and he does not quite know how the reciprocity treaties are to be got through the Senate. However, he has struck out the happy thought of presenting reciprocity as "a national policy," and so overcoming the "tendency to regard it as a local issue for each Congressional district." This is a great truth, but the very men who will receive it with guffaws are those Congressmen who have learned from Mr. McKinley how to make a protective tariff. What was the McKinley Bill but the local issues of 164 Congressional districts log-rolled into one act, and passed triumphantly over the 142 votes of the representatives of the Congressional districts which had no part in the spoil? Every one who had a decrepit mill or a losing manufacture rushed to Washington in 1890 and got McKinley to put something for that local issue in his bill. It was a monster aggregate of petty selfishness. That is what protection always is in its essence; and its beneficiaries cannot really be blamed now if they consider it very like apostasy in their teacher to have the President tell them at this late day that they ought to sink their "local issues" in the general good.

The question of reciprocity or possible free trade with Cuba has suddenly assumed great public importance, but there has never been a moment, since the war with Spain began, when it did not figure largely in the minds of influential persons and classes in this country. Two events have given it fresh interest at this time. One is the enlargement of the capital stock of the Sugar Refining Company, commonly called the Sugar Trust, by $15,000,000 of new cash subscriptions, which points to the acquisition of properties in Cuba for the production of sugar. The announcement of this addition to the capital of the company was accompanied by a published interview with Mr. H. O. Havemeyer, in which he said that an application would be made to Congress for the admission of raw sugar from Cuba free of duty, and that in his opinion the application would be successful. The other fact of immediate interest is the energetic protest issued by the domestic sugar-producers, both beet and cane, against any such proceeding. We are not prepared to say that Mr. Havemeyer was too confident in his prediction that free sugar would win the fight at Washington, although it may not win the first battle. Of course, the beet-sugar and the cane-sugar interests of the United States will demand that the other protected interests make common cause with them.

One kind of arrangement to put inordinate gains in the treasury of the Sugar Trust would be to admit raw sugar free and to put a duty on refined. Another would be to admit sugar from Cuba free and to tax the article grown in other countries. Presumably the bulk of the sugar industry of Cuba will be in American hands before long, the Trust having the lion's share. To admit the sugar of Cubans free and to tax that of the other West Indies, would make the Trust rich beyond the dreams of avarice, and would ruin the British islands, with the possible exception of Jamaica and Barbados, which are not wholly dependent on sugar. The sugar islands of the Lesser Antilles are at the point of starvation all the time, and this blow would finish them. Of course, there is a middle ground between Cuban sugar free and the present duty of about two cents per pound. There have been hints at Washington that the President would recommend a reduction of 20 or 25 per cent. in favor of Cuba. All the principles which govern the traffic apply to a reduced duty as well as to an entire repeal. The domestic producers will oppose the reduction as stoutly as they will oppose the repeal, and it remains to be seen how much the Administration really desires to favor Cuban interests. The latter have the suspicion that reciprocity will be kept dangling before them just beyond their reach, as a lure for annexation, and that the pecuniary temptation will eventually overcome what remains of the desire for independence in the island.

Alone of all United States officials, the judges in the Philippine Islands omit the oath to support the Constitution, for which is substituted an oath to maintain the laws of the island. The fact has excited no little wondering comment, which has stirred Commissioner Taft to the explaining point. The explanation is characteristic. To be sure, he says, the Philippine Islands may or may not be under the Constitution, but then it is eminently unfair to say that they are not; for if, as it appears, they are not under certain clauses, they are probably under others; and in any case the islands are under Congress, which is under the Constitution. Thus, almost axiomatically, is the mouth of the caviller stopped. But, continued Commissioner Taft, these matters are dark for the native intelligence. "The statement that the Constitution is in operation in these islands may thus mean one thing to one person and another thing to another. Why, therefore, introduce into an oath of office a form of statement which might lead to misconstruction?" This is very like demonstrative proof of the soundness of his decision, but to a man of Commissioner Taft's personal and legal attainments it must be a little humiliating to blanket the commission under which, presumably, he serves, and to talk about misconstruction, when, if he were not in official position, he might say manfully: "Of course, we make no Philippine official go through the hollow form of swearing to uphold a Constitution which, protecting neither him nor his people, does not even restrain his conquerors who are sworn to maintain it."

Aguinaldo is cutting up rough again. He refuses to urge any more insurrectionists to surrender, and signs himself "the prisoner of Malocan." "The prisoner of the Vatican" could not more studiously nourish and display a grievance. We shall look to see the Imperialist press come down heavy on him for this. He had been so "sensible," so much a "brave man accepting the inevitable," that he bade fair soon to be canonized in the Jingo calendar; but this latest nonsense of his marks him as a poor creature. Then there is Paterno, "the brain of the insurrection," and recent founder of that wonderful "Federal party" which was to coöperate with the Americans. What has the ungrateful beggar done but abandon that party! Of course, when the brains are out, the party dies, and Paterno is organizing a new one, yclept National, which takes for its platform ultimate independence of the Philippines, and proposes to nominate Aguinaldo for President! Paterno's true place is evidently in jail; and the censorship should at once be reestablished to keep back such news, so that the American Imperialistic editors may be free to denounce Lord Salisbury's monstrous proposal to destroy the last shred of Boer independence.

Persons in close touch with South American sentiment have been for some time predicting that the Pan-American Congress would never meet, as proposed, in Mexico next October. Chili's attitude, as revealed on Thursday, seems to clinch that prophecy. She insists upon having the programme of discussion definitely marked out beforehand, and upon ex-

cluding from it any project of arbitration except for "future questions only." Otherwise, she plainly intimates, she will not send delegates to the Congress. If Chili remains aloof, it is probable that Argentina will also. On the other hand, Peru and Bolivia will not participate if Chili's demands are met. Thus, at best, the "Pan" of the Congress would be a very cracked utensil. We think that, even so, it could be made as useful as the first gathering of ten years ago, for that was of no use at all. The treaty of arbitration which was then agreed upon, and over which Mr. Blaine waxed so eloquent and the poet Whittier pathetic, was contemptuously killed by the Senate, and buried in its private graveyard of good treaties, without even a headstone to mark its last resting-place. All that could have been hoped for at Mexico was a certain amount of palaver leading no whither. The United States would have been glad to take part in a ceremony of nothing but empty gush, just to prove that the South American republics do love and trust us, in spite of the Monroe Doctrine and the Spanish war. Further to conciliate them graciously, we now speak of the Chilian note as a "bombshell" and also an "ultimatum," and say that Chili's attitude is "intolerable." She wants to pursue her own way and consult her own dignity, instead of imitating the United States in always leading "a sweet submissive life."

American protectionist newspapers will have a fine time making fun of the new German tariff. Think of a customs law filling a pamphlet of 167 pages, and containing no less than 918 special tariff groupings! Why, this is German metaphysics gone mad. The absurd measure also contains retaliatory clauses, and goes to work to hamper trade and increase the cost of living with a deliberate brutality known before only to the tariff laws of—the United States! That is the sting of the new tariff law, which appears to be aimed peculiarly at American products; it is copied almost ostentatiously after our legislation. Americans in business in Berlin express "keen disappointment" at the proposed new tariff rates. They say that American exports to Germany will suffer greatly. The duties on machinery are more than doubled; in the case of saws they are quadrupled; American woods are also "hard hit"; the rates on dynamos and motors and telephone and telegraph apparatus are pushed to dizzy heights. But what of this? Are we going to mind loss of business as long as we can see our ideas conquering? Germany has gone over to McKinley-tariff methods—that ought to be glory enough for us, even if our German export trade is killed.

The arrest of Col. Murillo on a German steamer in the port of Cartagena, despite his wrapping himself melodramatically in the German flag and claiming its protection, gives us Americans an opportunity to take a useful little lesson in international law. The Washington authorities have already intimated that there is nothing for the Germans to get excited about, since the arrest of Col. Murillo was legal, and his claimed right of asylum on a merchant ship something not recognized by international law. This is, in so far, a gratifying indication that our Department of State is now prepared to abandon the position rashly assumed by Mr. Blaine and Gen. Tracy in 1890. That was the year in which a political refugee from Guatemala, one Barrundia, was killed while resisting arrest on an American steamer in a Guatemalan port. The American Minister in that country, as well as the American Consul-General, advised the captain of the *Acapulco* that the arrest was legal; but, for this, Minister Mizner was severely censured and afterwards recalled by Mr. Blaine, while Commander Reiter of the war-ship *Ranger*, which was in port at the time, was publicly disgraced by Secretary Tracy for not interfering to prevent the Guatemalan authorities from making the arrest. Our readers will remember the immense stir which the affair made at the time. Mr. Blaine's argumentation on the law of the case was regarded as one of those curiosities of reasoning with which, as in the diplomatic correspondence about the Isthmian Canal and the seal fisheries, he delighted to befuddle the legal issue. His effort was regarded even by Lodge as in need of reinforcement, and that statesman proceeded to give it by gravely maintaining that international law did not really apply to so small a country as Guatemala. He said he had looked it up on the map and, as soon as he saw what a tiny bit of a nation it was, perceived the absurdity of supposing that a great republic like the United States would have to observe the law in its dealings with such a miniature one.

For many years Danish politics have shown the unique condition of a party remaining in power in spite of a steadily increasing majority against it in the popular house. Under the Estrup Ministry, the anger of the Opposition was annually aroused by the passing of provisional budgets, made necessary by the refusal of the Folkething to grant supplies in the regular way. Of late years both parties have shown a spirit of compromise, and now, when the Conservatives in the Folkething have dwindled to a bare half-dozen members, the King has finally consented to the formation of a Liberal Cabinet. The new Premier, Dr. Deuntzer, is a professor of law at the University of Copenhagen, and a man of marked ability, and in general the new Cabinet may be regarded as strong. The greatest surprise is undoubtedly the selection of Horup, the editor of *Politiken*, the leading organ of the extreme Left. It would seem as difficult for him to leave the Opposition as for the typical Irishman to cease to be "agin' the Government." The difficulty of his position is increased by the fact that he is associated with Alberti, his chief journalistic opponent. In more respects than one the new Danish Ministry would seem to realize the ideal agreement between the lion and the lamb, though in the present case it would be difficult to determine which is the lion and which the lamb. This event in Danish politics is of special interest to Americans, as the Ministry is reported, and with every appearance of truth, to be strongly in favor of the sale of the Danish West Indies to this country. While there is no question of rivalry between the Danish Agrarians and the planters of St. Thomas, the tendency of the peasant mind would be to prefer solid American dollars to uncertain West Indian crops.

Democratic delegates to the Alabama Constitutional Convention were chosen under a party pledge that negro disfranchisement should be accomplished without disfranchising a single white man, but as the session progresses the difficulty of carrying out the programme becomes increasingly apparent. Clear-headed men in Alabama see the danger and the injustice of the proposed course, and do not hesitate to make their views plain to all. It is evident that the logic of the advice of ex-Gov. Jones, who has spoken repeatedly for impartial restrictions upon the suffrage, and against removing from the negro a great incentive to improvement, is having its effect. Even Senator Morgan, from whom, in view of his frank and unblushing hostility to political equality for the negro, one does not expect enlightened views on this question, opposes the use in Alabama of the expedient of the "grandfather clause," adopted by Louisiana and North Carolina. He insists that "to make blood the medium of transmitting the electoral power is to uproot from its foundations the whole system of democratic government." In the discussion by the Convention, on Thursday, the opposition to an hereditary basis for the suffrage was strong and clear.

The attention paid to the mosquito since a member of his family became known as the purveyor, or "intermediate host," of malaria, has begun to be reflected in books and magazines. Few contributions to the subject possess greater scientific or popular interest than the article on yellow fever by Surgeon-General Sternberg in the *Popular Science Monthly* for July. Two things are here proved beyond the possibility of doubt:

(1) That yellow fever may be communicated to human beings by mosquitoes; (2) that it cannot be communicated by contact of healthy persons with sick ones, or with the clothing or belongings of sick ones. The experiments to establish the latter fact, as described by Dr. Sternberg, were exhaustive and conclusive. They prove that all the elaborate steps taken and expense incurred to disinfect ships and their cargoes coming from ports where yellow fever has prevailed, or was suspected, have been utterly useless, since nobody could possibly take yellow fever from such a source, however much he might be exposed to it. It does not follow that quarantine is unnecessary against yellow fever, since a patient suffering from it may, on his arrival, be bitten by a mosquito which may afterwards bite other persons; but the disinfecting of ships and goods is superfluous. It is not yet proved that the mosquito is the only propagator of yellow fever, but the evidence is strong that the disease is communicated only by an intermediate host, and that the mosquito is the principal culprit.

It is a curious but well-authenticated fact that the hot, dry weather which lately parched and shrivelled corn, gave the wheat farmers of the northern corn belt a chance to gather in their entire crop untouched by dampness. Some wheat was doubtless hurt in the Dakotas. But the loss, running from one-fourth to one-third of the large crop which in early June was reckoned above seven hundred million bushels, was trivial. Even with a loss of twenty or thirty million bushels, the yield would still run far beyond the largest in our history. Nor is this huge production likely, as has happened at other times, to glut so suddenly the domestic markets as to force down prices to extreme low figures. On the contrary, Europe, whose own growing crops do not promise well, has bought here in such quantity as thus far to prevent any home accumulation. In April, wheat exports from the United States ran six million bushels beyond 1900; in May there was an equal increase; in June last year's total was exceeded by four million. These were average gains of 50 to 100 per cent.; last week the shipments were exactly three times as great as they were a year ago, reaching a total never but once exceeded in any week of our history.

There is nothing surprising in Lord Salisbury's "pessimistic" speech in the Lords last week, when the Finance Bill was under discussion. That is his way of cheering up his party when it is in the doleful dumps. He has always revelled in cynicism, and rolled pessimism like a sweet morsel under his tongue. His plaint just now is national extravagance, which he thinks is awful, but cannot be checked. A "tide" of swollen expenditures is running, he says, and who is he to stem it? The idea that any especial obligation rests on him as leader of a great party and British Prime Minister, he evidently considers wholly irrelevant. His Chancellor of the Exchequer, however, is not so limply fatalistic. He lifts up his voice, in Parliament and out of it, to warn the English people against the lavish ways of their representatives in control of the public purse. In his recent speech at the Lord Mayor's banquet, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach declared that if he were to listen to professional experts who came forward to tell the Government what it was absolutely necessary to spend, the Treasury would be gutted and the country ruined in a year. Of this kind of professional army and navy expert, Sir Michael said pungently that "he is always cocksure, he always differs from another expert, he is always expensive, and he is not always infallible."

Although, as Mr. Brodrick announced in the House of Commons on Thursday, the English Government cannot see its way clear to giving American rates of pay to its soldiers, the War Office has found it necessary to take a long step in the direction of the American pension system. As a result of the Boer war, an army order has been issued granting pensions to the widows and children of private soldiers killed in action. Hitherto no pensions of any kind have been given to such widows, no matter what the circumstances under which a soldier met his death. Now the pressure has become so great that the War Office has consented to a pension of five shillings a week to the widow of a private, which is increased slightly if there are children, and becomes ten shillings a week in the case of a non-commissioned officer's widow. Up to this time private charity and "patriotic funds" have always cared for the dependents of soldiers who lost their lives in a campaign, and Secretary of State after Secretary of State has declined to be responsible for finding the means for their support, although officers' widows have long been cared for. In pensions, as in other matters, it is often the first step which costs, and it will be interesting in the light of our American experience to see whether the British Government can stop with this concession, or whether the public appetite, whetted by this first taste, will make it necessary for other Secretaries to yield as gracefully as has Mr. Brodrick.

The bankruptcy proceedings held recently in the case of Sir Ellis Ashmead-Bartlett contained an instructive revelation. Sir Ellis is well known to have been for years a pronounced Turkophile. The idea of England, or any civilized Power, interfering with the Sultan, on account of the Armenian massacres, was abhorrent to him. In the war between Greece and Turkey his sympathies were actively enlisted in behalf of the Turk. Well, in the course of his examination the other day by the Official Receiver, Mr. Grey, the following colloquy took place:

"Mr. Grey—Did you become acquainted with the Sultan?

"The Debtor—I have been received by the Sultan.

"Mr. Grey—And you had some personal influence with him?

"The Debtor—Only because I had always taken the side of the Turkish people.

"Mr. Grey—Did he promise you certain concessions?

"The debtor replied in the affirmative. When he found that his Australian properties were not realizing his expectations, he went to Turkey. Before doing so he entered into an agreement with the Exploration Company (limited), under which they were to work or dispose of any concessions he might acquire, and to pay him one-half of any profit which might accrue. When in Turkey he secured concessions relating to electric traction and lighting in Salonika and electric traction in Smyrna. These concessions were the first granted for the use of electricity in Turkey. Some delay occurred in obtaining the confirmation of the concessions, and it was not until September, 1899, that the Sultan published his *irade*."

This certainly leaves Sir Ellis looking as virtuously disinterested in his Turkish attitude as did Messrs. Dodson & Fogg in the Pickwick trial.

The Odessa correspondent of the London *Times* has given to that journal some facts about the completed Siberian railway which will serve to reassure timid Englishmen who have seen in this line a serious menace to English and Japanese interests in the East. For years past we have heard of the ease with which Russia could pour troops into Port Arthur or any other Eastern point near the completed railway. It now appears that, even under the most favorable circumstances, the journey from Moscow to Port Arthur will average twenty-eight days. Indeed, allowing for storms on Lake Baikal and ice on the Shilka and Amur during certain portions of the year, the railway officials will not guarantee arrival in Port Arthur from Moscow under a month and a half. How much longer it would take to make this trip if the line should be choked up by heavy troop trains no one can estimate, but it is plain enough that water transportation would still be the chief reliance should Russia become involved in a great war in the East. That there is considerable public dissatisfaction in Russia with this condition of affairs is only natural. Merchants and manufacturers and travellers generally are so impolite as to remember that a seven days' trip in trains *de luxe*, going at a rate of thirty-five miles an hour, was what the Government promised when it began this enormous and costly undertaking. The different outcome is largely due to the hasty and flimsy construction of the line, which will undoubtedly be improved as time goes on.

THE MORAL OF PORTO RICO.

President McKinley's proclamation establishing free trade with Porto Rico is confined to the barest recital of the facts and of the authority under which he proceeds. Least said, soonest mended, he apparently thinks. Certainly neither he nor his party can be blamed for wishing to draw a veil over their last year's dealing with Porto Rico. "It is not the dealing I object to, but the shuffling," said witty Archbishop Magee, when Lord Salisbury was explaining how he proposed to "deal" with the temperance question; and so might have said an observer of the extraordinary backing and filling of the Republicans in Congress when they attempted to legislate for Porto Rico.

But we do not mean to traverse that weary round again. It would be easy, by citing names and dates, and speeches and messages, to make the defenders of the Administration bolt from every hole in which they now take refuge. But what would be the use? They would only scurry into another. A single one of their glib misrepresentations, however, it is worth while to expose in passing. They now coolly assert that the whole affair turned on the ability of the island to raise a sufficient revenue from internal taxes. Until that was demonstrated, it would have been madness to make sea-borne trade free. Now, in reply to this, it is not necessary to show that it is pure afterthought, as far as the President's recommendation was concerned; that this explanation breaks its teeth on the fact that the first bill of the Republican Ways and Means Committee of the House provided for free trade; or that the real motives and movers in the denial of free trade are perfectly well known. It is enough to point to the terms of the act of Congress. That instrument recites that "in no event"—that is, self-sustaining island revenues or not—should the establishment of free trade be delayed beyond March 1, 1902. That marks the measure of concession which an indignant public opinion wrung from a protection-ridden Congress.

We do not recall the melancholy exhibition made in that affair by the President and his party for any purpose except the single one of driving home the legal and moral lessons which it contains. In their "serious departure from right principles," as ex-President Harrison called their Porto Rican act, we see the more clearly what the right principles are from which we should never depart. One of them is that liberty, including equal property rights of all citizens, cannot be left to the benevolence of an arbitrary ruler, however well-meaning, or put at the disposal of a Congress, however well-intentioned. We need the assurances and the safeguards of charter and Constitution. As Guizot said at the time the Spaniards were trying to protect themselves against Queen Isabella by a Constitution: "The great use of a Constitution is to make good sovereigns out of bad men and women." He meant that a written guarantee of personal rights and immunities removed the subject from the perils of executive whim or of the caprice of Cortes and Congress. It was such bulwarked liberties that we supposed that we and all men under the American flag enjoyed in the specific pledges of our Constitution; and their temporary denial to the Porto Ricans was a blow not merely to our inherited conception of law and justice, but to our sense of civic security. If their fundamental rights could thus be trampled upon, which of ours were safe?

The Porto Rican intrigue of 1900 also served to uncover the essentially selfish and inhuman principle which lies coiled in the doctrine of protection. The revelation was, no doubt, a surprise to President McKinley himself. He is a kindly man, and to his overflowing benevolence it appeared the most natural thing in the world, as well as a "plain duty," to grant the Porto Ricans a free market for their products. But he did not reckon with the spirit of inveterate selfishness and greed which, under the name of protection, he himself had done so much to foster and make insolent. He appealed to humanity. But the men who had learned of him that no argument was worth while which did not reach the pocket, snapped their fingers at his recommendation of free trade. As they openly boasted, they swarmed to the White House and "read the riot act" to the President, whom they compelled to retreat ignominiously and in shamefaced silence from his own brave words. He must have realized then, if never before, what a dangerous thing it is to give to one class the right to tax their fellow-citizens for their own profit. Such a privilege, swollen by long exercise into a sense of vested right, would stop at no extreme of cruelty or oppression, Mr. McKinley then saw, to preserve its money-making power intact. And it was only the uprising of an angry people, amazed at such an effrontery of selfishness, which frightened the tariff beneficiaries into agreeing to relax their clutch to the extent that we see it done to-day.

Nor can we leave this subject without saying that the Porto Rican legislation is a supreme illustration of President McKinley's method. Secretary Long has been praising him recently for his wonderful success in "getting along with Congress." In this respect, the Secretary said, and with a grave face, so far as the reporters depose, McKinley was greater than Washington or Lincoln. Mr. Long left it an open question, apparently, whether Washington had not more personal courage, or Lincoln a more penetrating intellect and a greater gift of winged speech, but in the art of "getting along with Congress" McKinley overtopped them both. The Porto Rico case shows how the thing is done. Take a moral position, urge Congress in the most explicit and moving terms to come to it, but if it will not—what then? Say, "Here I stand, God help me. I can do no other"? No, only keep still, allow yourself to be driven by Congress, offer not one word of explanation or justification, and prepare some more moral sentiments to be in like manner abandoned when the time comes.

A REPUBLICAN SHORTER CATECHISM.

Swift, in one of the letters which he wrote from his Dublin exile to Pope, spoke ironically of the vacillations and uncertainties of the Cabinet of the day. He said they ought to issue a catechism every four months, in order to let their bewildered supporters know what to think and write and speak on the leading political questions. The idea is not a bad one for a party doubtful about its own changing policies in changing times; and, while confidently expecting the issue of something official, we humbly volunteer a few touchstones of Republican orthodoxy to-day:

Question. What is the chief end of prosperity?

Answer. To glorify the Republican party and keep it in office for ever.

Q. To what was the crop failure of 1894 due?

A. To the Wilson tariff and an imbecile Administration.

Q. What are we to think of the damage to crops in 1901?

A. That it is the dispensation of an all-wise Providence, intended to try our faith and cultivate the grace of patience.

Q. What is a labor union?

A. In Presidential years it is a noble band of workers, seeking the common good.

Q. What is it in other years?

A. A nuisance.

Q. What is a strike?

A. When an election is pending, it is the dignified appeal of laboring men for the redress of intolerable grievances, and Mark Hanna sees that the employers give it to the men.

Q. Why does he not do it at other times?

A. He is too busy.

Q. What is reciprocity?

A. It is an arrangement by which we invite other nations to sell us if they will buy of us.

Q. What is the protective tariff?

A. The law devised to keep other nations from selling to us.

Q. Then is not protection inconsistent with reciprocity?

A. No.

Q. Why not?

A. The Republican platform says it is not.

Q. Is there any other reason?

A. There is.

Q. Can you state it?

A. The Republican Senate refuses to ratify reciprocity treaties.

Q. Is that for the purpose of keeping reciprocity consistent with protection?

A. No, it is for the purpose of keeping bogus jewelry and shoddy cloth from competition.

Q. Then where does reciprocity come in?

A. It comes in the platform.

Q. What is a platform?

A. It is a formal promise to do certain things if you are elected and do not change your mind.

Q. If you cannot carry out your own plans by the help of your own party, what do you do?

A. Get Democrats to assist you.

Q. What are such Democrats called?

A. They are called "commercial Democrats."

Q. What is a commercial Democrat?

A. He is a politician familiar with buying and selling.

Q. Do you know what the Constitution is?

A. Yes, it is the supreme law of part of the land.

Q. In what part is it not supreme?

A. Where it does not apply.

Q. How do you know where it applies and where it does not apply?

A. We know that it does not apply where it would be inconvenient to apply it.

Q. Does it apply to the Philippines?

A. No, because the Filipinos are better off without it.

Q. What are we going to do for the Filipinos?

A. We are going to educate them.

Q. Does that mean teach them to read and think?

A. It does.

Q. Should we let them read and study the American Constitution?

A. No.

Q. Why not?

A. It would only confuse them.

Q. May they read the history of the Republican party?

A. It would be better not. They might want to add a chapter.

Q. Will the Declaration of Independence be studied in Philippine schools?

A. No; it would merely disturb them.

Q. May they read the Bible where it says that God hath made of one blood all nations of men?

A. No.

Q. Why not?

A. That would disturb *us*.

THE NEGRO AS SOLDIER AND OFFICER.

The mustering-out last month of two negro volunteer regiments after nearly two years of creditable service in the Philippines, and the recent appointment of three colored men as officers in the enlarged regular army, have again called public attention to the negro as a soldier. Sufficient praise has not, however, been accorded to the President for appointing these men, or to the army examining boards, which found two of them qualified for promotion from the ranks, and recommended them for advancement, in spite of the prejudice existing in the army against the negro officer.

That the colored soldiers have fairly earned this representation among the commissioned ranks by brave work before Santiago and in the Philippines, does not detract from the merit of the action. The experiences of Cadet Whittaker and of ex-Lieutenant Flipper in the eighties, and the difficulty of adjusting the relations of white and negro officers within the same garrison without injury to discipline or substantial injustice, would have been sufficient excuses for a Secretary of War or a President who wished to shirk his duty. Hitherto such colored officers as have been in the army were lieutenants in negro regiments, and therefore the subordinates of nearly all the white officers and unlikely to exercise command over them. But now that the one colored officer who has been in the army during the last few years has risen to be an extremely efficient captain of cavalry, and a colored man has been appointed a major in the Pay Department, a genuine test of the discipline of the army is at hand.

For the last three years the War Department has dodged the issue by keeping Capt. Charles Young of the Ninth Cavalry on duty at a colored men's college in Ohio. He cannot be kept there for ever, nor can the two colored lieutenants just appointed be kept from rising to higher rank, provided that they are guilty of no misconduct. It remains to be seen whether the white officers will have the good sense and still better taste to recognize that it is the uniform and rank which they have to obey in following the commands of a superior, and that for military purposes the color of that superior's skin is of as little importance as his personal and private character. What social relations there will be between white and colored officers will depend on the manliness and the training which the white officers have received, as well as on the tact of the colored. There have already been striking examples among the latter of good judgment and a proper recognition of the difficulties of their position.

Capt. R. L. Bullard, a regular army officer, who commanded an absolutely raw Alabama regiment of plantation and town negroes during the Spanish-American war, contributes to the current issue of the *Journal of the Military Service Institution* an account of his experiences with them, which throws much light upon their value from the military point of view. It is their lightheartedness and happiness which impressed him most. "From daylight until far into the night, a negro camp is a steady hum of laughter and talk, dance, song, shout, and the twang of musical instruments. It is a scene full of life and fun, of jostling, scuffling, and racing, of clown performances and cakewalks, of impromptu minstrelsy, speechmaking, and preaching, of devilling, guying, and fighting, both real and mimic." Such social natures have they that Col. Bullard could not keep his sentinels by themselves. "Colonel," said a visitor, "your sentinels are sociable fellows. I saw No. 5 over at the end of his beat entertaining No. 6 with some fancy manual of arms. Afterwards, with equal amiability, No. 6 executed a most artistic cakewalk." But the chronic complainer is practically unknown in a negro regiment, provided that the cook "gives them a square deal." Otherwise there will be trouble right away. But nothing else worries, however exhausting and comfortless the exigencies of the service, however trying the climatic conditions. The colored cavalrymen had hardly dug their trenches under the tropical rains of Santiago before smuggled musical instruments appeared and the singing began.

From the outset the negro recruit recognizes the authority of his officers as a white one does not, but he wishes those officers to be far above him in rank and social standing, and only the most unqualified backing up of the non-commissioned officers gives them the influence and authority they need. In his captain the negro soon learns to have " a most remarkable trust and reliance," and that officer has to become banker for the entire company if all is to go well. For the negro soldier loses all his money at once, in gambling or otherwise, and must be tided over judiciously to the next pay day. One of his difficulties is his irresistible propensity for carrying concealed weapons; and here it is not the razor, but the pistol, which attracts. Another is his susceptibility to the contagion of passions and excitement. It is through example and ridicule, and not through scolding, that he is best reproved. But the most powerful aid in getting discipline Col. Bullard found to be the appeal to him for the honor and advancement of his race—his "most sensitive point." Touching him here, the Colonel found that this appeal "made the dirty clean, the ragged whole, the crooked straight, and the lazy work, the ignorant learn, and the disorderly and riotous quiet." In conclusion, Col. Bullard affirms that the average negro volunteer "comes to the colors with more of the first urgently needed qualities of the soldier and readier for service than the white."

The same favorable testimony has

long come from the regular army. Excellence in drill, pride in the service, passionate devotion to just officers and of officers to them, contentedness and happy endurance—these are to be found in the negro regular, as well as in the volunteer. For years the colored regiments, and particularly the Ninth Cavalry, stood at the head of the army in the Inspector-General's reports, being especially distinguished for their few desertions. As brave soldiers the colored Americans won their spurs the day Shaw died on Wagner's walls to be "buried among his niggers." Their valorous conduct at Santiago was but a repetition of Civil War and Indian campaign achievements, even when their beloved white officers were shot down and they went ahead under their sturdy sergeants—with their eyes to the front.

THE GERMAN TARIFF PROJECT.

For nearly ten years the Agrarians, or land-owning party of East Prussia, have been demanding pecuniary assistance through some action of the Government. The low price of grain resulting from cheap supplies imported from Russia and the United States has lowered land rents there in the same way as in England, and has reduced the landlords to what they consider penury. It has curtailed their luxuries and brought the estates of the more improvident ones to sale under foreclosure. This has been to them the very overturn of society. Being a powerful faction in politics, and regarding themselves as the chief support of the monarchy, they long ago made an appeal to the Government to relieve them from the consequences of slow-moving, irresistible economic forces, for which the Government was in nowise responsible.

The chief factor among these forces consists of improvements in transportation by land and sea. On the one side lies Russia with vast wheat fields and a growing railway system; on the other the North American continent and an open waterway with constantly improving steamship lines. During the past ten years it may be fairly said that Germany has led the way for other nations, both in carrying capacity and in speed of movement. Every cent of reduced cost in transportation has been an additional sting to the *Junkers* of Prussia. In their desperation they first demanded the free coinage of silver as a relief. They conceived that the low price of grain was due to an insufficient supply of money, and that a remedy could be found in the remonetization of silver. Chancellor Caprivi so far yielded to them as to order an official investigation, which resulted in nothing. The Agrarians then made a motion in the Reichstag for a new international silver conference, and actually obtained a majority vote for it, but the Bundesrath did not agree to it.

Since the failure of this attempt, the Agrarians have been frantically demanding a higher tariff on cereals, in order to raise the price of home-grown wheat and rye. They have all the time been working to exclude American meat from the German market by raising questions as to its healthfulness, but these endeavors have not yielded any large percentage of profit to themselves, although they have created much irritation in the United States. A protective tariff is certainly a much more rational scheme to accomplish the end they have in view, and it has the further advantage that we Americans cannot reasonably object to it, since that is our way of accommodating the interests of the home producer.

It seems now that the German Chancellor has yielded to these demands so far as to frame a new tariff schedule, in which increased duties on agricultural products hold the leading place. Additional duties have been allowed to manufacturers also, but are not acceptable to them. Being exporters, they are obliged to sell in competition with England, Belgium, and the United States, while the increased duties on food products will surely add to their costs of production. It is probable that the new tariff bill has been put forth as a test of public opinion, rather than as a settled plan of the Government, and that it is liable to be abandoned or modified according to the reception it meets among the constituencies, and in the press, and in the foreign chancelleries.

Looking at the schedules as they stand, we cannot see anything that we have a right to complain of. The proposed duty on Indian corn and barley is four marks per metric hundredweight, *i. e.*, 96 cents per 220 pounds, or less than half a cent per pound. Our duty on barley is 30 cents per bushel of 48 pounds, or about three-fourths of a cent per pound. The proposed German duty on rice is the same as on barley. Ours is two cents per pound on cleaned and one and one-quarter cents on uncleaned, *i. e.*, three or four times higher. Fresh meat is to pay about three cents per pound. Under our tariff the rate is two cents, but bacon, hams, and dressed poultry are here taxed five cents per pound. Wheat flour is to pay about one cent and a half per pound. With us the duty is 25 per cent. ad valorem, or about half a cent per pound. This is merely nominal, as none is imported. Any duty at all would be prohibitory in this country.

Although we shall have nothing to complain of if the new German duties apply to all countries alike, it seems certain that Russia and Austria will have much to complain of. The new tariff will interrupt established lines of trade of great local importance, and will curtail the earnings of Government railways in a marked degree. It is already intimated that the Russian Minister of Finance will retaliate in kind promptly and decisively, and that Austria will not stand idle while her trade is attacked in the manner proposed. The other European countries, Rumania, Italy, and the Netherlands especially, will be hurt also, but none will be hurt so much as Germany herself. Whatever adds to the cost of living of the workingman (and this is the precise aim of the bill) will stir up hatred against the governing class, and add to the political power of the Socialists, besides lessening the ability of the manufacturers to compete in foreign trade.

EVERY AUTHOR HIS OWN PRESS-AGENT.

A Boston publisher has been divulging trade secrets to a London reporter, and the reporter has in turn been trying to give light to them that sit in darkness. The unprecedented sales of some recent books, says the Boston authority, are not due to the vast superiority of living writers over those of fifty years ago; no, Mary Johnston is not sixty per cent. better than George Eliot, and Irving Bacheller one hundred per cent. greater than Dickens. The difference in sales, declares the modest publisher, is to be ascribed less to the skill of the author than to the publisher's unexampled resourcefulness as an advertiser. Doubtless the modern publisher is justified in taking credit to himself; but evidence is not lacking that in this race for fame the author has cheerfully, if not eagerly, consented to serve as his publisher's pace-maker.

The change in the attitude of the author is illustrated by a little incident which occurred in London in 1858—a prehistoric age, as far as the art of advertising is concerned. Edmund Yates then wrote, for a periodical called *Town Talk*, a short account of Thackeray's personal appearance and his literary successes. To be sure, the sketch was not wholly flattering, but so much the better, for no one could then accuse it of being simply a puff. What was Thackeray's proper course under the circumstances? No enlightened man in this year of grace 1901 will hesitate for a moment to say that he should have clipped the article and sent it with his own photograph to his publishers, Bradbury & Evans. They should have ordered immediately five hundred proof-slips and mailed one to each newspaper in the United Kingdom, with some such circular as this:

DEAR SIR: Since we advertise freely in your columns, you will probably wish to reprint in whole, or in part, with proper credit to *Town Talk*, the enclosed sketch of Mr. Thackeray, whose popular novel, 'The Virginians,' we are now publishing in monthly parts at 1s. each. The sale of this work is, as you doubtless know, absolutely unprecedented in the book-trade. If you can use a cut we shall be happy to send you,

carriage prepaid, an excellent electrotype portrait of Mr. Thackeray. [Was this before the days of electrotypes?] Trusting you will do your best for us, and will send us a marked copy, we remain, your obedient servants, BRADBURY & EVANS.

Incredible as it may seem, however, nothing of the kind happened. Thackeray did not even offer Mr. Yates an autograph copy of 'The Newcomes.' Instead, he demanded that Mr. Yates should apologize for printing facts about the color of his hair and his manner of speech, learned in the privacy of the Garrick Club, of which both were members. Evidently Thackeray was laboring under the delusion that an author is a member of a learned profession, bound by some such fantastic code as that of reputable doctors and lawyers. It is conceivable that if he had seen on every bill-board the legend, "Read 'The Virginians'! A Great Historical Novel! Incidents of the French and Indian War! Brilliant Characterization of George Washington!" he would have felt as horrified as the President of the New York Academy of Medicine if he saw his name on a poster in every street-car, with the advice, "Go to Dr. —— for Appendicitis! Operations While You Wait!"

But we have left Thackeray's benighted notions far behind us. Authors no longer fly in the face of Providence by neglecting their opportunities, for they justly reason that it is useless to write if your books do not sell; your books will not sell unless they are advertised; and they will not be well advertised unless you lend a hand in the good work. Already some of our most popular novelists have begun to play the part of the theatrical press-agent, and play it with improvements of their own. Certainly in comparison with the crude and silly tale about the theft of the beautiful Miss Dancer's ten-thousand-dollar diamond necklace, Hall Caine's confidences about his barrels of notes for the local color of 'The Christian' are an artistic job. Then one should set against the stories of the thousand and one hotel-keepers with whom Sara Bernhardt has quarrelled because they will not admit her pet panther to the dining-room, the following choice bit:

"It is a rather novel idea for an author to call in his family physician in consultation regarding the symptoms of one of his characters. But this, it seems, is just what Mr. Harold McGrath did while writing 'The Puppet Crown.' He had just finished the chapter describing the 'fight on horseback,' and, feeling that the situation had got rather beyond his own powers, detailed the facts to the doctor, and asked what could be done to save the hero. 'Save him, my boy?' replied the old gentleman, gravely. 'He is beyond the power of human aid. Science can do nothing for him. Art can only put him out of his misery.' Mr. McGrath adds that after the publication of the book he received a bill from his physician for professional services."

That closing sentence is convincing proof that while Madame Bernhardt's literary agent is a dull bungler, Mr. McGrath, who is his own master, is a versatile craftsman in fiction.

And, then, in the interviewing—that great device for giving publicity to valueless opinions—the result is vastly more satisfactory when the interviewee (to coin a much-needed word) does it all himself. He can put it just as he wants it. The chances for interviews are, of course, innumerable. Wherever the author goes, he can persuade a complaisant editor to print a few remarks about realism and idealism or the proper function of the "problem novel"; for apparently there is no limit to the amount which a public, eager to get culture, and get it quick, is willing to swallow on such stimulating subjects. The public is equally willing to learn how the poet happened to write "The Man with the Hoe"—indeed, with characteristic depravity, it actually prefers the exposition to the poem itself.

But the author need not confine himself to shop, for the less he knows of a question the more amusing his observations on it. If he has achieved a reputation for sketches of bucolic character, he is naturally expected to toss off a half-column on the Boer war. If his forte is light and agreeable literary criticism, he can be certain the public is panting to hear him deliver a fierce denunciation of the steel strike. In short, he finds everything grist which comes to his mill; and he can grind it out into most attractive advertisements, which will be inserted in those comic sheets by courtesy called "literary supplements" exactly in the form of real reading matter. What is more, the author can get it put in for nothing, whereas two dollars a line is the price for printing the far abler and wittier articles which celebrate the virtues of Liddon's Liver Lifter.

THE SLOVAKS AT HOME.

TURÓCZ SZENT MÁRTON, June 26, 1901.

In the coal-mines and factories of Pennsylvania, especially at Pittsburgh and Connellsville, may be found the largest aggregations of Slovaks in America, but they are commonly called Hungarians, with whom they have nothing in common but the country of their birth. They have not been long in their new homes, and have not yet acquired that respectability which comes with wealth, but there are many signs of their material and social progress in the air, and the time is not far distant when they will enjoy the same degree of respect that their racial brothers, the Poles, have won for themselves in Buffalo, Chicago, and other Polish centres. Much of the opprobrium cast upon them by Americans is due mainly to their almost Oriental looks and ways, and to their choice of the lowest occupations in mines and factories, though their sturdiness is not denied by any. Generalizations are easily made, and the public has at once decided that all Slovaks are of the same cast and belong to a decidedly inferior civilization, hardly worthy of any consideration. It will, therefore, appear as a surprise to many that, in my peregrinations through northern Hungary, I have met Slovak university professors in the mountainous suburbs of Pressburg, have watched with curiosity and amazement their artistic and costly national costumes at Tyrnau, have found a famous Tolstoist at Sillein, have passed my time in Slovak museums, club-houses, printing-offices, editorial rooms, in their literary centre, the village of Turócz Szent Márton, right in the heart of the Carpathian Mountains, and have moved in refined Slovak society, which, but for its language and patriotic sentiments, might as well be of St. Petersburg or Boston.

If there were a Slovakia as there is a Bohemia, Bulgaria, Servia, the fate of the Slovaks would have been more fortunate than that of many of the other Slavic nations, for they are endowed by nature with many admirable qualities. But the Slovaks have no country of their own, no self-government, no historical past. Up to the end of the eighteenth century their language was regarded as a corrupt dialect of Bohemian, fit only for the peasants. The aristocracy and gentry of northern Hungary, though recruited from the Slovak landowners, had no nationality. For centuries they had attached themselves to the Hungarian crown by means of the Latin language, which was the common speech of all the educated in the realm. Unfortunately for the native population, the Magyar regeneration began earlier than that of the Slavs, for the aristocracy exchanged the Latin for the Magyar, so that, when the national consciousness of the Slavs was awakened at the end of the eighteenth century, the higher classes had already been alienated by Hungary. The country population spoke its native dialect, but listened to Bohemian religious instruction.

At the end of the eighteenth century, when the idea of nationality began to ferment in Slavic countries, a Catholic priest among the Slovaks, by the name of Bernolak, published a six-volume dictionary of the Slovak language, and wrote some tracts in a dialect not far removed from the Bohemian. Others followed in his footsteps, until Stur, in the first third of the last century, created a new school by the introduction of the dialect of the middle counties into literature. The Slovaks, though only two and a half million strong, of whom but a small fraction is not Magyarized or intelligent enough to read belles-lettres, have developed a more beautiful and varied literature than their more fortunate brethren, the Croatians, Servians, Bulgarians. But no field has been so successfully cultivated by them as poetry. Of the poets now living, the greatest are Országh-Hviezdoslav and Hurban-Vajansky. The latter is of particular interest, since he is also their best prosaist, and because he is the son of the writer Hurban, who was Stur's partner in most of his undertakings, and thus brings down in direct line the best traditions of the older school.

Before leaving America, I visited the Slovak quarter of New York, which centres on East Second Street, and provided myself in the Slovak Bank with a letter of introduction to Mr. Hurban-Vajansky. The Slovaks began to come in evidence at Vienna. Peasant women in short fluted skirts, under which there must be half-a-dozen more skirts, though not of the airy texture of a

ballet-dancer's garments, and barefooted or in heavy boots, may be seen anywhere in the streets selling cherries. These came from neighboring villages, for Slovakia reaches down almost to the gates of Vienna. An hour and a half's ride along the Danube to Pressburg brings us to the older seat of Slovak literary activities. This beautiful city is now completely Magyarized, though Slovak names are abundantly met with over stores. There still exists here an Evangelical Slovak seminary, and one of the best scholars of Slovak language and literature, Dr. L. Wagner, is connected here with a variety of learned institutions. I visited him in his beautiful summer residence in the mountains, within a short walk from the centre of the city. Dr. Wagner is a Magyaron, as the sympathizers with the Magyars are called here, though he loves the Slovaks platonically. He presented me with a few copies of his pamphlet, entitled 'Talvj: A Biographical Sketch in Memory of her Hundredth Birthday,' for distribution in a few American libraries. So I found here in Hungary a link between the two continents, for Talvj was the great Slavic scholar who married Prof. Edward Robinson of Andover; they were both of them, later, active at Boston and New York.

From Pressburg I sped to Turócz Szent Márton through the valley of the Vag, with the Carpathian Mountains on both sides towering higher and higher. This village is situated very much like Sofia in Bulgaria, of which it seems to be a diminutive reproduction. One is surprised to find so small a place, in an almost inaccessible region, far away from large centres, to be the seat of culture and the chief representative of national unity. Pressburg and Pesth may appear objectionable, as they are too thoroughly Magyar to be eligible; but Tyrnau, for example, which is surrounded by prosperous Slovak villages, might have been chosen as the proper spot for their propaganda. In fact, the selection of Turócz Szent Márton is purely accidental. When, some fifty years ago, the propagandists of the Slovak idea made an appeal for a national gathering and the establishment of a national museum, only two villages responded to the call, and thus the insignificant Szent Márton (there are dozens of Saint Martins in Hungary), in the county of Turócz, became the rendezvous of literary men, and still is the only palpable proof of the existence of a Slovak nation.

The first thing that strikes one's eyes as one walks the main street of the village is a large, commodious building, which would not be out of place in the main street of a populous city. It is the Magyar Government building, post-office, etc., but the Magyars did not build it. The Slovaks had erected it as their national home, and the Magyars, who love them as little as they love the Magyars, confiscated their works of art, library, building and all, carried away the best things to Pesth, and left the rest to rot in cellars and garrets. For a time it seemed as though there was no hope, as though the poor people could not make new contributions to the national cause. And even if the money could be got together, what guarantee was there that the Magyars would not again blight their fair hopes? And there was again found a way out of the difficulty. A new, commodious building, only second to the first, was built on fifty-florin shares, and this, being now private property, is more easily exempt from Government interference. The name of National Museum was avoided, and it is simply called "Dom" —that is "House," or "Hotel Dom," for a small hotel has been installed there. A few Slovak newspaper offices, four printing-presses, one book-store, a bank are the only other signs of national life. The bank receives deposits and transacts business mainly for the American Slovaks who send their earnings home. It does a business of 30,000,000 florins a year, which speaks well for the emigrants or for America. The proprietor of the small book-store (one of four or five in existence) has managed to accumulate enough money from the sale of books to build himself a substantial house for these regions. The printing-presses furnish nearly all the literature for home consumption, while the newspapers eke out an existence between the periodic incarcerations of their staffs in Magyar prisons for supposed breaches of the law.

By far the most interesting building, as I have said, is the Dom. Here there is a native library composed of private donations, brought together from long-forgotten hiding-places in distant parsonages. Not only does it contain the more modern Slovak books, but books in other languages, written by natives or printed on native presses, have been brought together here. Unfortunately, there are no means at hand properly to classify and arrange the vast material of some twenty or thirty thousand books, and much of it lies in heaps upon the floor. There are a number of duplicates and triplicates, of which many, in Slovak, will soon find their way into the Harvard library. Such, at least, is the result of my visit in Slovakia.

The National Museum, in no better order than the library, and owing its origin to similar donations, deserves a better housing. Leaving out such gifts as mounted crocodiles and doubtful paintings of doubtful masters, there is enough there to give a good idea of the past and present of the country. The archæological department is rich in excavations from historic and prehistoric times. The ethnological division harbors curious specimens of native workmanship, but is especially interesting on account of its collection of native costumes, many of which not only are artistic, but surprise one by the wealth which they represent. I have seen in Tyrnau, in the streets and in some of the stores, women's garments which cost not less than seventy-five or one hundred dollars, but which could not be reproduced for three times the money if the work were paid for according to American ideas.

In the Dom there is also a casino, where the prominent Slovaks of Szent Márton and their visitors may be found of an evening. Beer and wine are served here only surreptitiously, as the Magyar Government will grant no license, although wine flows freely in the Magyar casino of the village. Here the patriots passively discuss the evils of the day and prognosticate the future. The room in which the gatherings take place is the only one in which an attempt has been made to introduce art into the construction of the native house, or, more correctly, to employ artistically the simple adornments of the village house. The result is very pleasing and does credit to the artist. The high dado of woodwork is fluted along the edges of the narrow boards that run down vertically, and the flutings end above in simple rosettes. The ceiling is made to imitate planks resting on heavy beams, and is again fitly decorated in two or three colors. There are also representations of chimney-corners, niches, and doorways, and native crockery of a most elegant design is hung along the wall, over the fireplace, and above the doors.

Here again, in the town, is the only theatre Slovakia possesses. Amateur performances may be seen in other places, but here alone there is a pretty stage with proscenium boxes and sufficient room to hold a large village audience with its visitors from near and far. Performances are given only once a month, but the singing society meets oftener. It was my good fortune to be present at a rehearsal of the musical programme which is to be part of the national festivities that will take place on August 7. None but native songs, nearly all in Gregorian keys, were sung, and the voices of the young ladies, daughters of the best society the village can muster, rang out pleasantly through the empty hall. One of the peculiarities of the August festivity is that all the ladies appear only in native costumes, which have also been adopted by them on all occasions when a balldress is worn elsewhere.

When I reached Turócz Szent Márton, I made at once for the office of the *Narodné Noviny*, the largest native publication, where I found Mr. Hurban-Vajansky. His appearance is as striking as his whole personality. Of more than medium height, heavily bearded, with a stentorian voice, he is a giant among his people. The New York banker had written him about my intended visit, and the formalities of introduction were therefore short. He went with me to Hotel Dom, to find a room for me there, but it happened to be the day of manœuvres, and the village was filled with the Magyar military, not less than six generals being the thorns in the Slovak sides, and all rooms were taken. So I was lodged in Mr. Hurban-Vajansky's private home, which gave me an insight into Slovak family life. It is rather a humble home for a literary man that the poet occupies. He has sacrificed all his aspirations for the chosen purpose of serving his people. His father before him was an evangelical preacher and a literary man, and he himself comes by right to the literary inheritance. In the arbored hallway of the house he has sketched some verses on the wall as his spirit has moved him, and his young son promises to continue the tradition, for his verses are intermingled with those of his father. Though the appointments of the house are strikingly simple, there is a large private library of the world's best literature, mainly Slavic, in which Russia occupies the lion's share. Not less interesting are the pictures that adorn the wall. They are all the work of prominent Slovak artists, and some are first prints after such as could not be procured by him.

Many are the goings and comings in the house. There came Sultéty, the leading Slovak philologist, and Dula and Mudron, prominent lawyers; and, best of all, his old mother had just returned from a visit to her son who is a parson in a Slovak community in Croatia. Though seventy-five years old, she looks as if she might outlive her sons, being livelier than a child. She said

she did not wish to stay in the village in Croatia, as the cemetery there looked too empty and uncomfortable. Nor is Mrs. Hurban-Vajansky less interesting. She takes a vivid interest in all the affairs of her husband and nation, and is a most charming hostess. I had some compunction about accepting their hospitality, as, being a vegetarian, I feared I should cause them inconvenience. But no, was not their countryman, Dr. Makovicky, a famous vegetarian, and why could they not feed me like the tame little rabbit that ran around the room?

Mr. Hurban-Vajansky's family is as cultured as any I have met. But there is a special flavor to all his sympathies. Of course, he is a Magyar-hater and a Panslavist. He belongs to that older generation of men, like Aksakov in Russia, who believe in the existence of a Slavic idea. What that idea is, neither he nor his friends could well define, but it finds expression in a general hatred of everything German, Jewish, Magyar. There is growing up a young Slovakia which, like young Bohemia under the guidance of Professor Masaryk, is more reasonable in its aspirations, and seeks a solution of the perplexing question of a Slavic nationality in self-improvement according to Western ideas. Apart from these Panslavist tendencies, which are alienating the younger generations from him, Hurban-Vajansky is broad-minded and thorough. He has not that unconditional admiration for Tolstoi that some of his countrymen and others profess to have, for he regards his teachings as contradictory and "academic," while his 'Resurrection' is a "youthful" error. Nor does he speak of Sienkiewicz with unconditional praise. He has no use for the heaping of bloody incidents in which the Polish author revels.

Some years ago the American Slovaks invited Hurban-Vajansky to cross the ocean and lecture to them. Unfortunately he could not accept their invitation, for fear of offending the Catholics at home. Soon after, he passed three months in a Magyar prison for a supposed demonstration in favor of a Slovak editor who had just returned from a year's incarceration. When he left his cell, in which he wrote a long novel now printing, he found the American Slovaks had deposited one thousand florins for him in the bank. It is quite possible that he will come to America; at least he would accept such an invitation from his American countrymen.

After leaving Szent Márton, I went to Sillein (Zsolna, in Magyar) to see the famous Tolstoist and friend of Tolstoi, Dr. Makovicky. He has translated many of this author's works into Slovak, possesses a very large Tolstoi album and correspondence with the master, and lives up to his principles. Here in Sillein there also lived a lawyer, Lombardini, who was a great bibliophile, and who owned the most complete Slovak library. After his death, four years ago, his books found their way to a bookseller in Pressburg, where they were never unpacked. They are now on their way to the Harvard Library.

FOUCHÉ.—II.

PARIS, July 14, 1901.

Nobody in the Convention was in more danger than Fouché in the period which preceded Thermidor. Robespierre hated him; their friendship in the old days at Arras had changed to a deep aversion. Fouché paid a visit to Robespierre, in the hope of coming to some sort of understanding with the master of the Convention. Robespierre kept him long waiting, and saw him only to utter a violent diatribe against Fouché's policy in Lyons. Fouché did not reappear in his house, and open warfare began between them in the Convention and in the club of the Jacobins. Fouché became the instigator of a coalition against Robespierre; he did not show himself much, as he was not a good speaker, but he was behind Barras and Tallien, and he finally gave them the signal for the decisive attack.

The famous sitting of the 9th Thermidor was so dramatic that Sardou had nothing to do, in his "Thermidor," but to transfer to the stage the official account of it. Fouché, though he did not appear at the tribune, was, after Saint-Just, Billaud, Tallien, Vadier, Collot-d'Herbois, Thuriot, one of the most energetic actors in the great drama. Of the date of his triumph he was all his life very proud. When, in 1815, he was threatened with the effect of the anger of Napoleon, he simply said: "On a certain day Robespierre exclaimed, 'Before a fortnight passes, Fouché's head or my own must roll on the scaffold.' It was his head that rolled there." The history of the quarrels of the Thermidorians among themselves after their victory is somewhat tedious. Fouché had to defend himself against the attacks of many who had been his allies. He was assailed on all sides for his conduct during his sanguinary missions. The Thermidorians were all Terrorists, and they found themselves the first victims of the reaction against the Terror which began after Thermidor. Fouché was finally declared ineligible to the new legislative body, and for a time fell into oblivion.

For three years he led a miserable life. He asked for a place which would keep him from starving, he received an obscure mission from the Directory to the frontiers of Spain. He was forbidden to remain in Paris, where he maintained relations with the worst Jacobins, and was exiled to Montmorency. When allowed to return, he became an agent of the financiers and army contractors. He offered his services to the Abbé de Montesquiou, the agent of Louis XVIII. in France. They were disdainfully refused. Of all his colleagues in the Convention, one only took some interest in him; it was Barras, who employed him occasionally unofficially, and recommended him to the attention of his colleagues in the Directory. Fouché undertook the defence of the *coup d'état* of Fructidor, which was made against the majority of the *Cinq-Cents*, and he was recompensed with the post of French Minister to the Cisalpine republic. His nomination caused a great sensation at Milan. Fouché, who had ceased to believe in the permanence of the republic, thought he had found in Gen. Joubert, who commanded in Lombardy, the instrument of a *coup d'état*. His intrigues at Milan caused his recall, but he forced the Directory to give him another post in Holland. He there showed great activity in preparing resistance to an Anglo-Russian invasion when he was called back to France and intrusted with the Ministry of General Police. Fouché was now in his element; he had at last, after six years of poverty and uncertainty, found a pedestal on which he resolved to build for himself an immense fortune, a mysterious and formidable power; and while he was on his way from The Hague to Paris, Gen. Bonaparte was on the Mediterranean, approaching the coast of France.

Fouché owed his new post to Barras. They were both regicides; they were both bound to the cause of the Revolution; and if, in a moment of despair, Fouché had offered his services to the agent of the Bourbon, he feared more than ever a restoration. At the same time he was not, when he became Minister of the Directory, in favor of a Jacobin policy. Ségur, in his memoirs, attributes to him this cynical declaration; he wished "to arrest the march of a revolution which was now, in his eyes, without an object, as he had obtained all the personal advantages which he could claim." This was said to Ségur in 1809, but it undoubtedly represents Fouché's state of mind after he rose to power. His policy was clearly proclaimed by him the very day after he entered upon his new functions. It was a policy of equilibrium, consisting in opposing both parties, the Jacobins and the Royalists. But it was not to the weak government of the Directory that Fouché intended to give the task of fixing for ever the ideas of the Revolution, and of reassuring its partisans at the same time against the excesses of the Terror and against the return of the monarchy. Fouché felt that France, tired of the Directory, needed a strong hand to direct its destinies. In Italy he had looked to Gen. Joubert, and he remained in correspondence with him; but Joubert was killed at the battle of Novi. He thought of Bonaparte, and made the acquaintance of Josephine; he helped her with money, and obtained communication of the letters which Bonaparte wrote to Josephine from Egypt. When Bonaparte landed at Fréjus, Fouché was ready for him. His part in the preparation of the *coup d'état* of Brumaire was not very apparent; it was none the less effective. Fouché affected astonishment; he made reserves. He was ready for any emergency, and prepared to arrest Bonaparte if he did not succeed; to give him his powerful aid if he did.

He lost no time in announcing to France, when Bonaparte was made First Consul, the constitution of a "powerful and strong Government." He gave to Bonaparte at once the formula of his policy: "No reaction." "It was," says M. Madelin, "this thought which inspired in Fouché the attitude which he took after the 20th Brumaire, and which he kept till his downfall in 1802." We may well ask ourselves if this policy of "No reaction" was inspired in Bonaparte by Fouché, or in Fouché by Bonaparte. They had the same interest in protecting the ideas and to a certain extent the men of the Revolution; it is probable that they felt at once this community of interest. Napoleon no more than Fouché desired the return of the Bourbons; they both followed a personal policy; but circumstances were such that their policies coincided exactly.

Fouché gave to the general and to the secret police a powerful organization; he instituted the Prefecture of Police and the General Commissioners of Police, and attached the gendarmerie to his administration. His policy, as we have said, was one of equilibrium. He reassured at the same time the partisans of the Revolution and the

Royalists, on condition that they would not conspire. He was in favor of the return of the *émigrés*, and became almost popular in what remained of aristocratic society. He took strong means for the reëstablishment of order in La Vendée, in Brittany, in Touraine, and instituted in twenty departments military commissions which made short work of all who lived by brigandage. In one of his reports, we find that there were still 145,000 *émigrés* on the 18th Brumaire; in a short time, the names of 12,000 were struck from the terrible list. The increasing power of Fouché was compromised when the life of Napoleon was threatened by the celebrated infernal machine of the Rue Saint Nicaise. The First Consul was saved; he appeared a moment at the opera and on his return to the Tuileries, where he found Fouché. There was no doubt that the attempt was the work of the Jacobins. Bonaparte was much excited; he accused Fouché of leniency towards his enemies: "Ce sont vos Terroristes qui ont fait le coup" (Memoirs of Miot de Melito). Fouché remained silent, unmoved; the next day Napoleon accused again, before the Council of State, the remnants of the evil days of the Terror. Lucien, the brother of Bonaparte, openly upbraided Fouché; all the high functionaries, the ministers, the courtiers, joined in the same cry.

In the midst of this universal emotion, this phlegmatic man astonished his adversaries by his calm. He felt, he knew, that the infernal machine was not the invention of the Jacobins, but of the royalists. His police was at work; he kept a mysterious silence till all the proofs were in his hands and some of the members of the conspiracy might have been arrested. Meanwhile, a list of 130 Jacobins had been made, and the Senate had approved of their deportation without trial. Fouché was asked to sign this iniquitous condemnation. He knew that refusal would be equivalent to dismissal; he knew, also, that a few hours afterwards he should triumph, for he was on the point of arresting one of the conspirators. "Fouché did not hesitate. He countersigned the proscription of 130 men accused of terrorism between 1792 and 1795. He still was the Fouché of Nantes, of Nevers, of Lyons. He signed, and kept his place. Four days afterwards, he triumphed." He was so sure of his victory that he dared to arrest at midnight, at the very door of the Tuileries, Bourmont, who had conferred for an hour with the First Consul, and had tried to prove to him that the royalists had nothing to do with the plot of the infernal machine. Napoleon heard of the arrest at once and summoned Fouché at one o'clock in the morning. In the presence of Cambacérès and Lebrun, he made a terrible scene, threatening with disgrace and death the man who was so bold as to arrest a friend of the chief of state, as he came out of his room. The Minister seemed almost indifferent to all this noise. "There will be time," he said coldly, "to hang me in a few hours." In the early morning Carbon was arrested, and confessed that the royalists alone had prepared the infernal machine. All the important royalist chiefs were arrested. Fouché was master of the field. Napoleon was literally subjugated; he never forgot these events of Nivose, and Fouché sometimes reminded him of them.

Correspondence.

THE MAGAZINE OF AMERICAN HISTORY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The proposed reëstablishment of the *Magazine of American History* by Mr. William L. Stone and myself has been already noticed by the *Nation*, and I desire to add that, while the old subscribers have evinced their interest by sending me a considerable list of subscriptions, and various historical writers have promised to furnish contributions, it is yet necessary that a reasonable amount of capital should be obtained before reëstablishment can be made possible. About $5,000 will secure this, and firmly establish this old and valuable historical publication, with which Mrs. Martha J. Lamb was so long identified. Towards this amount, in itself so small when the object to be attained is so important to our literary community, I have received $500 from the Rev. Dr. Eugene A. Hoffman.

I wish to appeal to all your readers who are interested in our national history for the amount remaining to be raised. I shall be glad to furnish such with any further details they may desire.

Very truly yours, William Abbatt.

281 Fourth Ave., New York, July 24, 1901.

Notes.

At Winchester, the capital of King Alfred's kingdom, is to be held during the third week in September the international commemoration of his death a thousand years ago. There is to be, besides, a permanent memorial, consisting of a colossal statue (well under way) by Hamo Thornycroft, and possibly a Hall, to be used as an Educational Museum of Early English History. To complete the statue, some ten thousand dollars will be needed. Americans desiring to participate in this memorial are invited to send their subscriptions to Professor Bright of Johns Hopkins University, or to the Mayor of Winchester, Mr. Alfred Bowker.

The Shakspere Press, Westfield, Union County, N. J., announces the resumption on September 1 of *Shakespereana*, in quarterly issue. About November 1 it will have ready 'The Sonnets and Shakspere's Rival Poets,' with a reprint of Chapman's related poems, by Arthur Acheson.

Frederick A. Stokes Co. will have the American market for the Edinburgh Shakspere in ten folio volumes, edited by W. E. Henley. The issue will be in forty parts, and will contain ten "authentic" portraits. 360 of the 1,000 numbered sets are reserved for this country.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have nearly ready 'The Science of Penology,' by Henry M. Boles, M.A.

In October will appear, with E. P. Dutton & Co.'s imprint, 'A Wonderful Duchess,' being the biography of Anna Amelia, Duchess of Saxe-Weimar and Eisenach, compiled from the private papers in the Archives at Weimar by Frances Gerard.

'Falstaff and Equity: An Interpretation' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is the rather forced title of an ingenious and learned monograph by Charles E. Phelps. The subject is Falstaff's remark (I. Henry IV., act ii., sc. 2), "An the Prince and Poins be not two arrant cowards, *there's no Equity stirring*"—a line so obscure that even Malone, if we remember right, gave it up. Mr. Phelps is not only a lawyer, but a judge, and has made a special study of the law reports of the period to which the play belongs; he arrives at an interpretation of this allusion of Falstaff's which, to say the least, is plausible. It requires some imagination to transport one's self to a period when the mere mention of Equity, as a system at variance with the common law, would be enough to set an audience laughing; but undoubtedly such a day would have been just that in which this play was written. The major premises of Mr. Phelps's book may be said to be that any legal term, however neutral in itself, may come through circumstances to have a comical "content." Writers for the press employ the device continually, though they may never have analyzed the process. *Ad interim* and *aliunde* are two legal terms as technical as any, yet, in the time of Andrew Johnson, the first made us laugh, and in the time of the Electoral Commission the second.

It is not often that a lawbook runs through six editions in twenty years; the appearance of the seventh edition of the 'Law of Torts,' by Melville Madison Bigelow (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), is evidence of an extraordinary and merited success. Some additions and changes have been made, and the whole field of Tort is now covered, and the work for the first time completed. It is, we believe, the most compendious book, of any note, on the subject treated, the text being comprised in some 400 pages.

Among other lawbooks, we have received a treatise relative to 'Taxpayers' Actions to Redress Municipal Wrongs, under the Statutes of the State of New York,' by John C. Thomson (Albany: H. B. Parsons). The statute is now buried under a body of decisions which make this treatise a necessity to the practitioner.

A little 'Manual of School Hygiene,' by Prof. Edward W. Hope and Edgar A. Brown, in the 'Cambridge [Eng.] Series for Schools and Training Colleges' (New York: Macmillan), contains, among other fresh matter, a section, under "Care of the Eye," on "Faulty Conditions Imposed by the Printer." There is here some failure to grasp the typographical situation, as in the advice to make the dialogue the norm of the school-book page, the left-hand edge to be vertical as now, the right-hand "advantageously varied"—like the typewriter's. This would sacrifice taste, which is gratified by symmetry; but, of course, it is further open to the standing objection that a jagged edge would always be suggestive of dropped words or characters. Similarly, the authors would allow no division of words at the end of a line, either leaving a blank or tolerating uneven and gross spacing. But this would deprive the child of discipline in division by simple observation. What is said of glazed paper and of the forms and size of letters is sensible, and so is the remark that "the longer the lines, . . . the greater fatigue in reading a given number of words"—and, we believe, the greater difficulty in comprehending and in remembering. That is, visualizing is made harder.

Half a score of well-known German lyric poets, such as Von Liliencron, Bierbaum, Falke, Wedekind, etc., have jointly engaged in a novel kind of reform. To raise the performances at the varieties theatres to a higher artistic level, they have published in one small volume a collection of their lighter songs, 'Deutsche Chansons—Brettl-Lieder' (Berlin: Schuster & Loeffler); while one, not of their number, Ernst von Wolzogen, has undertaken the practical task of bringing them upon the boards (*Brettl*). "We imagine the *variété* of the future as a stage that shall claim to be, not a moral, but an æsthetic, institution," say the authors in their preface; and it must be admitted that many of their songs are not of a nature to elevate, at least not directly, the moral standard of the audience. Still, there is a chance that, through the removal of the coarsest features and the development of artistic taste, the moral sense may also ultimately be reached.

The *Current Encyclopædia*, bearing date July 1 and the imprint of the Modern Research Society (Chicago and New York), is the initial number of an illustrated monthly publication whose title explains its purpose. It becomes an annual cyclopædia when twelve parts are bound together, and meantime each successive part contains an index embracing the preceding indexes. This index is by no means "full," as the prospectus avers, for it is only to the rubrics and not to the contents; but it is convenient. Certain contemplated departments, such as Legislation and Art, are invisible in the present number; nor has the review of new books been begun. Some of the articles are signed, and three of the writers thus disclosed (one an associate editor) bear the brunt of the collaboration. A bibliography is frequently appended. Personal sketches naturally abound—of deceased public characters and prominent living ones, generally with portraits. The brief accounts of Minister Conger and Comptroller Dawes are not favorable specimens of monthly cyclopædic work. Australia, China, Cuba, Hawaii, the Philippines, the Supreme Court's Porto Rican decisions, the new East River bridge, Edison's new storage battery, a new clock-face, recent astronomy, the Pan-American Exposition, that at Glasgow, the Hall of Fame of New York University—these are some of the subjects treated, along with a financial review, etc., etc. The illustrations are mostly very good. Later numbers will develop the scheme more perfectly and show the strength of the staff.

The success of the *American Historical Review* in drawing out for publication Southern political correspondence is emphasized in the current (July) issue. Its Department of Documents consists wholly of letters of Dr. Samuel Cooper, 1825-1832 (which, though chiefly personal, are in line with what follows), and letters on the nullification movement in South Carolina in 1830-1834. These read like strayed archives of the Confederacy, so minute are they in details of military preparation for an armed struggle with the Federal Government. Has the date ever been fixed of the Southern, or perhaps we should write Southron, preparedness to fall back on secession in self-defence against assumed invasion of sectional rights? Hayne, who figures here as organizing his nullification militia, was ready in 1826 for an exit from the Union upon "any interference whatever" in the South's "domestic concerns." "To assail our institutions [even by moral reprobation of the act of slaveholding] is wantonly to invade our peace." And this outburst occurred in a speech on the Panama question.

The *Geographical Journal* for July opens with the annual address to the Royal Geographical Society by Sir C. R. Markham. His chief topic was the Antarctic expedition, whose "main objects are to determine, as far as is possible, the extent and nature of the south polar land, to ascertain the nature of its glaciation and the condition of the ice-cap, to observe the character of the underlying rocks, and to make a magnetic survey south of 40°." This includes, of course, an inquiry into the source of the enormous icebergs which encumber the antarctic sea in such vast numbers. Flat-topped, 150 to 200 feet high, they are sometimes one or two miles in length. The seven alternative routes by which the unknown area may be penetrated were described, and reference was made to the recent conference of the representatives of eight nations—"all of those bordering the North Sea and the Baltic with the exception of France"—to arrange for the joint economic study of those seas: "to devise means for ascertaining whether the supply of fish is declining, as is generally believed; what is the reason for such decline, if it is really a fact, and the best means of preventing or checking its progress." Dr. Robert Bell gives an account of the part which he took in an expedition sent out by the Dominion Government to make investigations as to the navigation of Hudson Strait. This involved a survey of the southern coast of Baffinland and an exploration into the interior. Baffinland is an island, the third largest in the world, on the west side of Baffin's Bay. It is a bleak, treeless country, about 1,000 miles in length by 200 to 500 broad, apparently of no great value, being composed of barren rocks partly covered with ice. A number of single reindeer were seen, and, in the interior, a few birds. The population in this southern part consists of about 170 Eskimo, who proved to be brave, industrious, provident, and honest. The males were fine specimens of manhood, their height being above the average of the human race.

The *Ethnike Agoge* of Athens publishes the statistics of visitors at the museum in Olympia, from 1888 to 1900, as reported by the Ephor. In these thirteen years, 9,725 foreigners, more than one-half of whom were from England and America, were attracted thither. Germany stands third in the list with 1,524, and France fourth with 1,444, while the Russians, Austrians, and Italians together made a contingent of only 1,000. There were 31,711 Greek visitors. There has been a steady increase in the annual attendance from 201 to about 1,200 in recent years, the greatest increase being shown in the American contingent from 28 in 1888 to 419 in 1900.

The annual report of the State Geologist of New Jersey for the year 1900 has two main portions of great practical interest. Mr. Lewis Woolman continues his unapproachable record of artesian wells and water-bearing strata, while Dr. Henry B. Kümmel reviews the Portland cement industry in connection with the State's natural deposits of limestone and cement rock, and the modes of manufacture. The growth of this industry has been very rapid and is far from having reached its height. The areas under discussion are mapped in detail by Dr. Kümmel, whose whole presentation is very clear and orderly.

'Annals of the Astrophysical Observatory of the Smithsonian Institution,' volume i., is devoted to an exhaustive account of S. P. Langley's bolometric researches, the result of the discovery, made in 1881 with the then recently invented bolometer, of solar heat in a hitherto unknown spectral region now called the "lower infra-red spectrum." Of the solar radiations which reach the earth's surface, about three-fourths are invisible. The visible portion of the spectrum has been explored and mapped with great minuteness. The object of the investigation now published is to give for the first time the principal details of the important invisible portion lying beyond the red. This region is shown to be the seat of the principal telluric absorptions of the solar energy. There seems to be evidence that the absorption of the earth's atmosphere is directly associated with seasonal changes, and it is thought that some progress has been made towards foretelling, by means of bolometric observations, the remoter changes of the weather. Thus the study of solar energy may become, not simply an interesting scientific pursuit, but one of material usefulness. The volume is illustrated by over thirty plates.

In discussing, some weeks ago, the relation between yellow fever and the mosquito, we said: "With the *culex* subdued, the fever will be controlled." The vital statistics of Havana for June confirm this. Yellow fever held over from 1900 as usual, and there were 31 cases with 12 deaths in January and February. Upon the publication of the conclusions of the Reed Commission, Gen. Wood directed that every effort should be made to carry out disinfection along those lines, and on February 16 the order prescribing the new method was issued. No fresh case has occurred since May 7, and no death since March 16, notwithstanding that within the last three months three cases were introduced separately from without. Major Gorgas, the sanitary officer, appears justified in believing that the various foci were disinfected one after the other by killing off the contaminated mosquitoes, and in the opinion that "by pursuing present methods not only can Havana be rid of yellow fever, but that its spread may be prevented when introduced from the outside." Certainly the existing condition of the city is far and away the best that it has enjoyed.

—The opening article in the *Century* for August is on "Midsummer in New York," by Mrs. Schuyler Van Rensselaer. It undertakes to make out a case for remaining in New York during the summer, a thesis which, no matter how ably handled, revolts the human understanding. An article on why New York is unfit for human habitation in July would be more to the point. Incidentally, Mrs. Van Rensselaer visits the Barge Office, and discusses the newly landed immigrant and the proper way to treat him. She says that at the Barge Office an ethnologist might feel happy, but how about "a philanthropist or a patriot"? She admits that there is a good deal of "fine human stuff" to be seen at the Barge Office, but, in the mass, "what wooden, bovine, hawk-like, passionate,

crafty, timid, or neurotic faces!" "The one trait" which these unfortunates "have in common" is "an ignorance so deep that a New Yorker can hardly fathom it." Yet this is the material "out of which we must make New Yorkers, Americans." Such a spectacle would render most people hopeless, but not so Mrs. Van Rensselaer, who is an optimist. These animals all become noble Americans in time, through the agency of sympathy, and mutual helpfulness, and kindergartens, and "the method of fraternal kindness" which leads us to aid the arriving animal to humanize himself. This is all rather vague, but the fact is that sociological philanthropy is apt to be rather vague. "The Paris Commune, Thirty Years After," by William Trant and Archibald Forbes, is a symposium which discusses the question as to how far *Paris brûté* was the work of *pétroleur* and *pétroleuse*. Mr. Trant maintains, and the weight of evidence seems to be in his favor, that the whole story of the organized attempt to use petroleum to fire the city was a myth. People were undoubtedly killed or found dead who were taken for petroleum incendiaries, and there may have been solitary petroleum incendiaries, but "there was no intention or attempt, organized by the Commune or any one else, to destroy Paris, and the *pétroleur* and *pétroleuse* had no existence in fact, but were the offspring of the delirium of the moment." The matter might be worth looking into further, in connection with other historical conflagrations.

—The tract surveyed in the July section of the Oxford English Dictionary (H. Frowde) extends from Jew to Kairine, and now another section will bring the end of volume v., with volume vi. well under way. The verb "to jew" is traced no further back than Barham in 1845, and Irving used it in 1847. "Jiffy" remounts to Baron Munchausen in 1785, his phrase being "in six jiffies"; but the derivation of the word is still to seek. Equally obscure is that of "jiggered," which Marryat fathers in the 'Dog-Fiend' ("I'm jiggered"), 1837. "Jingo" is an old word, here of 1670, as a conjurer's summons, "Hey [or High] Jingo!"—as opposed to the fugitive "Presto!" The "par Dieu!" of Rabelais is rendered by Motteux in 1694 "by Jingo," and this enduring expression finally in 1879 begot our political noun "Jingo" out of Mr. G. W. Hunt's music-hall chorus—"We don't want to fight, yet by Jingo! if we do," etc., of 1878. "High jinks" goes back to the beginning of the 18th century. The Western gift to the East, the two-wheeled carriage named by the recipients "jin-riki-sha," or man-power vehicle, was, says one of Dr. Murray's citations, "invented by a missionary, W. Goble, about 1870." On the other hand, Westerners adapted names for "joss" and "junk," neither of these words being Chinese. "Jonathan" for the United States is found in English use in 1816, and four years later Sydney Smith made the still wholesome remark, "We can inform Jonathan what are the inevitable consequences of being too fond of glory: Taxes upon every article which enters into the mouth." Our "Jim-Crow" car for the victims of color prejudice is here encountered only in English mention (1900) of the prevailing Southern practice; but the name came into being at the North in 1841, as may readily be found, to our shame.

—An Americanism likely to escape detection by the elect is the prefixing of "just" (=exactly) to a demonstrative in such phrases as "just this," "just what," "just how." It is certainly much older than 1884, the date of Dr. Murray's first quotation. The American use of "judge," as compared with the much more restricted and specialized English use, is among the valuable historical illustrations of this section. Another is the exemplification of the origin of "jury," name and thing. Curious, as here unfolded, is the development of "jubilee," with the interlacing of the shouting Latin words "jubilum" and "jubilare" and the Old Testament word, whose foundation was the ram's horn, not for the purpose of mere noise-making, but of proclaiming the peculiar Jewish festival of rest and restitution. To the Latin "juncus," a rush or reed, we owe ultimately our "junket," first a rush basket, then cream-cheese served or made in such a basket, then a feast and a picnic. The invention of "joyance" is ascribed to Spenser, but the novelty took indifferently till Coleridge and Southey caught it up, when it became a favorite with the nineteenth century. "July" was stressed in Johnson's time on the penult. "Judgement" (the spelling preferred by Dr. Murray) appears to have obtained firmly to the middle of the seventeenth century, when "judgment" came in. Exceptions as shown are rare on either side of the line. Under the letter K, interesting is the account of its rôle in English. The politics of the hour are connected with the use of "Kaffirs" on the English Stock Exchange to denote South African mine shares in 1889.

—Some years ago the American Philosophical Society of Philadelphia offered a prize of two thousand dollars for the best essay on "The Development of Law as Illustrated by the Decisions Relating to the Police Power of the State." The prize was carried off by W. G. Hastings of Wilber, Nebraska, and is now reprinted by him in a volume of 196 pages (Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society, vol. xxxix, No. 163). The essay deserves attention as the first serious attempt to discuss the "Police Power"—a doctrine developed by the American courts within the last fifty years—in a philosophical manner. The subject, though of the utmost importance, is an abstruse and difficult one, and, if we understand Mr. Hastings aright, no man has yet discovered the limits of the police power, because it has, in the nature of things, no limits, being nothing less than the invocation through the judiciary (in a State governed by a written Constitution) of the ultimate power of the State to deal with contract, property, and the individual in such way as it deems necessary for the public good. It is a fiction unnecessary in a State in which there are no written Constitutional limitations, because it is used only to evade some apparently exclusive limitations or restrictions. Apparently Mr. Hastings, like so many other lawyers, thinks the views often expressed in these columns about the Granger cases and their sequelæ are more or less wrong. This line of decisions in the Federal courts is, to our mind, however, admirably adapted to illustrate his main thesis, that the police power is a fiction. Here we have, first, decisions that the Legislatures may control rates charged by elevators, railroads, etc., followed by other decisions that they may fix them only within reasonable limits, these to be determined by ordinary judicial methods. The true historical explanation of this is that a wave of socialistic sentiment swept the Supreme Court into an invocation of the Police Power to permit assaults on property, while the danger to property brought about by the demon it had invoked, drove it subsequently into limitations of the power sufficient to make it harmless. The essay is a valuable contribution to the literature of the subject.

—Prof. Williston Walker of the Hartford Theological Seminary delivered in 1898 and 1899 two courses of lectures at Andover which are now published by Silver, Burdett & Co., Boston, under the title, 'Ten New England Leaders.' The ten are William Bradford, John Cotton, Richard Mather, John Eliot, Increase Mather, Jonathan Edwards, Charles Chauncy, Samuel Hopkins, Leonard Woods, Leonard Bacon. Prof. Walker's 'History of the Congregational Churches in America' and his 'Creeds and Platforms' were books that must have made the writing of these sketches comparatively easy. Each separate figure stands out the more clearly because of this background of careful study. The salient points of his characters are seized with rare discrimination, and a due proportion is observed in relating them to each other and to the general course of New England theology. Bradford's and Eliot's courteous treatment of the Jesuit Missionary Gabriel Druillettes is perhaps exaggerated by the omission of the fact that he came as an ambassador seeking a reciprocity of trade between Canada and the New England settlements. Cotton's shiftiness with regard to Mrs. Hutchison is too graciously condoned, while in the affair of Roger Williams it is made plain that all the bigotry was not on Cotton's side. The good people of Dorchester, Mass., will be grieved by Professor Walker's judgment that their "First Church," which Richard Mather instituted, was, strictly speaking, the second, the first having gone bodily to Windsor, Conn. Eliot's Indian labors are not too highly appreciated. Particularly interesting is the fight which Increase Mather made with the liberalism of his day, one of its crimes being the "dumb reading" of the Scriptures in the churches—that is, without explanation. The sketch of Jonathan Edwards is, of course, the most important, and it is admirably done. So is that of Charles Chauncy, the heretic of Professor Walker's ten, the chief opponent of the Great Awakening. But in those times men found themselves heretics in the very act of trying to be orthodox—Hopkins, for example, whose anti-slavery career proved him willing to be damned for his humanity to man as well as for the glory of God. Like Edwards and Ezra Stiles, he began as a slave-owner, Stiles purchasing a slave in the West Indies for a hogshead of New England rum. The two Leonards—Woods and Bacon—were able ecclesiastics rather than profound theologians. The former was efficient in healing the schism of Old Calvinism and Hopkinsianism, the latter in minimizing the differences of Taylor and Bushnell from the received theology. It is interesting to find Bacon going to school with John Brown in Hudson, Ohio. The popular conception was much at fault if Bacon's disposition was in general irenical. The abolitionists did not so conceive when he was issuing

papal interdicts against them of one kind or another. It would seem that Dr. Bacon was not sufficiently remote to be treated with the impartiality meted out to the nine earlier leaders.

—'The Bolivian Andes,' by Sir W. M. Conway (Harpers), is a "record of climbing and exploration in the Cordillera Real in the years 1898 and 1900." Bolivia still offers strong inducements to the mountaineer and to the geographer, for, though the region around the mines is well known, the back country has been little travelled. Sir Martin Conway's *entourage* in the Andes was not nearly so large as that which he had when Pioneer Peak was climbed, and his South American volume is also less ambitious than his account of mountaineering in the Himalayas. Mr. Whymper, when he went to Ecuador, took with him two guides from Val Tournanche, and Sir Martin Conway was attended in Bolivia by two natives of the same Alpine village—Antoine Maquignaz (who belongs to one of the most celebrated families of guides), and Louis Pellissier, a faithful and competent second man. But the Aymara Indians who were impressed for porters were a poor substitute for the Gurkhas. At the same time we must confess that we have found the smallness of the author's retinue no obstacle to our enjoyment of his adventures. The element of pure sport becomes greater when three men go out alone to attack a new and important peak. When the result of independent climbing is not a tragedy, like Mummery's death on Nanga Parbat, the story is more attractive than when the leader is followed by a caravan of guides, porters, and artists. In Bolivia, too, Sir Martin Conway had his vicissitudes, and did not subdue every mountain which he attempted. His chief triumph was the ascent of Illimani, 21,200 feet, and his chief defeat was encountered a little below the top of a still higher summit, Ancohuma. Here he was beaten by fresh and powdery snow, not by the inevitable difficulties of the mountain. When it came to a choice of taking a diagonal course across a steep slope where the chances were in favor of starting an avalanche, and beating a retreat which meant failure, Sir Martin Conway obeyed the voice of conscience. "I leave, therefore, not the highest point, but one of the finest and most historic peaks of the Andes untrodden. We overcame all its permanent difficulties and found the right way up, but a temporary impediment stopped us from actually standing on the top." Besides climbing, the author saw several of the mines, and learned something of the rubber industry. He thinks that Bolivia holds out excellent business prospects. There are interesting notices of the Indians, and an appendix describes the rocks, minerals, fossils, and flora collected. We state with some regret that the illustrations of this volume are not what one expects to get in a modern book on mountaineering. Instead of being photogravures, they are half-tone reproductions of rather poor quality.

—'Our Naval Heroes' (London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.) is not a volume of patriotic effusion, but a series of short biographical sketches, extending from the reign of Edward III. to the middle of the nineteenth century. It recalls very strongly a book which was edited two years ago by Mr. Spenser Wilkinson, entitled 'From Cromwell to Wellington.' Mr. Marindin now does for the British navy what Mr. Wilkinson then did for the army. Both books share the distinction of being brought out under distinguished patronage. Lord Roberts contributed an excellent introduction to Mr. Wilkinson's volume, and Lord Charles Beresford has been enlisted for a similar task by Mr. Marindin, the editor of 'Our Naval Heroes.' While Lord Beresford's pages are not so seriously considered as were those of Lord Roberts, they are marked by his robustness of spirit, and add an interesting feature to the collection. Carrying the comparison a step further, we may say that in both cases the essays are written by different contributors, and that only the most representative soldiers and sailors have been selected. In this book the list has been cut down to twenty names, and accordingly few seamen of the second class appear. Drake and Blake, Vernon, Anson, Hawke, and the other great admirals of the eighteenth century until Nelson, are the heroes selected. After Nelson (and his contemporaries like Troubridge and Hood) no one is taken except Sir T. Byam Martin. The articles of 'From Cromwell to Wellington' were largely written by Staff College officers and soldiers in active service. In 'Our Naval Heroes,' too, some of the writers are qualified by professional knowledge, but the chief criterion seems to be descent from the subject of the sketch. While this principle has sometimes yielded good results, the average quality of the articles has not been improved by departure from the rule which Mr. Wilkinson observed.

THE CONFEDERATE FINANCES.

The Confederate States of America, 1861-1865: A Financial and Industrial History of the South during the Civil War. By John Christopher Schwab, Professor of Political Economy in Yale University. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901. Pp. 332.

Professor Schwab seems to have taken up originally the task of investigating the finances of the Confederate States, and to have been drawn irresistibly into the wider field of the economic and social condition of the South during the war. It could hardly have been otherwise. Closely linked with the finances of the central government were those of the States and municipalities. Then followed the operations of banks, railroads, and private corporations, all dovetailed with the public ones. Finally, the industries and morals of the people were affected more or less by the irredeemable currency that served as the medium of exchange during the period, and could not be left out of the account. Hence the title of the book is properly the Confederate States of America, as the author has it, rather than the Confederate Finances. With military operations he does not concern himself except as they reflect upon financial conditions from time to time.

We shall restrict ourselves for the most part to the Confederate finances, because this subject is susceptible of treatment within moderate limits, and because everything else pivoted on it; also because it is the subject about which least is known either North or South. While the finances of the Union have been subjected to very careful examination by Adams, Mitchell, Bolles, and others, those of the Confederacy have been scarcely glanced at. Capers's 'Life of Memminger' is a meritorious work in biography, but it does not take the place of a history of the Confederate Treasury.

The Confederacy first borrowed $15,000,000 at 8 per cent. interest for ten years. This was substantially paid in gold, or gold value, during the year 1861, and was expended for supplies abroad. Confederate Treasury notes to the amount of $2,000,000 were issued at the same time. These bore interest at the rate of 3.65 per cent., and none of them were of denominations smaller than $50. They were not intended to be used as currency. An export duty of ⅛ cent per pound on cotton was enacted, and this was regarded as the sheet anchor of the Confederate financial system; but, by reason of the blockade, it yielded next to nothing. Later in the same year, May 16, the Confederate Congress authorized the issue of $20,000,000 of non-interest-bearing Treasury notes of denominations of $5 and $10, redeemable in specie in two years. These were intended to circulate as money. The notes were fundable into 8 per cent. bonds. They became at once the currency of the Confederacy. It was supposed that the funding clause would lift them above par, but, being themselves the unit of value, they kept the bonds down to their own level. The bonds could not rise higher than their source.

The 8 per cent. bonds were authorized to the amount of $150,000,000, and it was sought to make them, in part, a produce loan. Cotton, corn, flour, pork, beef, and tobacco would be taken in exchange for them, and agents were appointed to solicit subscriptions among the planters. Nine-tenths of all the subscriptions were in cotton. The reason why cotton was offered so profusely was that the Confederate Treasury was the only market open to the planter; his customary market was cut off by the blockade. Meanwhile he had his own obligations to meet, and these could not be satisfied with 8 per cent. bonds any more than with the cotton itself. There was an outcry in all quarters for relief for the planters. Some persons advocated an issue of Treasury notes with which to buy all the cotton offered for sale. Others proposed a loan of such notes on the cotton as security. Either of these plans, it was seen, would wreck the Confederate finances at the start. So it turned out that cotton, instead of being King in the great emergency of the South, was a helpless, hydrocephalic infant. The Confederate Congress did nothing for the planters, but some of the separate Legislatures voted them Treasury notes of their own State issues on the security of cotton, which was left in the hands of the planters themselves. The State notes were "based" on this cotton.

At the end of 1861 there were $105,000,000 of Confederate Treasury notes outstanding, and the premium on gold was 15 to 20 per cent.—the record is not exact. The notes were never made legal tender. The question of making them such was frequently under debate in Congress, but was always decided in the negative. The arguments pro and con were the same as those used at Washington, where a contrary decision was reached. The argument of greatest force at Richmond was the constitutional one. No such power had been granted, therefore it did not exist. The Southern men had been born and trained as strict constructionists. The ideas they had imbibed in their youth

clung to them. It was argued strongly, also, that a legal-tender clause would add nothing to the value of the notes, and so it turned out. True, the Confederate notes declined farther and faster than the greenbacks, but that was because their volume was greater, while their field of circulation was smaller, and because the South was blockaded and cut off from the world's commerce. Although the Confederate Congress did not, and Southern State Legislatures could not, make the notes legal tender, the latter bodies, or some of them, deprived creditors of the remedies they had previously enjoyed for collecting their dues in the courts of law. These devices are minutely examined and suitably reproved in the work before us.

On August 19, 1861, the Confederate Congress authorized an issue of $100,000,000 of Treasury notes of denominations of $5 and upwards. It was the opinion of the Southern bankers, who were then holding a convention at Richmond, that this might be safely done, but the limit was raised to $150,000,000 before the end of the year. The notes were redeemable "six months after the ratification of a treaty of peace between the Confederate States and the United States." These were convertible into bonds drawing 8 per cent. interest, or into call certificates drawing 6 per cent., the latter being reconvertible into notes at the holder's option.

Internal taxation was not resorted to by the Confederacy in the first year of the war except by a direct tax on the States, which was paid mostly by issuing State notes. The customs yielded next to nothing, the ports being blockaded. It was Secretary Memminger's opinion at the outset that the war should be carried on by loans, with just sufficient taxation to pay interest. In this he was at one with Secretary Chase, who, however, made a small allowance in addition for a sinking fund. The Confederate Congress did not go so far in the way of taxation as Secretary Memminger advised. It preferred to rely on bond issues and note issues altogether. It accordingly passed an act in April, 1862, for $165,000,000 of 8 per cent. bonds and $50,000,000 of new notes. It also issued an attractive kind of note of the denomination of $100, bearing interest at the rate of 7.30 per cent., receivable for taxes. It was supposed that these would be held for investment, but they were soon found to be in circulation. Prices of commodities were rising so rapidly that the notes were worth more in trade than in one's strong-box. Only 9 per cent. of the public expenses was met with bonds, 85 per cent. with notes, and 6 per cent. with taxes, donations, and the confiscation of Federal property.

As early as September, 1862, every barrier to note issues was thrown down by the passage of an act authorizing issues limited only by the appropriations of Congress. This system avoided present trouble and saved some bookkeeping, but it added to the anxieties of the Secretary of the Treasury, who knew that it was ruinous in the long run. Military success could alone prevent the Confederacy from falling a victim to financial madness. Produce loans were resorted to as a partial relief from currency inflation, but currency inflation had now got such a start that it frustrated the benefits of the produce loan by the advance in prices which it caused. Still, the Government obtained the ownership of 430,000 bales of cotton during the war, and was able to ship 19,000 bales to Europe by blockade-runners. In December, 1862, the Treasury notes outstanding, including State issues, reached $500,000,000, and gold was worth three for one.

The Erlanger loan is the next incident. The idea was conceived of making cotton the basis of a loan abroad. After various negotiations the scheme was undertaken by the house of Erlanger & Co. of Paris. It was for £3,000,000 sterling, and was secured by cotton in the Confederate States at 6d. per pound. Erlanger & Co. underwrote the loan at 77 and were allowed a commission of 5 per cent. Cotton was then selling at 21d. per pound in England. The payments were to be made in monthly instalments, the first one being 5 per cent. The subscription was opened March 21, 1863, at the issue price of 90, and was said to have been over-subscribed five times in England alone. That the subscriptions were mostly speculative was inferred from the fact that, after going up to 95, the price fell below 90 within one month, and there was danger that the subscribers would forfeit the 5 per cent. paid in rather than complete their subscriptions. With the sanction of J. M. Mason, the Confederate envoy to England, Erlanger & Co. began to buy the bonds with the money of the Confederacy, in order to sustain the price. About $6,000,000 was squandered in this way, and the market price was held at or near 90 till the news of Gettysburg and Vicksburg reached Europe, when it fell to 65, and after the battle of Chattanooga to 37. What with brokers' commissions, interest on bonds, repurchases to sustain the market, and other expenses, the net amount realized on the $15,000,000 of bonds was only $6,500,000; but this was clear gain to the Confederacy, as the principal was never paid. It was a gamble between Erlanger and the purchasers of the bonds, in which the former presumably won the stakes. The Confederate cruisers were paid for out of the net amount received by the Confederacy.

At the beginning of 1863 Mr. Memminger addressed himself to the task of getting his Treasury notes funded into bonds. The notes were, by the terms of their issue, fundable into 8 per cent. bonds. An act was passed to hasten the process. It provided that notes not so funded by April, 1863, should be funded only in 7 per cents. This was akin to repudiation, but we of the North had perhaps best not challenge comparison at this point. Our greenbacks, by the terms of issue, were fundable into 6 per cents, but were deprived of the funding privilege altogether a year and a half later. As funding was not promoted by an act of bad faith, Secretary Memminger next proposed compulsion. He recommended that a bill be passed providing that notes not funded before August 1, 1863, should cease to be currency and cease to be fundable. The Confederate Congress passed a bill with elaborate provisions to carry this plan into effect. It contained also provisions for issuing new notes to the amount of $50,000,000 per month. This attempt to brand the old notes while issuing new ones threw the currency into worse disorders than before. The Richmond banks refused to receive the old notes as deposits, and the Virginia Legislature ordered that they should not be received for State taxes. The newspapers denounced the act of Congress as repudiation. The noteholders, seeing that the old notes were likely to become worthless, now hastened to fund them, and actually turned in $125,000,000 in three months of 1863, but in these three months $150,000,000 of new notes had been issued. The total amount outstanding on the 1st of January, 1864, was upwards of $700,000,000, and gold was 20 for 1. Only $5,000,000 was raised during the year by taxation. The total debt of the Confederacy was now $1,221,000,000.

In the year 1863 an abortive scheme was proposed for an issue of Confederate bonds to be guaranteed by the States separately. There were almost as many varieties of guarantee as there were States. It is interesting to note that Mississippi attached no conditions to her endorsement. North Carolina took the sane view that, being a member of the Confederacy, she was already bound for its debts, and therefore a second endorsement was not necessary. Texas passed a naïve resolution that if she should ever withdraw from the Confederacy, she would pay her share of its debts. The scheme never matured. Various schemes of repudiation were now on foot, in Congress, in the State Legislatures, in the press, in the Secretary's report, and in President Davis's messages. They took shape eventually in a bill (passed February 17, 1864), providing that all outstanding notes smaller than $5 should be fundable and receivable at par till the first of July, 1864, and thereafter be taxed 33 1-3 per cent. of their face value, and on the first of January, 1865, be taxed 100 per cent.—that is, be wholly repudiated. Notes of denominations between $5 and $100 were to be treated in the same way except that the dates were different. Notes of $100 and upwards not funded before the first of April were to be taxed 33 1-3 per cent. at that date, and 10 per cent. per month till funded. Simultaneously another issue of notes was authorized (a sort of "new tenor"), for which the old notes except those of $100 and upwards could be exchanged at the rate of $3 old for $2 new; $426,000,000 were so exchanged. The currency had now become unmanageable. The $100 notes continued to circulate after they had been outlawed. There was active funding for some months after the passage of this bill, and its effect was shown in a decline of the gold premium from $23 to $17 for one; but when the new notes came out, it rose again to $23 in September, and reached $40 before the end of the year. The volume of currency was now fully $1,000,000,000. The old notes and the new ones "circulated side by side, were equally discredited, and continued to depreciate together." They passed in trade at the same rates. The credit of the Confederate Government was now wrecked, and Mr. Memminger recognized the fact by resigning his office in midsummer, 1864.

He was succeeded by George A. Trenholm of Charleston. The latter was not slow to perceive that compulsory funding had been a tremendous mistake. "Apprehensions of ultimate repudiation," he wrote to Gov. Bonham, "crept like an all-pervading poison into the minds of the people, and greatly circumscribed and diminished the purchasing power of the notes." In January, 1865, gold was $53 for one. Secretary Trenholm proposed to reverse the policy of compulsory funding, *i. e.*, to discontinue taxing the old notes, in order to save the Government's credit. It was too late. A bill to carry Mr. Trenholm's plan into effect was passed by

the House, but failed in the Senate. There was nothing to do now but to make fresh issues of notes, although the previous law for this purpose contained a pledge that that should be the last. In March, 1865, a bill for $80,000,000 of "new tenor" was passed over the President's veto. There was some talk about heavier taxes on exports and imports, although there were none to be taxed. The last scheme was for a specie loan of $3,000,000, failing which there was to be confiscation of 25 per cent. of the specie in the Confederacy. The Richmond banks, which were most exposed to the application of force, advanced $300,000, and almost immediately thereafter the Confederacy collapsed. The question how the Government expenses were met after the compulsory funding act was put in operation in the spring of 1864, is answered tentatively by the supposition that old notes sent in to be exchanged for new ones were reissued, although they should have been cancelled. "Moreover," says Prof. Schwab, "the evidence is conclusive that the Government expenses during the last year of the war were chiefly met by creating a huge floating debt, represented, for instance, by large arrears, $400,000,000 to $500,000,000 in the War Department, and by accumulated unpaid warrants on the Treasury."

Every blunder that it was possible to commit in national finance was committed by the Confederacy, and on a gigantic scale. The initial one was the failure to tax. The idea that taxation to pay ordinary expenses and interest on loans would be sufficient for the emergency of a war was held in both Washington and Richmond at the beginning, but the North recovered sanity in time, and eventually enacted taxes nearly half sufficient to pay the war expenses without loans. The next blunder in Confederate finance was that of paying interest on loans in irredeemable paper. Some of our Northern men wanted to do so. Both Thaddeus Stevens, the leader of the House, and Elbridge G. Spaulding, the "father of the greenbacks," were in this category, but the country was saved from that abyss. The third and fatal folly of the Confederacy was the compulsory funding act. No casuistry could disguise this step. It was repudiation, and it brought its own speedy punishment. If military events had not brought the Confederacy to an end in April, 1865, it must have collapsed financially about that time. In other words, the power to supply the army in the field with food, clothing, arms, and ammunition could not have continued much longer. The stage of impressment had already been reached, as it was reached near the end of the Revolutionary war. This was a resource which, as Washington foretold, could not last long. The blockade of the Confederacy, of course, intensified its financial difficulties. Secretary Memminger attributed his failure to it. Indeed, the Confederacy might have survived the errors of its Treasury Department if it had had free communication with Europe; the war might have had a different ending.

The separate State finances are of importance in connection with those of the Confederacy, as throwing light on the course of a paper currency unregulated by redemption in specie and unrestrained by anything except the whims of Legislatures. The "wants of trade" in respect of money are never so imperious as when governments are issuing irredeemable notes. Prices of commodities, both North and South, advanced faster than the price of gold. This was because dealers made an extra charge for goods, by way of insurance against fluctuations. The advance of prices absorbed the new currency and created an abnormal demand for more. This has been the experience of all countries which have had recourse to such paper. In the South the appetite was imparted to the State governments, to cities and counties, to banks, to railroad and other corporations, and finally the right of issue was assumed by private persons, such as tobacconists, grocers, barbers, and milk dealers, who issued "shin-plasters" which they gave out as change in the ordinary course of trade and promised to redeem in goods or services. Alabama began with an issue of $1,000,000 of State notes as early as February, 1861, and the amount was increased later to $3,500,000. These were receivable for State taxes. Georgia issued $18,000,000 of State notes redeemable in Confederate notes. Of course, these were in effect an addition of that sum to the Confederate currency. Mississippi made liberal issues to relieve the distressed cotton-planters. All the States east of the Mississippi River issued notes. The city of Richmond issued scrip in denominations from 25 cents to $2. Charleston, Pensacola, Augusta, and other cities followed suit. Georgia granted "banking privileges," which meant the right to issue notes, to two railroad companies. Factories, turnpike companies, insurance companies, and others assumed this right either with or without legislative authority. In short, the ideal of the Greenbackers was fully realized in Secessia before any Greenback party existed in the United States. Money was as nearly equal to the wants of trade as the printing-press could make it. The State Legislatures at last attempted to prevent the circulation of personal and corporate notes, but the evil had grown beyond their reach. Virginia passed three acts for this purpose, but they could not be enforced. People considered these private notes as good as the public ones (as they were), and so continued to accept them. The banks issued their own notes freely, since they were not obliged to redeem them, suspension having been legalized in all the States. South Carolina, in her bank restriction act, prohibited the payment of dividends in specie.

The remainder of Prof. Schwab's work treats of the Southern banks, of the prices of commodities, of speculation and trade during the war, of Southern industries, and of the military despotism of the Confederate Government. These chapters are much more attractive to the general reader than the financial history. As regards the Confederate finances proper, Professor Schwab has left very little for any future gleaner in the same field. All available sources of information seem to have been searched. The Confederate archives and the State legislative records, the newspapers of the period, and the biographical and historical matter now in print, from which side lights are cast upon the Ways and Means of the Confederacy, have been laid under contribution, and the whole has been subjected to the analysis of a trained economist. Prof. Schwab does not fail to render his tribute to the tremendous energy put forth by the South during the war. "The Southern cause," he says, "evoked as much devoted loyalty as has been put forth by any cause in history; and that cause was supported at a cost greater than in any similar conflict. The Southerner's sacrifices far exceeded those of the Revolutionary patriots."

That the author wins a high rank in both economical and historical writing, will, we think, be the verdict of all persons competent to pass judgment on a treatise of this kind. Moreover, the work needed to be done. It is remarkably free from errors, but we note one on page 128, where it is said that "on November 20 and 21, 1860, the Virginia banks suspended *in company with the New York banks.*" This is surely a slip of the pen. There was no bank suspension in New York at the date mentioned, but there was a severe commercial crisis following the announcement of Mr. Lincoln's election to the Presidency.

BERKELEY'S WORKS.

The Works of George Berkeley, D.D., Formerly Bishop of Cloyne; including his Posthumous Works. With Prefaces, Annotations, Appendices, and an Account of his Life. By Alexander Campbell Fraser. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1901. 4 vols., 8vo, pp. xc. + 527; vi. + 415; vi. + 412; viii. + 611.

It was a rare event, and truly astonishing, that a man without anything like a transcendent intellectual power should make a decided impression upon the philosophical thought of every country in Europe, such as Mr. Fraser did make by his former edition of Berkeley's works, which appeared in 1871. Berkeley was, there is no need to say, already very celebrated the world over; and in English-speaking countries no young metaphysician failed to read his 'Principles of Human Knowledge' or to talk about his theory of vision. His 'Theory of Vision, Vindicated and Explained,' had reached its second edition in 1860, only one hundred and twenty-seven years after its first publication; but this second edition, a very pretty one, too, had been little read. In Germany, identically the same theory—dressed in modern conceptions, as no intelligent modern reader would fail to dress it for himself—was attributed to Helmholtz, whose real services in the matter were analogous to those of Messrs. Harper & Bros. in 'Harper's Latin Dictionary.' The compartment of the brain in which men stored what little they fancied they knew of Berkeley was their cabinet of bibelots. Fraser's publication, which was not merely an edition, but an exposition by a student burning with the conviction of the present appositeness of Berkeley's method, was a veritable event in the history of European thought. The present edition is not a revision of that other, but quite a new one, and, considered simply as an edition of Berkeley's works, distinctly a better one. Dr. Fraser is now in the eighties, and so in condition to expound the 'Siris,' which breathes all the wisdom of a philosophical and learned old age, with greater insight than he could possess thirty years ago. It ought now to be a happiness to him to find that the generation which has derived from him an impulse into Berkeleyan studies has at last quite gone

beyond him in the understanding of Berkeley, in perception of his errors, and in recognition of his effective eminence in philosophy.

Berkeley is, in truth, far better entitled to be considered the father of all modern philosophy than is Kant. It was he, not Kant, who first produced an *Erkenntnisstheorie*, or "principles of human knowledge," which was for the most part correct in its positive assertions. It was he, more than any other single philosopher, who should be regarded as the author of that method of modern "pragmatism"—*i. e.*, the definition, or interpretation, of conceptions by their issues—which equally distinguished the thought of Kant, but which neither philosopher grasped clearly enough to formulate it in general terms. With two exceptions, we can think of no great factor of Kant's method of attacking a question which is not more or less emphasized in Berkeley's. One of these two is the doctrine that existence is not a form to be conceived, but a compulsive force to be experienced (which is prominent in Kant's refutations of Berkeley and of the ontological proof that there is a God; and indeed everywhere). This was of British origin: it is the doctrine of Scotus. Indeed, in Kant's thought, generally, there is hardly anything but his architectonic method that is not more in the line of English tradition and development than it is in the German line. Even where he appears least English, he is following Cudworth. There was, undoubtedly, the Leibnizian influence; but, apart from its dogmaticalness and its unclearness, that is not very German, either. One of the greatest weaknesses of Berkeley is shared by Kant in a lesser degree. We mean his Ockhamism, or refusal to acknowledge any being *in futuro*, or any mode of being whatever except that of individual existence. Even the Ockhamist Stuart Mill defines matter as a "permanent possibility" of sensation; but, for the more consistent Ockhamist, Berkeley, possibility is absolute nonentity: material objects must, when men have them not in view, be all along actually present to the Divine mind, or they would collapse into utter nothingness.

Berkeley's importance in psychology is best exhibited by setting down a few dates. It must be borne in mind that the association of ideas had never been lost sight of by students of Aristotle. Thus, the younger Scaliger reports that his father used often to say that the thing he most ardently wished to understand better was the causes of "reminiscence." Now, reminiscence was nothing but the Aristotelian name for the action of the association of ideas. Here is a little chronological table which exhibits in a nutshell more than we could find space otherwise to set down:

1661. Glanville in his 'Vanity of Dogmatizing,' sketched in a word or two what subsequently became Berkeley's theory of vision.

1687. Locke's 'Essay concerning Humane Understanding.'

1688. The 'Entretiens sur la Métaphysique et sur la Religion' of Malebranche, which somewhat develops Glanville's idea.

1709. Berkeley's 'Essay towards a New Theory of Vision.'

1710. Berkeley's 'Principles of Human Knowledge.'

The 'Théodicée' of Leibniz.

1713. Arthur Collier's 'Clavis Universalis,' which was a quite independent development of the same ideas as those of Berkeley's Principles.

1731. Gay's 'Dissertation on the Fundamental Principles of Virtue.' This first put forward the principle of association as the one great law of all mental action, and is, therefore, one of the most epoch-making of works. Yet Gay does not appear in the 'Dictionary of National Biography' nor in Allibone nor in the supplement. His first name is unknown to us. Hartley (who calls him the Rev. Mr. Gay, and tells us that he wrote this anonymous 'Dissertation'), confesses that he had been put upon his line of thought by him. He published another little book on the subject in 1747, two years before Hartley's 'Observations on Man,' but probably after Hartley's 'Conjectural Quædam,' the date of which we do not know.

1732. Wolff's 'Psychologia Empirica.'

1739. Hume's 'Treatise on Human Nature' (first two parts). Hume, who was directly influenced by Berkeley, first clearly distinguishes between association by resemblance and by contiguity.

1749. 'Hartley's Observations on Man,' fully developing the action of association.

1782. Kant's 'Critic of the Pure Reason,' which is psychologically, in some important respects, behind Berkeley.

This table is enough to show that Locke, Berkeley, and Gay ought to be regarded as the three original precursors of modern psychology.

Berkeley must, by all accounts, have been a man of extraordinary eloquence. His inducing Parliament unanimously to grant £20,000 for his Bermuda project is an example of this. His ardor was of the purest; and what he believed, he believed with his whole soul. We cannot, in this, at least, agree with what Fraser says of 'The Theory of Visual Language Vindicated,' that "its blot is a tone of polemical bitterness directed against Shaftesbury." On the contrary, it seems to us that that remark is a striking illustration of the decadence of Christian belief in our days. The courtesy and self-restraint of Berkeley's severe strictures upon the mischief done by Shaftesbury's writings could not easily be paralleled by any utterance of the present generation coming from a man who was deeply in earnest about the evil he attacked. Every stoic, such as Shaftesbury was, was a thorough materialist; and, as such, an atheist to Berkeley's apprehension, whatever he might fancy himself to be. As for the majority of the free-thinkers, Berkeley, who had heard their private conversation, did not think them to be under any such illusion concerning their own position. But a man may easily think that he believes what he does not believe. For example, Berkeley himself, and Fraser for him, cannot admit that an opponent of Berkeley treats him fairly unless he begins by admitting that Berkeley believes in the existence of matter in the sense in which the world at large believes in it. But for an opponent to grant that would obviously be to surrender his whole position. The true question is whether Berkeley has not overlooked certain of the constituents of the ordinary, instinctive notion of matter.

Fraser's own contribution to the development of the Berkeleyan doctrine is sufficiently indicated by the following sentence from his preface: "His Philosophical Works, taken collectively, may encourage those who see in a reasonable *via media* between Omniscience and Nescience the true path of progress under man's inevitable venture of reasonable Faith." To find the development of this idea, one must turn to the author's 'Philosophy of Theism.' Then if one desires Berkeley's works as completely as possible, one will further procure his 'Life and Letters,' by Prof. A. C. Fraser. A thorough student of Berkeley will want all that.

Whether for an ordinary reader of philosophy—putting aside the question of price—this edition or that in Bohn's "Philosophical Library," published three years ago, is to be preferred is a delicate question. The text of either is excellent, although neither, we are sorry to say, respects Berkeley's punctuation, which is a part of his style. Probably the Bohn edition is most scrupulously accurate. That it omits such things as the diary in Italy is really no objection. Its most serious omission is the commonplace-book of notes for the preparation of the 'Principles.' This is rhetorically interesting; but it throws less light on the development of Berkeley's views than would be expected. The Bohn edition gives the Latin works (of which one, 'De Motu,' is not altogether devoid of importance), only in translation; the Fraser edition only in the original. Berkeley's Latin has a certain academical elegance; but it is a garb which does not set so comfortably on his thought as a homelier English. In regard to additional matter, each edition has something one regrets to miss in the other. Much more is attempted in this way in the Fraser edition. Nothing is really indispensable but Berkeley's own forcible and persuasive language; and the Fraser notes form sometimes an officious, one had almost said an impertinent, interruption to a philosopher who is quite able to manage the English language for himself. The new life prefixed to the Fraser edition is much fuller and somewhat more accurate than Mr. Arthur Balfour's capital biographical introduction to the other. Neither biographer has suggested that the good bishop's very sudden and very quiet death may—in view of the oceans of tar-water that he was accustomed to swill—have been due to an overdose of carbolic acid. It is quite certain that the Bohn volumes are prettier and lighter and more agreeable to read; but their editor, we feel sure, would concur in the judgment that the new Fraser edition is the most valuable that has yet appeared or is likely to appear, for as long as one can foresee.

The Relations of Geography and History. By the Rev. H. B. George. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1901. Pp. 296.

Mr. George, who is a Fellow of New College, Oxford, has been for many years as enthusiastic a student of military campaigns as though he were an army chaplain. Such researches necessarily induce a strong conviction of the close connection between geography and history, and Mr. George has performed a real service by putting together in this volume the principal conclusions to which his wide learning and accurate scholarship have led him. The book consists practically of two sections. In the first the author discusses the general na-

ture of geographical influences, and then proceeds to deal with "Frontiers," "Towns," "Nomenclature," "Fallacies of the Map," "Sea Power in Peace and War," and "Geography in War." The second section treats of the several countries of Europe in detail, with a supplementary chapter on America.

While this book is to be highly commended as far as it goes, its value is considerably diminished by the narrowness of its scope. Unfortunately, Mr. George's military studies have caused him to attach disproportionate importance to the "drum and trumpet" side of history. The extremest Quaker cannot but admit the profound influence of great wars upon the development of human affairs, and it is obvious that, in earlier ages especially, even such a detail as the site of a town has often been decided by considerations of attack and defence; but, after all, the life of man is not so largely made up of fighting as might be inferred from a comparison of the civilian and military pages of this volume. The deeper question of the influence of climate and physical environment generally upon the character of nations is but lightly touched upon. Yet this is by far the most interesting and profitable phase of the relations of geography and history. Such fascinating books as M. Edmond Demolins's 'Les Français d'aujourd'hui' and Prof. G. Adam Smith's 'Historical Geography of the Holy Land,' though dealing with the history of individual countries, throw a much clearer light upon the general subject than is cast anywhere by Mr. George. For example, such an illuminating section as that in which Professor Smith discusses the influence of the mountains and plains of Palestine upon the religion, the literature, and the social life of the Hebrews, has no parallel in this volume. And what is history worth if it takes no count of such things as these?

By those readers, however, whose supreme interest is in marchings and countermarchings Mr. George's treatise will be highly prized. And, in spite of its limitations, many of its pages—in the first section especially—will be read with profit by people who have little taste for soldiering. The chapter entitled "Fallacies of the Map" ought to correct a good many common political misapprehensions, including the frequent confusion of thought respecting the real meaning of "nationality." With respect to the question of "natural frontiers," Mr. George has no patience with the French claim to the left bank of the Rhine. He shows not only that recorded history is against this pretension, but that "it is contrary to geography, whether the theory be based on purely physical structure or the practical results of historic and prehistoric human action, to treat a river as a natural frontier." The only exception is in cases where, in the modern apportionment of territory, a large river is found to be a convenient boundary. Mr. George suggests that it would be almost as reasonable to assert that the Seine was the natural northeastern frontier of France as that the Rhine is the natural western frontier of Germany. In the same chapter the author condemns with equally firm decision the hasty generalization—which, he says, "has been responsible for a good deal of irrelevant nonsense"—which declares that certain districts are marked out by Nature to be the cockpits of Europe. Wordsworth's famous apostrophe to the sea and the mountains as the natural homes of liberty is also keenly criticised, though in this case there is perhaps more to be said on the other side.

Mr. George deserves special congratulation on his success in overcoming the temptation to political partisanship which must be a serious difficulty in the way of any writer who deals with such subjects as are treated here. Each topic is discussed with absolute impartiality in this respect, the historic and scientific conscience being everywhere followed as the only guide. It may be added that the practical usefulness of the book is increased by the completeness of the index.

Beverley Town Documents. Edited by Arthur F. Leach, Barrister-at-law, Assistant Charity Commissioner. Publications of the Selden Society, Vol. xiv. London: Quaritch.

Beverley, the county-town of the East Riding of Yorkshire, is a quiet little place nowadays, with nothing to attract the attention of the outside world but its two magnificent churches, the Minster and St. Mary's. And yet in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, before its foreign commerce began to pass to the upstart royal foundation of Kingston-upon-Hull, seven miles off, it was one of the great seaports of England; and as late as the time of Camden, though its once thriving cloth trade had already decayed, it was still "very populous." The municipal development of mediæval Beverley has, therefore, an interest altogether out of proportion to the town's present figure in the world.

Upon this subject the volume published by the Selden Society, under the competent editorship of Mr. Leach, throws an abundance of fresh light, which is all the more welcome because Poulson's 'Beverlac' (1829), the standard authority hitherto, is so inadequate and misleading. Mr. Leach has selected and printed *in extenso* the most significant of the municipal and gild ordinances of the fourteenth and two subsequent centuries, provided a translation on the opposite pages, and prefaced the collection with an instructive introduction. He does not tell us just how large a part these documents constitute of the whole mass of material at his disposal; this we shall doubtless find in the report on the records of Beverley which he has been preparing for the Historical MSS. Commission.

There are two questions of interest to students of mediæval institutions about which Mr. Leach, with the support of his documents, has a good deal to say. One of these is the nature of the change in municipal government which took place in the fourteenth century. In Beverley, as elsewhere, the government of the town, far into the fourteenth century, was in the hands of a narrow circle of "burgesses," forming perhaps not a tithe of the total number of male inhabitants. To overthrow this régime the populace made all sorts of efforts from time to time; and at last, in 1382-6, it succeeded in superseding the oligarchic "Keepers" or "Wardens" by the democratic "Aldermen and Chamberlains" chosen by the commonalty. But, as Mr. Leach acutely remarks, the names of the elected magistrates are enough to show that by this time the "better sort" had captured the democratic citadel, and that the town continued to be governed by its men of wealth. In all probability, the only significance of the change was that new commercial and industrial wealth now succeeded in securing a place for itself by the side of the older patrician families. It is true that, during the course of the following century, the town council was put altogether into the hands of the "occupacions." But, *pari passu*, the government of the crafts themselves was becoming increasingly oligarchic, and gradations of rank were growing up within them not unlike those in the "City Companies" of London. So, as the time had passed for any change of substance, it is hardly surprising that the people of Hull ceased to care particularly for the change of name, and quietly acquiesced in the restoration of "Keepers."

As to what happened in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, we are now beginning to see our way; the real period of obscurity in municipal history in England, as elsewhere in Europe, is the thirteenth. Mr. Leach has been unable to furnish us with any records of Beverley between *circa* A. D. 1130, the date of Archbishop Thurston's celebrated charter granting the citizens their "haus-hus," and Archbishop Wykwane's grant of A. D. 1282, with one exception. That exception is the "Law of the Weavers and Fullers of Beverley," which found its way into various collections of London customs, side by side with like "laws" for the same occupations in Winchester, Oxford, and Marlborough. It is a document, as is well known, which shows us these particular craftsmen in an extraordinarily depressed condition, unable to become burgesses unless they first abjured their occupation, and meanwhile incompetent even to give witness against "freemen" of the towns in which they dwelt. Modern writers have sought to argue away the significance of its explicit statements in various ways. Professor Gross, for instance, has argued that this ill usage must have been local, since in Winchester and Leicester weavers could become burgesses. But Mr. Leach points out that the Winchester "Consuetudinary" is at least a century later than the "Laws" in question—of which he produces a copy a good deal earlier than that previously printed by Riley. As to Leicester, he calls our attention to the fact that in the earliest lists of admittances to the merchant gild (A. D. 1196-1225), recently printed by Miss Bateson, there is absolutely no mention of a weaver until the last year, and then it is the *son* of a weaver who appears; while there are many notices which seem to indicate a general exclusion of craftsmen. Dr. Cunningham, again, accepting the fact of exclusion from the burgess body, has tried to explain it by the supposition that the weavers and fullers were usually aliens. Mr. Leach replies that "there is no more reason for thinking the weavers to be foreigners than the butchers or the bakers."

There are a good many other points for which the historian will do well to consult Mr. Leach's collection. We can but allude to such topics as the consolidation of the gild organization by the craftsmen's participation in pageants and plays, the advent of "servientes, *Anglicè* jorneymen" as a permanent industrial class, and the exclusion from independent trade of all but "liverymen." We must congratulate the Selden Society and its editor on a piece of work worthy to be placed by the side of

Mr. Hudson's 'Leet Jurisdiction in Norwich,' for which we were indebted to the same society, some eight years ago. If it will continue its efforts in this direction, and the older English municipalities will but follow the good example of Nottingham and Leicester, we do not despair of knowing something definite one of these days about the internal life of English towns even in the reigns of Richard I., John, and Henry III.

Jesus Christ and the Social Question: An Examination of the Teaching of Jesus in its Relation to Some of the Problems of Modern Social Life. By Francis Greenwood Peabody, Plummer Professor of Christian Morals in Harvard University. The Macmillan Co.

Readers of the *Nation* will remember certain valuable letters in which, some ten years ago, Professor Peabody reported various aspects of German Socialism as they impressed him close at hand. His references are to a multitude of books which, in their aggregate, are eloquent of the amount of interest the social question in its various denotations has engaged. In his first chapter, Professor Peabody makes a careful exhibition of the social agitation and experiments in their various forms, and shows in what manner and degree these have been related to Christianity, as an ecclesiastical institution and as a body of teaching. We have had Socialists denouncing Christianity as the worst enemy of their creed, and others claiming it as their chief support; but upon examination it generally proves that the same Christianity is not intended in the two cases. Here it is the historical ecclesiasticism; there it is the New Testament teaching. The main stress of Professor Peabody's exposition is to show that this last does not furnish the programme of the State Socialist or Communist. He concedes that there are passages in the New Testament which lend themselves to the most drastic demand of the radical reformers, but he does not think that these represent the habitual attitude of Jesus. What he conceives this attitude to have been he develops in his second chapter, and concludes that for Jesus "the social order was not a product of mechanism, but of personality, which fulfils itself only in the social order." We have "the view from above, the approach from within, and the movement towards a spiritual end; a social horizon, a social power, a social aim."

The apparent vagueness of these generalizations does not prevent Professor Peabody's application of them to the special social problems from being productive of much sound and shrewd and wholesome observation of our social tendencies, and much wise discrimination as to the treatment they require. Yet, however plausible Professor Peabody's constructions are, they are reached by the involutions of a dialectic so subtile and abstruse that the wayfaring man would have to be extremely clever to arrive independently at these results or even to follow where he leads the way. Professor Peabody concedes that the New Testament presents the teachings of Jesus in a very inconsistent and even contradictory manner. It can hardly be expected that the average man will always, or even generally, make what Professor Peabody conceives to be the just discriminations. What he is seeking is the authority of Jesus for a rational sociology. Authority should be more obvious than we have it here. The truth is at the bottom of a well, and the water is not transparent, nor translucent. Had not Professor Peabody been writing one of a series of New Testament hand-books, and so been obliged to make the teachings of Jesus his main consideration, we are by no means certain that he would not have done better to give a straightforward account of his own views, clinching them, as opportunity should offer, with some grand old Bible word. Had he done this, his teaching concerning the rich and poor and the various exigencies of the industrial order would have been more direct than it is now, while losing nothing of that sanity which his present method cannot hopelessly obscure.

A possible exception to this praise is the chapter on the family, in which much stress is laid on questions of marriage and divorce. In regard to the latter, Professor Peabody's position is stiffly conservative. There is none of Dr. Lyman Abbott's miserable shuffling with regard to the plain teaching of Jesus. This is, that marriage is irrevocable; and Professor Peabody so receives it. There may be separation, but no divorce or remarriage. This is a position to which some of our most careful sociologists, with as much devotion as Professor Peabody to the highest ends of marriage, are definitely opposed. But Professor Peabody's dealing with the matter is in refreshing contrast to the ingenious sinuosities of many clerical apologists.

Life in Poetry: Law in Taste. By W. J. Courthope. Macmillan. 1901.

Henry Birkhead, who, in the seventeenth century, endowed the Oxford professorship of poetry, made a wise provision for the future of English literary scholarship. The conditions of the chair, a tenure of five years with the requirement of but three lectures each year, were such as to encourage the deeply considered discussion of the most dignified themes. Spence, Warton, Milman, Keble, Arnold, and Palgrave never gave the sanction of their official practice to the vices of literary tittle-tattle or rodomontade. The latest occupant of the chair, Prof. W. J. Courthope, has just printed his lectures of the past five years under the above title. In selecting for his course a theme of general interest yet of specially vital significance at the present time, Professor Courthope has kept to the best traditions of the chair. His purpose is nothing less than to oppose the present anarchy of taste by taking up the old defence of poetry, and by tracing anew in the acknowledged masterpieces of the poetic art the ancient rules, "discovered not devised," in which the life of poetry consists. The foundation of his work is the 'Poetics' of Aristotle, mainly as interpreted by Professor Butcher, to whom, by the way, there is an unusually graceful Latin dedication.

The first division of the lectures comprises a discussion of poetical conception, expression, and decadence, and of the general relation of these to the civic life of any nation. Professor Courthope follows the Aristotelian notion that the essential thing in poetical writing is the imitation of the characteristic and universal in life and nature, But he avoids the formalism which sometimes creeps into such contentions by laying very insistent emphasis on the necessity that the artist shall keep in the broad way of human experience—seeing with the eyes of his age and race; and by illustrating each step of his procedure from a wealth of humane learning. Then in the succeeding lectures he pursues the history of the idea of law, the growth of a distinctively national taste and mode of expression, in the French, German, and English literatures. Finally, there is a more minute examination of the poetry of Chaucer, Milton, Pope, Byron, and Tennyson to show how in their writings the universal, the national, and the personal are fused and reconciled in a characteristic form of art.

The volume as a whole is a sort of organum for the academic and private study of comparative literature. By virtue of its plan and method, as well as in many passages by the way, it is an effective protest against much that is perverted or trifling in contemporary literature. To put it in a sentence, Professor Courthope thinks that decadence, symbolism *et id genus omne*, are the reaction from or the enfeebled persistence of the doctrinaire democratic excesses of the first half of the nineteenth century. His analysis of the social and political causes of the present decadence in European poetry seems to us sound. There is considerably more than a half-truth in his opinion that, "from the enthusiastic dreams of Revolutionary Progress, we have turned to the opiates of an intellectual Buddhism"; and his advice, for the world at large and England in particular, to give greater heed to the organic principles of ideal art is, so far as it goes, excellent for those qualified to accept it; and that the number of these may be increased by the maintenance and extension of the place of the humanities in education, is the plea of his conclusion.

Of course no man could write a work like this without expressing many opinions at which any given critical reader will balk. There are plenty such in Professor Courthope's volume, but it will profit us little to moot them here. If there is a fault in the structure and style of the book, it arises from a failure in the distinction of connected ideas and terms (*e. g.*, "characteristic," "universal," and the like): *qui bene distinguit bene docet.* But the book deserves well of all readers if for nothing else than the admirable chapter upon "Poetry and the People," in which, with great force and delicacy, but without any of the Ruskinian fallacious rhetoric which has beguiled so many excellent persons meditating this theme, the indissoluble relation of great art to national ideals is set forth.

The Paston Letters, 1422-1509 A. D.: A Reprint of the Edition of 1872-5, which contained upwards of Five Hundred Letters, etc., till then unpublished, to which are now added others in a Supplement after the Introduction. Edited by James Gairdner. The Macmillan Company.

The correspondence of the Paston family seems as inexhaustible as the ruins of Pompeii. It is now 114 years since Fenn published his first selection in two volumes, and thereby informed the world that all the private letters of mediæval England had not perished. Other instalments were afterwards printed, and when, in 1872, Mr. James Gairdner undertook to bring out an edition which should meet the needs of historians, he found a wealth of material already at hand. A further fund of letters was also

open to him, and his three volumes, 1872-75, contain more than 500 new ones, or about a thousand in all.

The abundance of the supply seems the less startling when one comes to know how large a body of archives William Paston, second Earl of Yarmouth and the last of his line, left behind him in 1732. Although he had sold part of his ancestral papers, there were still at Oxnead, the family seat, "some thirty or forty chests of valuable letters and documents," after his death. The Rev. Francis Blomefield, whose 'History of Norfolk' is comparable with Surtees's 'Durham' and Ormerod's 'Cheshire,' worked for a fortnight among these stores in 1735. A passage from one of his letters shows how neglected they had been by recent owners and by historians prior to his time. "There are innumerable letters of good consequence in history still lying among the loose papers, all which I laid up in a corner of the room on a heap which contains several sacks full." Eventually, a part of Lord Yarmouth's ill-cared-for treasures came into the hands of Mr. John Fenn. By printing them and giving some of the originals to George III., he secured the honor of knighthood. This, however, was not all that he did, for his volumes made a new thing of English social life during the Wars of the Roses. The first edition was sold in a week, and, ever since, the Paston Letters have been one of the classics of English history. We know that, in one university at least, a long course of lectures upon them has counted for the master's degree.

We are glad to say that the present edition is once more the work of Mr. Gairdner. He long ago laid claim to possession of the subject by writing a fine series of introductions to his three previous volumes. Therein he not only explained the relation which the Paston Letters bear to the national history, but he sketched the latter part of Henry VI.'s reign with great force and clearness. Henceforth it is unlikely that any one will arise to dispute his rule of this historical province, for no need exists of having the letters in a better form. Mr. Gairdner is modest enough to say that his results are only approximately perfect, but he anticipates that they will satisfy all practical demands.

"An almost perfect edition, no doubt, might conceivably be produced with considerable labor and expense if any one could be induced to devote the necessary time and energy to the task of collating all the letters with the long-lost originals, now that they have been so completely recovered, and supplying all the missing passages. But so great a work, even if the editor succeeded after all in including all the stray Paston Letters of the period, would hardly justify, even in a younger and less occupied man than myself, the sacrifices that it would involve."

The reference to long-lost originals brings in a curious piece of literary gossip. Fenn published four volumes during his lifetime and left another volume ready for the press, which, after some delay, was likewise published. Then it was discovered that all the originals had been lost, including the holographs presented to George III. Suspicions were aroused by such a remarkable disappearance of all the documents upon which Fenn had based his five volumes, and it was even said in print that the Paston Letters were spurious. Fortunately, the originals of Fenn's third volume came to light in 1865, while the originals of volumes iv. and v. appeared at Roydon Hall in 1875, just as Mr. Gairdner was finishing his former edition. At last, in 1889, the originals of volumes i. and ii. were found at Orwell Park in Suffolk among the books of the late Col. Tomline. It will be remembered that Pitt's tutor and life-long friend was Dr. Pretyman, who changed his name to Tomline and became Bishop of Lincoln. Whether through Pitt or not, Fenn's present to George III. drifted into his hands and lodged there. The authenticity of the Paston Letters is now established beyond chance of dispute.

The special feature of this new edition is the Introduction, an entire volume. Mr. Gairdner's edition of 1872-75, published by Arber, comprised three volumes, each with its separate introduction. In their stead a single long introduction of nearly 400 pages has been placed at the head of a fourth volume, and it is followed by upwards of a hundred unpublished letters. Regarding the introduction, we may say that it remains substantially the same as before, though presented more compactly. It "contains the three former introductions brought together so that they may be read consecutively, with just one or two slight additions and amendments, besides the correction of positive errors wherever they have been detected." Greater changes have been made with the preface, though its general character remains the same.

As for the newly published letters, they number 105, and are to be found detached from the rest at the end of the introduction. Most of them were known to Mr. Gairdner in 1875, and an appendix to the edition of that date gives a brief inventory of their contents. They form part of the originals which were rediscovered by Mr. George Frere at Roydon Hall. After having been bought at Christie's by a dealer, they were sold five years ago to the British Museum and are thus public property. They are catalogued under the "Additional" MSS. They are, of course, interesting, but we can see nothing in them which will have the effect of changing our estimate of the Paston family or of the Paston letters. Sir John Fastolf still seems the hardfisted landlord, entrenched at Caister Castle. John Paston is still quarrelling with Tuddenham and Heydon, is still having endless lawsuits, and is still immersed in troubles arising out of Fastolf's will. Margaret Paston is still the faithful wife and skilful manager. Almost all the new letters are records of business transactions, and the reader will hit upon little which lies outside the hard work of the world. The story of the younger Paston's marriage negotiation with Margery Brews, so entertaining an episode of the older volumes, has no parallel in this aftermath of correspondence. The fortunes of the Pastons, which had improved under Henry VI., received a setback under Edward IV. After the death of her husband in 1466, Margaret Paston was sore pressed by family foes and by the follies of her sons. Living amid much chicanery and sharp dealing, she is the most attractive of the Pastons, and the best letters of the supplement relate to her care for the preservation of her house after its evil days have set in. It has now come to selling the plate and cutting the timber. Her sons are thriftless and her foes are violent. Yet she proves as loyal in her age as she had been in her prime, and shows that even in the Middle Ages the will of a determined woman was not to be neglected.

Bibliotics; or the Study of Documents, Determination of the Individual Character of Handwriting, and Detection of Fraud and Forgery: New Methods of Research. By Persifor Frazer. Third ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1901. 8vo, pp. 266.

Here we find ourselves plunged into a corner of the fray that has so long been raging all over the field of historical criticism between instinct and systematic logic. "Your instinctive judgments are subjective," cry the logical party, "and your pretensions to detecting what common men cannot detect, or to applying what you call the principles of common sense to history, are proved to be charlatanry by your all coming to different conclusions, without any accord but that of fashion." "Your wooden rules never penetrate the facts," the lauders of instinct retort, "and your notion that one can form any just judgment concerning human conduct, in any department, without the exercise of tact and of subtle feeling, is worthy of the savans of Laputa." Dr. Frazer adds his weight to the logicians' side in the discussion of that branch of the science of diplomatics which seeks to identify individual handwritings.

The old-fashioned experts in chirography, the Chabots and the like, set out from the fact that we all of us learn to recognize at a glance, we scarce know how, yet with entire confidence, almost as many handwritings as faces. The real certainty of our identifications, even of faces, falls short of our confidence in them. In the case of writing, the expert often meets with doubt, either his own or on the part of others whom he wishes to convince; and in such a case, the old practice is to observe closely what appear to be salient features, such as the ways of forming single letters. Juries might sometimes be convinced in that way, but it is a somewhat dubious proceeding. There is all the difference in the world between the trustworthiness of an emphatic instinctive judgment, made unreflectively, and an alloy of instinct with semi-scientific, semi-instinctive testing. When it comes to applying tests at all, the only security lies in making the testing process thoroughly scientific. Now the first rule of scientific induction is that it ought to be planned and performed under the guidance of mathematical considerations, and to that end it ought to be rendered quantitative wherever it can be so rendered. Now, as Dr. Frazer shows, quantitative tests can be applied to handwriting in such profusion that it ought to be possible to develop a method which should hopelessly distance every attempt at imitation.

But to develop such a method will require an arduous scientific investigation. It is by no means a thing which can be got up for any case that may occur; though cases may happen to arise in which, owing to peculiar circumstances, mathematical tests may readily be devised. Even after the scientific method shall have been developed, another serious study must be made of the art of presenting the proofs so that a jury can fairly weigh them. Dr. Frazer has broken ground for the road which

ought to be built. He himself cannot regard, and we think does not pretend, that what he has accomplished is anything more than a promising beginning. But even the comparatively modest claims which he does make somewhat outrun what can be granted. For example, taking Twistleton's book on the comparison of the handwriting of Junius with that of Sir Philip Francis, he measures the ratio of height to length of the word "more" as written thirty-six times by each penman, and also certain parts of the word "Woodfall," as written once by each; and, having made the comparisons, he heedlessly remarks, "The conclusion from the results of the last as well as from the preceding is that the same penman wrote the letters of Sir Philip Francis and of Junius." But even granting the methods of comparison to be unexceptionable, this is a very roomy sort of conclusion. All that is proved is, that the general shape of the word "more" was the same as either wrote it, and that, as each of the two once wrote "Woodfall," four different proportions were considerably alike. We should want to know what percentage of other contemporary handwritings had the same characters before pushing our inference further.

But, looking in detail at the comparisons, we find other hasty statements. Thus, in regard to the word "more," Dr. Frazer says, "It appears that in Francis's own writing nineteen, in Junius's sixteen, of these ratios differ by less than eight per cent. from the standard." But Dr. Frazer's measures do not prove in the least how uniformly either writer wrote. It can be shown mathematically that the discrepancies between the ratios of the height to the length of the word "more," in the single instances measured, are almost entirely due to the fact that the measures of height were only made to half divisions of a scale of fortieths of an inch, and the average height measured was in one case only 4, in the other 2.6, divisions of the scale. Of the remainder of the discrepancy, how much is attributable to error of measurement and how much to irregularities of writing, there is not sufficient evidence to show. We may add that no modern theory of probabilities has been employed, and that there are a number of small errors of computation.

We have referred to but a single part of the book, a part of extreme importance, not for what it accomplishes, but for what it shows reason to believe may ultimately be accomplished. One of the earliest applications of mathematical methods to a question of handwriting was made by Benjamin Peirce. In a certain trial a paper was put in as evidence of which the signature appeared to be a tracing of another signature in the case. Enlarged photographs were made of all the signatures of the same person that were in evidence, some thirty. There were twenty down strokes in the signature. A comparison of all possible pairs showed the probability that any signature would, by mere chance, be superposable in all its down strokes upon another, as the two signatures in question were. The case was decided as Professor Peirce's probability would infer that it should be decided, but upon other grounds. The argument seemed at that time a strange one; and courts ought to be reluctant to deal with modes of argumentation which the judges and the lawyers are not in condition intelligently to criticise.

Several other methods of great interest are described by Dr. Frazer. In the present state of the subject, it seems to the writer of this notice to be too hazardous to convict a man of crime on the evidence of handwriting mainly unless the identification be such as every bank teller would be perfectly confident of, or unless there were other exceptional features in the writing. Circumstantial evidence may, no doubt, be stronger than any direct testimony can be; but to trust to the judgment of an average jury on circumstantial evidence is quite another thing.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Appleton, George. A Narragansett Peer. Abbey Press.
Ashton, Mark. She Stands Alone. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Bremer, F. P. Jurisprudentiæ Antehadrianæ Quæ Supersunt. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner. 8 marks.
Byron, Lord. The Works of. Vol. IV.: Poetry. London: John Murray; New York: Scribners. $2.
Castle, Agnes and Egerton. The House of Romance. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Cook, E. T. Gardening for Beginners. Scribners. $3.75.
Crusius, Otto. Herondae Mimiambi. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner. 2 marks 40.
Davis, Webster. John Bull's Crime. Abbey Press.
Dickens, Charles. Authentic Edition: (1) Sketches by Boz; (2) Hard Times. Reprinted Pieces; (3) American Notes. Pictures from Italy; (4) The Uncommercial Traveller, etc. Scribners.
Dillard, J. H. Fifty Letters of Cicero. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Field, Eugene. The Complete Tribune Primer. Boston: Mutual Book Co.
Florilegium Græcum in Usum Primi Gymnasiorum Ordinis, Fasciculi XI-XV. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner. 60 pf.
Francis, M. E. Fiander's Widow. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Fulton, Samuel. The Stoner Family. Abbey Press.
Gilliat-Smith, Ernest. The Story of Bruges. (Mediæval Towns.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Goodhue, E. S. Out of the Pigeon-Holes. Alma (Mich.): The George F. Butler Pub. Co.
Gray, Maxwell. Four-Leaved Clover. (Town and Country Library.) D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Guilford, A. B., and Lovell, Aaron. The Guilford Speller. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Hargreaves, R. Arithmetic. Henry Frowde. 4s. 6d.
Harrison, Mrs. Burton. A Princess of the Hills. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. $1.50.
Hewitt, F. W. Anæsthetics and their Administration. Macmillan. $4
Hewlett, Maurice. The Life and Death of Richard Yea-and-Nay. New ed. Macmillan.
Hoffmann, Max. August Böckh. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner. 12 marks.
Howard, L. O. The Insect Book. Doubleday, Page & Co.
Hubbell, G. G. Fact and Fancy in Spiritualism, Theosophy, and Psychical Research. Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co. $1.25.
Kearney, Belle. A Slaveholder's Daughter. Abbey Press. $1.
Kester, Vaughan. The Manager of the B. & A. Harpers. $1.50.
Larmor, Alexander. Geometrical Exercises from Nixon's "Euclid Revised." Henry Frowde. 90 cents.
Lawyer, Nellie T. The Egyptian Ring. Abbey Press.
Layman, A. In Yellowest Jaunia. F. Tennyson Neely Co.
Leo, Friedrich. Die Griechisch-Römische Biographie nach ihrer Litterarischen Form. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner. 7 marks.
Lewis, A. H. Richard Croker. Life Pub. Co.
Lindsay, Mayne. The Whirligig. Longmans, Green, & Co. $1.25.
Lucas, C. P. Canada, Part I. Vol. V. of the Historical Geography of the British Colonies. Henry Frowde. $1.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 8, 1901.

The Week.

Senator Cullom, fresh from communings at Canton, feels that he is but "representing the President's ideas" when he declares that the next Congress ought to do some things which will "amount to a partial revision of the tariff." No general revision—Heaven forbid! Senator Cullom would be as much alarmed at that horrible process, except in years when he wanted to undertake it, as the next man. But he has discovered an opinion abroad that the United States is "disposed to act in what may be called a hoggish manner in its trade relations," and he thinks a little tariff modification and the ratification of reciprocity treaties not only would remove that suspicion, but would also give us more trade. Therefore he believes it would be "beneficial all round." What! beneficial to the manufacturers of bogus jewelry and the makers of gloves and worsteds? They killed the French treaty last winter on the statesmanlike ground that there was "nothing in it for them." So with every man who has a favor to his business written into the tariff—that is the thing which is "beneficial all round" to the interests it was made to suit, and they will not surrender a clause of it without a fight and threats to pull the whole edifice down about the party's ears if it dares to touch one poor little scantling in it. This great truth it is, so well attested by repeated experiment, which always lends a certain comic air to the announced determination of Republicans to show you a tariff "reformed by its friends."

Congressman Babcock writes a breezy letter from Marienbad, in Bohemia, to the editor of a Wisconsin newspaper, on the subject of his proposed bill to repeal the duties on articles which "we can to-day produce and undersell the world." He says that he has not changed his intention, but has been confirmed in it by the progress of time. The reading public will recall the fact that Mr. Babcock declared his purpose to introduce a bill amendatory of the tariff at the time when the United States Steel Company was formed, and it was inferred that he intended to direct his energies exclusively to branches of industry controlled by monopolies. It seems, however, that he does not restrict himself to those, but extends his proposed reform to articles which we are exporting and selling in the world's markets in competition with foreign producers, "like the products of our farms." He regards the policy of protection to those articles as indefensible. "If Congress maintains a tariff on such articles," he says, "the whole theory of protection falls to the ground, and it simply inures to the benefit of those who may secure the control of any such commodity, since by its aid they can fix exorbitant prices in the domestic market." Replying to his Republican colleagues on the Committee of Ways and Means, Messrs. Payne and Dalzell, who contend that the small manufacturer would be crushed out by the repeal of such duties, he says that as these small concerns are already competing with the large ones, he does not see why they may not continue to do so after the duties are repealed. He might add that if the rule were that no duties were to be repealed or lowered as long as any small concern was engaged in the business, it would be very easy for the "combine" to keep a small one going in order to shield themselves from tariff changes. The significance of Mr. Babcock's letter, however, is not found in any change of details in his proposed bill, but in the fact that his purpose to push the bill is unchanged.

If Bryan's unterrified friends in Ohio wished to make him and themselves ridiculous, they certainly won a great success in their "State Convention" at Columbus on July 31. A dozen men in a bedroom listening to a "keynote speech," with the outnumbering reporters trying to catch it (for some of them it must have been a keyhole speech), and with an occasional bolter from the bolters further reducing the ranks from time to time, would seem to be exactly the kind of "candid friends" from whom Mr. Bryan might pray Heaven to save him. The only touch of humor in the proceedings lay in the choice of a name for the new organization. "The Progressive Democratic Party," they decided to call themselves. The suggestion of the obvious room for growth in a party now numbering 8 or 9 is subtly delightful.

An address just issued by a number of influential Democrats in Pennsylvania, appealing to the delegates to the Democratic State Convention to exclude from that body the representatives of the Donnelly-Ryan machine of Philadelphia, throws a strong light on the real meaning of the opposition on the part of the machine Democrats of Pennsylvania to fusion with the Independent Republicans in the work of ridding the State of the abomination of Quay rule, and of rescuing Philadelphia from the gang of public plunderers which now has the city in its grasp. Says the address:

> "In the hands of Charles P. Donnelly and Thomas J. Ryan the Democratic organization of Philadelphia is but an annex of the Republican city machine. So notorious is this, that the voters of our party faith will no longer go to the polls to be insulted, assaulted by the police, cheated, and counted out by the creatures of this unholy alliance."

Evidently, fusion of the Democratic machine with the enemies of the Republican machine could not, under such circumstances, reasonably be expected, and the address rightly insists that the first step must be the overthrow of the Democratic leaders who are misrepresenting their party for their own gain. On the same day with this Democratic address, there was a bitter arraignment of the Republican machine by ex-Gov. Hastings at Bellefonte. The two pictures placed side by side present a startling spectacle. With both party machines hopelessly corrupt, the people of Pennsylvania are beset to know which way to turn. As yet non-partisanship is with them but a feeble growth.

Whatever the recent Socialist "unity" convention at Indianapolis proved or disproved, it showed clearly enough that the Socialists are not yet of one mind. Two distinct kinds of Socialism were represented — a vague, humanitarian sort which was content to seek halfway reforms, such as State ownership of public utilities, compulsory insurance, and old-age pensions, equal political rights for men and women, the initiative and referendum—and an uncompromising Socialism which set before itself the exploitation of the capitalist class. The moderates were soon disabused of the idea that a mealy-mouthed enthusiasm for social reform was Socialism, by a display of the real thing. The original demand for insurance and pensions, for example, read as follows:

> "[We advocate] State or national insurance of working people in case of accidents, lack of employment, sickness, and want in old age."

No such vague benevolent project contented the radicals. Who is to pay for these benefits? they inquired. Surely not the beneficiaries! So they amended the clause by adding,

> "the funds for this purpose to be collected from the revenue of the capitalist class, and to be administered under the control of the working class."

Several such changes in the demands or the platform as originally drafted showed that, for many of the delegates, all ideals of social reform were included in the ambition to despoil the capitalist. He was to pay for everything. Who was to pay when the capitalist was finally abolished, no delegate to the congress ventured to predict.

The annals of New York State politics record no more beautiful and touching

scene than the reconciliation last week of those two eminent Republican statesmen, Louis F. Payn and Lemuel Eli Quigg. When they quarrelled several years ago, Mr. Quigg published the charge that Mr. Payn was using a corruption fund at Albany to influence legislation, and denounced him as a professional lobbyist. Mr. Payn, of course, was equally frank in telling the truth about Mr. Quigg. Hence a certain coolness, till Mr. Quigg triumphantly proved his devotion to lofty principles by declaring that the anti-Tammany forces must nominate a Republican for Mayor. This exhibition of unimpeachable morality conquered the heart of the obdurate Mr. Payn, for his chief virtue is a holy horror of political independence. Accordingly, Mr. Payne called on Mr. Quigg, they "gazed at each other, first doubtfully, then smilingly," then came a heartfelt clasp of hands, and doubtless a gush of hot tears. Mr. Platt, however, on Sunday, stated explicitly that he is for an independent Democrat as candidate for Mayor against Tammany. This was incidentally intended to complete the squelching of Quigg. It also commits the Republican machine, so far as Platt is still able to speak for it, to what is undoubtedly the most rational and promising programme for our municipal campaign. First, however, catch your independent Democrat. "Any man whom they nominate will be the man for me," says Platt. If he had been willing to say that in 1897 he would have saved the city from its past four years of shame. But what if the independent Democrat most fit for the nomination should prove to be a man who had denounced Platt as unsparingly as Croker, had said that their methods were identical and their political morality and respectability on a par?

The strategic importance of the Bissert conviction, at the present stage of the anti-Tammany campaign, will be more and more apparent as the days pass. It was, in effect, a strong expression of the public disgust and horror at Tammany infamies. That a jury could be found which was not to be tampered with or terrorized, is in itself a fact indicative of the prevailing sentiment that it is high time to stop official connivance at vice and crime. In the Mafia-like reign of terror which the Tammany police maintain in this city, it requires civic courage of the first order to be ready, as the Bissert jury was, to put a brand of shame upon men who openly boast that they will ruin in property, or maim in life and limb, any man who dares to testify against them. It is this, together with the immense legal difficulty of proving the true modus operandi of the Tammany method of battening upon gambling and prostitution, which makes District-Attorney Philbin's victory, in his first encounter with the cohorts of official corruption, so notable and encouraging. It should prompt him to strike higher and harder. We seem to be at the "psychologic moment" to press forward and turn Tammany's consternation into actual panic. With a few more of the men who "pass it up" to him caught, Croker will not dare to come back at all; and a Tammany still further exposed as the ally of criminals and the paid protector of vice will find it impossible to carry out its present plan of getting a "respectable" figurehead, merchant or banker, to stand as its candidate for Mayor. With a few more revelations of the moral slime in which Tammany lives, a respectable man would no more think of accepting a nomination from it than he would of taking up his residence in a pest-house.

In addition to the "grandfather" clause, the Alabama Convention has adopted a suffrage provision open to unlimited partisan abuse. It stipulates that, until January, 1903, in addition to the war-veterans and their descendants, only those be permitted to vote who are "of good character and who understand the duties and obligations of citizenship under a republican form of government." The judges of this character and understanding are to be three appointed registrars in each county. This plan of sifting out undesirable citizens is obviously intended to work the same disfranchisement as the "understanding" clause in Mississippi; nor is its viciousness relieved by a farcical provision for an appeal to the courts by those rejected by the registrars. Members of the class aimed at will never engage lawyers to try their character and understanding before a prejudiced jury. It is assumed in Alabama that there will not be time enough before 1903 to test the Constitutionality of the hereditary suffrage clause. But even if that should be declared invalid, the arrangement to pass on "character and understanding" will be sufficient to attain the desired end. Under its partisan operation, all the poor and illiterate whites of voting age can be registered, and all the negroes can be excluded. In Alabama, as in the Maryland Democratic Convention, "the duties and obligations of citizenship" can be construed to mean the duty of voting the Democratic ticket for the maintenance of white supremacy.

A movement has been set on foot among the Western lake-cities for the abrogation of the treaty with Great Britain which limits the naval forces of either party on the great lakes. This treaty was originally made in 1817. It provided that no other vessels of war than those named should be there built or armed. There was a stipulation, however, that either party might terminate the treaty on six months' notice. The movement to terminate it now is not founded in Jingoism, but in a desire to build war-vessels on the lakes for foreign countries. It is a commercial and industrial movement solely, and is therefore entitled to respect. Iron shipbuilding on the lakes has become an extensive industry, and is rapidly growing. By reason of nearness to iron and coal deposits, it possesses some advantages over the yards on the Atlantic seaboard, which are more than offset, however, by the tidewater situation of the latter. No war-vessel for a foreign country can be built on the lakes which exceeds the capacity of the Canadian canals through which they must pass to the ocean. They will be limited to the size of gunboats. Moreover, it will be futile for us to abrogate the treaty of 1817 unless we can have permission to send the war-vessels so built through the Canadian canals. This permission could probably be obtained without difficulty provided the vessels were not armed. Nobody proposes to increase our armament on the lakes merely to furnish employment to shipbuilders. The treaty of 1817 has been a great saving of expense to both countries, besides being a conservator of peace, and it ought to be kept in effect so far as it relates to the maintenance of naval force on the lakes; but there is no reason why it should not be so amended as to permit the building of ships for service on salt water.

The heartburnings which began with the publication of the new German tariff project are increasing daily. The Agrarians insist that the duties on cereals and fruits are not high enough to afford them adequate protection. This is an averment which depends very much, for its force, upon the standpoint of the man who makes it. If he is a producer of cereals and fruits, he will be very likely to say that the tariff is ridiculously low, whereas the consumer will think that any tariff is too high. Then the Government will probably "split the difference," and, in a conscientious endeavor to satisfy both parties, will satisfy neither, but will make both of them bitterly hostile. We have had some experience of this sort in the United States, but nothing like that which seems to be impending in Germany. The conditions of life here are comparatively easy, and we have free trade over a wider area than the whole of Europe, excluding Russia. Hence the pressure of protective tariff duties is much less burdensome. Moreover, the duties on foodstuffs here are not generally felt, as those articles are produced by us in superabundance, and are largely exported. In Germany a very slight addition to the cost of food will be keenly felt by the manufacturers and by working-class families, and will provoke stout resistance. On this point we may look for a battle royal in the Reichstag.

The charge is made by the Agrarians that the Government is encouraging the collection and publication of comments in the foreign press hostile to the bill. That is very likely.

Looking at this internecine strife among our trade rivals on the other side of the water, what becomes of the great combination that was to meet us at the frontier of every country in Europe except England? True, the union against America was never formulated in such a way that we could look it in the face and form an estimate of its importance, yet it was soberly mooted by the Foreign Minister of Austria-Hungary as one of the necessities of the time, and was taken up by the press of the Continent as a subject calling for immediate attention. The only way to accomplish the end in view was to form a European Zollverein against American goods, the details of which should be worked out by a commission of all the countries concerned. We can faintly imagine what a jargon of opposing interests would be revealed whenever a conference of this sort should be opened for business. Now we find Germany, Austria, and Russia wrangling among themselves over tariff questions, and giving each other quite enough material to engage their thoughts without having recourse to the question of an anti-American Zollverein.

It was not a notable figure which Mr. Chamberlain presented in the House of Commons last Friday, explaining as he did, in the name of the Government of Imperial Britain, that he had 200,000 soldiers in South Africa engaged in man-hunting, and that he was even arming Kaffirs against the Boers. He asserted that there was no understanding whatever that England would not employ black troops against the burghers. No understanding, perhaps, but Mr. Balfour distinctly asserted for the Government, at the beginning of the war, that the thing would not be done. Surely, Mr. Chamberlain cannot have forgotten that, or John Morley's grim congratulations of the Cabinet on having determined to use only Christians in killing Christians. It would be much franker, if still discreditable, for the Colonial Secretary to say, now that the circumstances have changed, that he was in a desperate situation, fighting desperate men, and should not scruple to use any weapon that fell to his hand. But the whole thing is, in any aspect of it, a ghastly comment on our Hague Conferences and Geneva Convention to make war more "humane." What we see now, in England's case, is simply the old truth that war cannot be made humane; that it is the unleashing of brute passions; and that the most civilized of nations, once in hot blood, will sneer at "mistaken leniency," and will swagger about "fighting to a finish," just as if it were a tribe of Sudanese led by the Mad Mullah.

Professor Bastable, whose treatise on Finance holds a high place in contemporary literature, gives his approval in the *Economic Journal* to the English budget, but considers the increase of the national debt a very serious matter. "For the two years 1900-2," he says, "this increase will be, broadly speaking, £100,000,000, *i. e.*, about the amount of the debt paid off between 1886 and 1899. Thus two years of war balance the work of fourteen years of peace." In regard to the export duty on coal he thinks that its continuance is doubtful, and must depend upon the results of its actual working. If it should result in checking British trade at competitive points, it might cause more loss to commerce than gain to the Treasury. It was the opinion of the late Professor Jevons that an export duty on coal would have that effect. Incidentally, Professor Bastable notices that the expenditure of the Imperial Government for all purposes has been at the rate of half a million sterling per day for two years, not counting the expenses of local government. He thinks that there is no decided indication that the strain is too great, but that some important taxes are probably very near their point of maximum productiveness.

The Jesuits, it is credibly reported in the *Sun* on the authority of a prominent Jesuit editor of this city, will disband their twenty-nine colleges in France, and withdraw the one thousand students who are candidates for the order to Holland. They have felt that the Government was unalterably hostile to them, and that it would be useless to apply for an authorization under the Associations Bill. If it is really true that the French Jesuits are gone for good, and that the 16,000 students of Jesuit colleges must enter other schools, the fact is a signal victory for the advocates of the bill. For that measure, supported by the Socialists chiefly as a step toward confiscation, was, in the minds of many Moderate Republicans and of all Radicals, only a step towards the secularizing of education in France. The Government has long looked with no favorable eye on the success of the Catholic schools. All attempted discrimination in the professional and official examinations has been defeated by the simple excellence of the Catholic schools. It has been generally felt, with perhaps a certain "snobism," that the Catholic schoolmasters were of a higher grade as men and scholars than the corresponding teachers of the *Université*. All this has gained for the Jesuit schools public confidence, and support among the wealthier classes.

There is nothing that the French bourgeois with his cheap Voltaireanism detests more heartily than this assumption of culture and social distinction, which has been the mark of the Catholic seminaries. He not only hates it, but distrusts it; and reports of the growth of Royalist and Catholic sentiment in the army are the favorite bugaboo of the sensational press. The voluntary closing of the Jesuit schools will by them be acclaimed as a triumph for secular education. If the Jesuits had ever learned the art of staying away, the triumph would be more complete. Suppressed as an order by the Church herself, expelled, first or last, from nearly every country of Europe, they have always managed not only to return, but actually to prosper under proscription. This is not alone due to their proverbial political sagacity, but to their actual qualifications as schoolmasters. Thus, in Italy, where their conventual holdings were confiscated, most of the buildings serve again as Jesuit schools. The French Associations Bill is strict, but its rigid application will require a closer vigilance than any Government is likely to give. The Jesuits hardly needed the Pope's injunction to take every advantage left to them by the Associations Bill, but no order was more likely to profit by, and possibly exceed, the instructions. Because their candidates in theology are to be transferred to Holland as an asylum, one need not suppose that the 16,000 pupils suddenly dismissed in the long vacation are to be forsaken.

It is hard to view the interruption of the Daudet-Richard duel for the purpose of sterilizing the weapons in other than a ridiculous light. Amusement deepens when we read that this may serve as a precedent on the field of honor. For many years, to be sure, the swords in a German *Mensur* have been wiped with listerine between bouts. But the student duels are friendly contests, in which every risk except that of casual mutilation is rightly guarded against. The French duels, on the contrary, are to avenge deadly insults, and the combat is *à outrance*. Tragedy is their presumable aim. There is something quite absurd, then, in lessening the risk on the duelling-ground. If M. Daudet's sword, having accidentally touched the ground, had possibly picked up a deadly microbe or two, M. Richard was free to do the same with his weapon and continue the fight on even terms. What is to become of the "code" if it must embody all the results of modern bacteriology? Meadows and woods and ravines and public parks, the favorite resorts of duellists, are notoriously septic, but are they not indispensable, too? Could the institution long survive a code which required the preliminary sterilization of all parties, aseptic weapons, and a thoroughly fumigated room?

THE OBSTINATE SURPLUS.

On March 2 of this year was enacted a revenue-reduction law, designed to check the accumulating surplus in the Treasury. The so-called War Revenue Act of June 13, 1898, adding (chiefly through new stamp taxes) $100,000,000 to the annual public income, had remained in force, although war expenditures had been reduced $95,000,000 below those of 1898. As a result, the surplus revenue rose to $79,500,000 in the fiscal year 1900, and to $76,000,000 in the twelve months ending with last June. The Congressional committees which took the matter in charge last winter, proposed a law repealing taxes on bank checks, express-receipts and telegraph messages, and proprietary medicines, and reducing by 20 and 50 per cent. the tax on foreign bills of exchange, on beer and tobacco, steamship passage tickets, and a few other objects of stamp requirements. Some of these taxes had been enormously productive, and it was estimated, both by the committees and by Secretary Gage, that the changes would strike off about $40,000,000 annual revenue. With expenditure unchanged, this would have left for the ensuing fiscal year a surplus of $36,000,000.

The new schedules of taxation went into effect July 1. The first month under the reduced taxes ended last Thursday, and its fiscal results are contrary to all expectations. Government receipts for July, instead of feeling the influence of the lower taxes, have turned out $2,000,000 larger than in 1900, and $4,000,000 more than in 1899. The month's expenditure, too, has been reduced $1,600,000 from last year, and $4,500,000 from the year before. July is usually a month when, owing to the heavy interest payments, expenditure exceeds receipts. Not in fifteen years has there been any excess revenue in July, when interest and pension payments are always particularly large, and when appropriations for the new fiscal year are promptly drawn upon. There was a deficit for the month even in periods of abnormal surplus revenue, such as 1889 and 1890. Last year the July deficit exceeded $4,000,000. Yet July, 1901, ends with an actual excess revenue.

There are several explanations of this anomalous result—some of them suggested by the figures, some by similar experience in the past. In the first place, out of the $2,300,000 increase in revenue over July, 1900, $1,400,000 came from customs. This branch of revenue was not affected by the law of March 2, which dealt exclusively with internal schedules. It was affected, however, by the increase in dutiable imports, which has been considerable. In June, these tax-paying importations increased $2,700,000, and the increase last month was probably as large, or larger. But there was also an increase of some $750,000 in receipts from internal revenue, which is difficult to explain except on the theory that taxpayers who had allowed their supply of stamps to run low on the eve of reduction in the rate, bought in exceptional quantities when the new law took effect. Even this explanation, however, is only inference. As a matter of fact, receipts from internal revenue, in the first week of July, were less than in 1900, and the large increase came in the last fortnight. But no other explanation is apparent.

This seeming paradox has, however, presented itself on a similar occasion in our financial history. The Government's experience after the tax reductions of 1883 furnishes a case in point. At that time, as in the present year, internal taxes were made to bear the brunt of the alterations. The measure of that day was entitled "a bill to reduce internal taxation." It struck off absolutely taxes on bank checks, bank deposits, and other similar sources of revenue, which had yielded $10,000,000 in the preceding fiscal year. It cut down nearly one-half the tax on tobacco manufactures, which had produced $47,000,000. Yet in March, 1883—the first month under the new schedules—these very internal taxes yielded a revenue larger by $1,800,000 than in the same month the year before. This increase did not continue; the revenue soon declined below that of 1882; yet within six months the Treasury officers had figured out that, instead of the $34,700,000 reduction of internal revenue contemplated by the Congressional committees, $24,500,000 was the outside limit. This second and lower estimate turned out correct.

Very possibly, some miscalculation will be found to have been made in the Tax Reduction Law of 1901, after it shall have been fully tested. It is impossible to be exact, and sometimes not easy even to approximate, when estimates of a revenue-yield depend on popular whim and fluctuating trade conditions. But one month's trial is not conclusive in 1901 any more than in 1883, and every one ought to hope that the revenue will be reduced as planned. This is not alone because an accumulating surplus in the Treasury makes trouble on the money market. Consequences, to be sure, are bad enough in that direction. Only through extensive and hastily undertaken bond redemptions was the disturbance resulting from such locking-up of funds averted in 1899, and it needed the heavy premium payments, under the Bond Redemption Law of March, 1900, to escape another "squeeze" that year.

But the more formidable danger lies elsewhere. The recent Ship-Subsidy Bill, with its effort to appropriate $180,000,000 from the public revenue, is an example of the sort of measure which gets a hearing in days of overflowing surplus. The wildly extravagant River and Harbor Bill was killed last March only for a session. Even with these two and other kindred measures thrown out by the Fifty-sixth Congress, the appropriations of that body ran nearly $400,000,000 beyond those of the Congress before the Spanish war, of whose grants the Appropriations Committee's chairman remarked that they "are, in my judgment, in excess of the legitimate demands of the public service." The danger is that the very annoyance to the money market of which we have spoken, will lead to a hasty acquiescence in any proposal to reduce the surplus.

We are not yet ready to predict that such a position of affairs is in sight. It is a fortunate circumstance that our people have learned in recent years what the doctoring of a surplus by increased appropriations means. The time comes, as it came after 1890, when the springs of abundant revenue suddenly dry up. But the roll of expenditure does not contract along with them. The pension claimants, the river-and-harbor and public-buildings petitioners do not withdraw because the Government is in straits. They were intriguing as persistently when the Treasury was fighting off bankruptcy in 1894, as they were when McKinley in the Ways and Means Committee of 1890, and Tanner in the Pension Office, were inviting all the lobbyists of Washington to thrust their hands into the public strong-box. But the experience which the people had with this class of financial experts then was enough for one generation. If the surplus of 1901 were to keep on rising, it is safe to say that the people's demand would be directed, as it ought to be, towards further remission of taxation.

THE COMING STRIKE.

The failure of the conferees of the United States Steel Corporation and of the Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers to come to an agreement on Saturday seems likely to result in the most extensive and disastrous strike that this country has ever seen. The preliminary steps are well known. It is certain that the strike is not on a question of wages or hours. Therefore, it must be a question of union or non-union labor, and this, in the last analysis, is a question of control of the property from which both wages and profits are derived. It is an old question, and one which will continue to divide society for long years to come. We must always hope for an eventual solution of it without fighting, but such a settlement seems now to be as remote as it was some twenty-five years ago, when Pittsburgh was in anarchy and seemed about to be swallowed in flames.

After the great Homestead strike, the Carnegie works emancipated themselves from the Amalgamated Association; in other words, made themselves "non-

union," and went on their way rejoicing. They became the most successful producers of steel in the world, and they paid no lower wages than the Amalgamated scale. Of course, they were an eyesore to the union, as every non-union shop is, and all the more by reason of the magnitude of their output and the rapidity of their growth. It seems not improbable that the real aim of the strikers has been to bring the Carnegie works under Amalgamated control, a plan for which the acquirement of the Carnegie mills by the United States Steel Corporation would seem to furnish a good basis. If the Amalgamated Association could tie up all the works controlled by them (say three-fourths of the mills owned by the company), and keep them tied up until the company would agree to unionize the other fourth, including the Carnegie works, such a scheme would be perfectly intelligible. Whatever might be thought of it as a business proposition, it would be a rational explanation of everything that has taken place.

Looking at the points of disagreement as officially presented by the leaders of the Amalgamated Association, they seem to be very slight. They are the following:

PROPOSITION OF THE STEEL CORPORATION.

"Tin Plate Company—Business shall proceed under the contract signed with the Amalgamated Association as of July 1, 1901.

"The American Steel Hoop Company should sign the scale for all the mills owned by the American Steel Hoop Company that were signed for last year.

"American Sheet Steel Company—Company should sign the scale for all the mills of this company that were signed for last year excepting the Old Meadow and Saltsburg mills."

PROPOSITION OF THE AMALGAMATED ASSOCIATION.

"We, the members of the Executive Board of the Amalgamated Association, hereby present the following proposition as a reply to that received from the United States Steel Corporation:

"Sheet mills—All mills signed for last year, with the exception of Saltsburg and Scottsdale, and with the addition of McKeesport and Wellsville.

"Hoop mills—All mills now known to be organized, viz., Youngstown, Girard, Greenville, Pomeroy, Warren, Painters, and Lindsay and McCutcheon, Clark, Monessen, Mingo, and bar mill, 12-inch, 9-inch, and hoop mills of the Cleveland Rolling Mill Company.

"Tin mills—All mills except Monessen.

"Note—All other matters of detail to be left for settlement by conference."

"Signing the scale" for any mill, or collection of mills, means that future differences between the employers and employees in them shall be within the jurisdiction of the Amalgamated Association. In other words, the mill or mills shall be considered unionized, whether the majority of the men working in them are members of the union or not. Any number of questions might arise immediately after the "signing of the scale," and they would be questions for the Amalgamated Association to pass upon. The latter might decide that no non-union men should be employed in the mill. On the other hand, the officers of the Corporation might discharge the union men one by one on various pretexts. The signing of the scale therefore is a weighty matter from both points of view.

The first difference between the two parties relates to the Tin-Plate Company, and here the men are clearly in the wrong. A contract was signed on the first of July, 1901, for one year, by the Amalgamated Association for all the tin-plate mills. The Corporation may justly insist that that contract shall be fulfilled. We believe that there is a by-law of the Association which authorizes them to declare a contract "off" in certain contingencies, but that is not binding on the other party to the contract. A violation of a written agreement only a month old is calculated to deprive the workmen of the public sympathy as to that particular matter and to cast a shadow upon their cause generally.

The other points of difference are apparently trifling. They are questions relating to particular mills—whether the scale shall be signed for this one, or for that one, or not. But each one involves the principle of control of the property, and is as important in the estimation of both sides as though the question were whether future rates of wages and hours of labor, in all the mills of the Corporation, shall be regulated and fixed by one or the other party exclusively. This is the unexpressed issue which, we regret to think, is to be put to a trial of strength and fought out with much suffering and loss of both wages and profits, and perhaps something worse before the end is reached.

That the strike will project itself into politics it is easy to foresee. Mr. Shaffer in a public speech invoked the aid of President McKinley to use his influence with Mr. J. P. Morgan to settle the dispute without a trial of strength. Senator Hanna has been flitting about the country during the crisis as though great issues depended upon a settlement of the difficulty. Without peering too far into the future, we may imagine that the strength of the Ship-Subsidy Bill in the coming session of Congress may be much impaired by a contest on a gigantic scale between labor and capital. We can imagine that Chairman Babcock may find a considerable accession of strength for his proposed tariff reform bill by a public spectacle of this kind. It will be strange, too, if the whole Trust question is not precipitated into the field of acrimonious debate in Washington next winter. That it will engage the attention of Congress more or less is assured by the forthcoming report of the Industrial Commission. Much bitterness may be added to it, whether the strike proves successful or not. The prospect now is that it will not be successful. The leaders cannot look for success from a mere test of endurance. They expect that political influence and public sympathy will come with overwhelming force to their aid.

LOSSES OF SENTIMENT.

Mr. R. D. Blumenfeld writes in *Harper's* of a scene which he witnessed in the harbor of Southampton last year. A British transport clearing for South Africa passed a Batavian steamer, on board of which were some soldiers from Holland en route for Java. With the universal good-fellowship of men at arms, the Dutchmen cheered the Englishmen in khaki. But they were suddenly ordered below by an indignant young officer, "whose Boer sympathies were apparently shocked by the spectacle of Dutch soldiers cheering Englishmen." A cynical English officer might, however, have asked, "Why such squeamishness? We, it is true, are sailing to Cape Town in order to destroy the last shred of Boer independence. But are you not on your way to Java to kill the Achinese who are fighting for *their* independence? Liberty is liberty, whether in Africa or Asia, and a man is a man, whether we call him Boer or Malay; so why condemn in others the thing which you allow in yourselves?" We do not know how a Dutch casuist could give a really satisfactory answer to these questions. If he felt any awkwardness on the subject, however, all he would have to do would be to wait until he fell in with an American transport bound for the Philippines. With the soldiers on board her he would naturally feel himself in full *rapport*, since they, too, were embarked for the purpose of extinguishing the liberty of a Malay people. The Dutch and their predecessors in Java have been fighting the Achinese for a hundred years, and have not subdued them yet; but we shall hope to show them that our vigorous young republic can do much more rapid work than that in blotting out the last remnants of a Philippine republic.

The incident suggests the constant loss of fine sentiment, which is one of the penalties of our modern Imperialistic ventures. We rob ourselves of the power to sympathize with the oppressed when we ourselves turn oppressors—or even, involuntarily, if that pleases better, fall into the ungrateful and unintended attitude of an oppressor. This is a serious thing, for man or nation. A great part of national as of individual life thrives upon sentiment. To impair its power over us, to dull its appeals, to make us shamefaced in asserting it, is by so much to strike at the vitality and strength of the motives which enter into both our private and public character. For how long did Americans have to hang their heads at the taunt about "the home of the free and the land of the slave"! It made our homage to liberty seem hollow, and our brave words about

the rights of man sound false and hypocritical. To remove that reproach cost years of agitation and a bloody war, and lo! the first thing we discover in the careless rapture of our new Imperialism is that we are again a slave-holding nation, and must once more blush to find our practice so at variance with our principles.

It is the common lot of liberty-loving and slavery-hating nations when once they embark on a grandiose career of conquest. No boast of the Briton, for example, has been louder and prouder than that slavery could not exist under the British flag. British soil or British protection was supposed automatically to strike off the fetters of the slave. But now humanitarian England, the England of Clarkson and Wilberforce, is tingling with shame over the admitted fact that there live to-day upwards of 200,000 slaves under the English flag. They are in Zanzibar and on the adjoining mainland, now a British protectorate. The matter was brought up in the House of Commons a few days ago, and the Government put the best face possible upon the unpleasant situation. True, the slaves were there, but they really did not want to be free; slavery was a part of their Mohammedan religion, and they did not mind it; besides, a promise had been made when Zanzibar was taken over that there would be no interference with the "social status"; and so the Government, while just as much opposed to slavery as ever, could do nothing except hope that the slaves would not be cruelly treated by their masters, and that the present regrettably high mortality among them would be checked. We were just going to cry shame upon such fumbling and shuffling with a great question of human liberty, but we remembered in time our own slaves in Sulu, and President McKinley's benevolent hope that each of them might soon be able to raise the money to buy his freedom "at the market price." Really, it is not exactly a thing to inflame the pride of Americans to be reminded that the price of slaves is again to be found among our market quotations.

It is small compensation for these losses of sentiment to say that we are richer and bigger and more terrible than ever. Republics do not live by wealth and territory and battle-ships. They feed and grow great upon ideas and feelings. For our part, we cannot but reckon the honeycombing of our old sentiments on the subject of self-government and personal rights as a serious subtraction from the strength of our national life. The practical effect is not, perhaps, great as yet, but the moral effect, the dimming of our fine ideals, is already profound; and the disastrous outward result will follow in due time unless we return to our faith in human liberty and our safeguarding of it. One practical effect we do indeed see. Our generous sympathies are as if dried up. We cannot bid struggling people across the sea Godspeed with the old heartiness. As Macbeth's "Amen" struck in his throat when "one cried 'God bless us!'" so do our voices when we attempt to utter encouragement to brave men striving for freedom.

THE THEATRE AND THE CRITICS.

The veteran dramatic critic, Mr. Henry Austin Clapp, who has just begun the publication of his reminiscences in the *Atlantic*, speaks with gratitude of the full liberty accorded to him by the journal which he has so ably and discreetly represented for many years, and with compassion of some of his associates whom he knows to have been prevented, by counting-room influence, from telling the truth as they saw it. There can be no doubt that the evil to which he thus alludes was abominably prevalent within the memory of living men who are not yet very old. It was rooted sometimes in mere vulgar greed, sometimes in personal enmity or favoritism, and was, of course, in each and every case equally disreputable. Moreover, there were not a few so-called critics—there is no secret about the names of some of them—who were deliberately corrupt on their own account, making a traffic out of their praise or abuse, with notorious indifference to their own self-respect and their duty to the public and their employers.

But this condition of affairs does not exist to-day, except in very rare and isolated instances. An occasional black sheep is to be found in most flocks, and no doubt there are a few rascals in the considerable body of men who, in one capacity or another, write on theatrical topics for the press of all large cities; but there is no longer anything like a systematized practice of blackmail, and the relations between the newspapers and the theatres are conducted on ordinary business methods; the theatres, as a rule, getting very much the best of the bargain. It is not necessary, therefore, to dwell upon an old and exceedingly unsavory scandal; but there are one or two points connected with the subject that are of present interest, such as the quality of current dramatic criticism, and the effect of it upon the fortunes of a particular play, or upon the character of the drama in general.

Speaking broadly, a laudatory or even moderately favorable notice of a new play is much more likely to contribute to its success than is a strongly or even bitterly condemnatory review to injure its prospects. A denunciation of a play on the score of its immorality or offensiveness is—and the reflection is not comforting—almost certain to insure for it a long and remunerative run. This does not mean, necessarily, that the taste of the community at large is debased or naturally inclined to what is rank and foul, but it does signify that there is a large percentage of play-goers who are attracted by and are on the lookout for anything that is strange, audacious, or startling, and upon whose support, in certain circumstances, the unscrupulous manager may depend, if he can succeed in attracting their attention to his objectionable wares. Consequently, the critic who, in real or simulated indignation, enlarges upon grosser details, helps to perpetuate the very evil to which he is apparently laboring to put an end. There can be no manner of doubt that some of the most pernicious plays of recent seasons owed a great part of their financial prosperity to the persistency with which their most demoralizing incidents were described and discussed, sometimes with seeming relish, in the newspapers. The injury done not only to real theatrical art, but to the whole cause of public decency and morality, by such purblind enthusiasm is, it need scarcely be said, incalculable. In dealing with a play whose influence is clearly mischievous and whose artistic merit is small or nil, the only possible course for the sincere and judicious critic is to characterize it in general terms, and dilate, not upon its alluring viciousness, but upon its manifest deficiencies as entertainment. The public is willing to be shocked, amazed, or horrified, but hates to be bored. Nothing is more quickly fatal to a play than an imputation of dulness.

Perhaps the most serious charge that can be justly preferred against the bulk of dramatic criticism in the contemporary daily press is a lack, not so much of competency or honesty, as of seriousness and sense of proportion. It remains, for the most part, cynically or ignorantly indifferent to the higher possibilities of the stage as a potent agent in the elevation of the public mind and morals, as well as a fascinating means of amusement. During the period of decadence, which has been marked for at least a generation, newspaper criticism has fallen more and more into the habit of regarding theatrical affairs from the managerial point of view—of attaching undue importance to the mere externals of costume and scenery, and of paying absurd deference to the fictitious reputations, which it has helped to manufacture, of very moderate performers. The old standards have been forgotten or cast aside, and even the new are lowered from time to time to conceal the shrinkage of dwindling capacities. Without actual misrepresentation, there is constantly a suppression of the truth and a suggestion of the false, as if the poor old drama, being in a bad way, needed coddling to keep it alive, and might perish suddenly if violence were done to its feelings.

What the drama really requires is a course of tonics, and, above all, the ob-

servance of common-sense and proportion in the treatment of it. The amount of space which is wasted nowadays upon its irrelevant details is preposterous. It is time that we return to first principles, reduce the actor—exception may safely be made in the rare cases of genius—to the inconspicuousness of ordinary mortals, and, in dealing with a performance, put the play first, the interpretation second, and the decorations last of all. If criticism is to avail aught, it must tell the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth. To be sure, it has not always been popular with the public or with theatrical syndicates, but it is a policy worth the trying.

IMPRESSIONS OF SIAM.

BANGKOK, June 15, 1901.

Tides are very erratic near the mouth of the Bangkok River (Menam Chao Phraya), and the bar is an unreckonable quantity. At high water, large steamers pass with ease, but detentions of twelve and even thirty-six hours are not infrequent, especially for incoming steamers whose exact hour of arrival at the barrier cannot be foretold. But once over and inside the arms of the tortuous stream, it becomes immediately evident that a different country has been reached. Siamese architecture appears in the beautiful Wat Paknam, whose characteristic monuments rise on the left. Low and muddy banks are heavily wooded, and through the green occasionally protrude the white or gilded tops of *prachadees*, "merit-making" towers near temples, which lend a peculiarly individual accent to an otherwise monotonous landscape. Small boats are being paddled up and down, generally by women, whose short hair and general robustness make it difficult to distinguish which are the lords of this especial creation, except that the men are quite invariably lounging in the stern, watching the fine development of physique which exercise bestows upon the supposedly weaker sex. Even far down the river this boat-life begins, for a third of Bangkok lives afloat. Of this Venice of the East, the waterways (each a populous street), the network of canals threading the city, form quite the most picturesque feature.

Despite the alluvial character of the country, the river has very decisive currents, and, dependent upon changing tides, passage in the small native boats is simple or fraught with toil and difficulty. So large a part does the current play in Siamese life that a favorite proverb expresses belief in a heaven whose rivers have always a current up one side and down the other. With much naïveté the natives exhibit their amphibious qualities. Calmly smoking on their floating verandas, they may decide that it is now time for an unhurried plunge; after due deliberation a brown face and upstanding black hair on the surface of the muddy stream are all the visible tokens of the smoker. Beyond, a neighbor is perhaps sitting on the edge of his floor with feet dangling in the brown water, drying himself with whatever primitive appliance may be at hand; and tiniest children, supported by life-preservers made perhaps of petroleum tins, are splashing about, left unguarded by parents who know that a biscuit tin is better than weeks of instruction. Dipping up some of the unspeakable river water in their hands or a blue bowl, the bathers take long and refreshing draughts of the cooling element, or rinse out their betel-blackened mouths with its purity. It is whispered that certain ones high in authority never take long journeys away from home without a goodly supply of this water, for drinking in countries where there is less substance and flavor to the streams.

Shops are alluring when approached by water, and rows of golden Buddhas of most approved attitude and expression may be bought on the southern bank of one picturesque *klong*, while cheap but decorative blue dragon-china is omnipresent. From their lazy vantage-ground the natives hardly care to bestir themselves enough to show their wares. It is to them a matter of complete indifference whether they sell or not, and if one buys it is chiefly by dint of the purchaser's own energy and eloquence. Over most of these floating domiciles rise the beautiful curved roofs of Siam in all their wonderful grace, albeit small and of cheap materials, but hardly less attractive in outline than those of the fine temples themselves. And what a convenient way to live! If the neighborhood becomes unsympathetic, what is easier than to glide gently away and anchor in more congenial surroundings? Or if an enemy offend, a few holes may readily be bored in his floor at such time as he slumbers or bathes, and before long his household conditions will become pleasingly complicated. The poorer people live in smaller boats, with straw roofs only above the family treasures. But, poor or well-to-do, all have enough to eat, the amount of necessary clothing is a minimum, and life flows placidly onward. Months might happily be absorbed in idle exploration of the *klongs* and streams in all their miles of tortuous intricacy.

But the Chinese have entered in and taken peaceable possession. The streets are filled with them, the work is done by them; they reap the profits of industry. Early and late they may be seen, pulling jinrikishas, building, painting, digging, shop-keeping; the trail of the queue is over all, and, like Singapore, Bangkok may almost be called a Chinese city. The mixed descendants prove a stronger race than either original. The natives, unduly indolent, are quite content to see this unwarlike usurpation proceed. Even the making of porcelain has been abandoned, giving place to the universal Chinese blue. Happy is he who has in cabinet or case any genuine specimens of early Siamese pottery; it is all but a lost art. Silver-work, too, is wholly in the hands of the invaders, and, although certain Siamese designs are still constantly seen, as, for instance, the "story of the powerful monkey," they are now chiefly wrought by alien hands, and ideographs and dragons are taking their places.

In Oriental cities pawnshops are generally prolific in fine relics, and this was preeminently the case in Bangkok until the first of June this year. Then a spasm of municipal virtue unfortunately resulted in closing these attractive establishments, over which the khaki-clad native police now keep uncomfortable supervision. As a matter of fact, a good many stolen articles were to be found from time to time, and closing became imperative. A few favored shops are still open, under restrictions, where fine odds and ends may yet be found—among them occasional books, written in the Laos tongue, Sanskrit, Pali or Siamese, on parchment with brilliant illustrations, or on long and narrow leaves of palm, and each volume wrapped in its cover of old brocade. The by-lanes and remote passages where these and other shops flourish, are like pages from some indescribable book of the superlative. Hardly wide enough for two persons to pass comfortably, they are yet thronged with a motley array of hundreds. Chinese shout back and forth to one another in harsh yet sufficiently amiable expletives; gentle Siamese pursue their quiet avocations without so many words, but all are buying or selling, or carrying, or drinking various disastrous liquids of alluring colors, whose basis is river water; and in the interstices of the bewildering day are countless children, and an army of cowardly, slinking, and utterly miserable dogs. The insatiable love of gambling is evidenced by the many large rooms devoted exclusively to its uses, and patronized extensively by Chinese, who surround a huge straw mat, their piles of coin or shells before them, and risk their all upon the turn of a colored figure, or something equally simple. The pretty, roughly spherical Siamese silver *tical* is largely used, while the modern flat coins are bent and curved so that the manager of the group can more easily pull them in from the centre with his toothless rake. It is rare to receive, unbent, change of any value below the *tical*. Another form of gambling is expressed almost every night, when about two o'clock a long-drawn call echoes through the silent streets like the cry of doom, which it certainly is to many: the successful numbers in the day's lottery are being announced to an expectant city.

But away from the sordid dirt, from the sick, dejected, snarling dogs, from the gutters cheerfully lying beneath a coat of green under every native doorstep, away from the buzzing little electric cars, with their loads of still curious and partly terrified natives, and from the canals, empty at low tide, where the houses perch on stilts above the oozy mud, are the wide, well-kept streets and parks about the palace. A different world, yet the same tropical sun shines on smooth lawns and fine shrubbery, on the strange, half-barbarous yet wholly beautiful towers and monuments of the royal temples, their gilded tiles and porcelain pillars glistening like jewels of inestimable value, with a bewildering effect of gorgeous sparkle and splendor. The noble sky-line of curving roofs—two, three, even four double—the soft beauty of the dull green tiles bordered by old gold; or, vice-versa, the flame-like ornaments at the gables—all tell an exquisite architectural story. But even here is alien intrusion; and beside the cloistered rows of golden Buddhas, pillars of porcelain vases, bronze elephants, and the half-human, half-bird figures so distinctively Siamese, may almost invariably be found grinning dragons and impossible griffins carved in China. Despite these excrescences, and even worse ones, in stone images of obsolete Europeans, in the long coats and tall hats of an exaggerated Oriental imagination, the character of the temples and courtyards is not changed, and their dazzling if slightly theatrical beauty never fails to enwrap the beholder in joyful surprise.

Otherwhere than in the palace *wats*, degeneration and the quick finger of weather

are sadly evident. Tiles are falling, statues are broken and tipped over, porcelain flowers are chipping off down to the primeval plaster, and temple wall-paintings are a blur, from the rubbing of careless crowds. At the palace, however, the cool darkness of interiors is not disturbed by low-born contact, the paintings are still brilliant, reticent Buddhas sit undefaced in majestic silence before the silent visitor, and rows of golden bells along the eaves yet tinkle in melodious iteration with every passing breeze.

In the royal library the sleep of centuries seemed to be disturbed when the ancient curators, dozing on their floor-mats, sat up and hastily clothed themselves at the unwonted presence of a guest in those scholarly but soporific shades. They did not offer to show any of the beautiful old MS. books, but looked apathetically on at our interested survey of what little could be discovered in the twilight interior gloom. The King is still away, not having returned yet from his health trip to Java, so that an air of quiet, normal in the library, but unwonted in the courtyards, pervaded the royal precincts. Occasionally a pretty little princess, slender limbed and graceful, would pass from one room to another with her women, but all was very silent. Even the royal elephants stood subdued upon their pedestals, except one which impatiently beat continually upon his own forehead with his trunk, producing a peculiarly hollow reverberation, unpleasantly suggestive of emptiness within. Except for their albino eyes and a bleached effect about their ears, no one could describe these animals as white. Their color is disappointingly commonplace.

If the klongs are picturesque, no less so, but in very different ways, are the multitudinous wats, beautiful in their mournful decadence. The "golden mountain" is an artificial height, built up with rocks and masonry and bricks, abounding in grottoes where gilded Buddhas gleam faintly in semi-darkness; its terraces are overhung by vines, and hundreds of low, easily ascending steps conduct one comfortably to the summit shrine. The city spread out below seems shrouded in foliage, through which here and there emerges a graceful prachadee, or the lovely curve of a temple-roof, its tiles of green as soft and shadowy as the trees themselves. Occasionally, too, a "flame of the forest" splashes its vivid scarlet into the scene; and so beautiful are these high cloisters whence one can survey the kingdom, that even the shrine within and the lovely bells are not secondary. Wat Chang, its towers conspicuous from the river, its gray courtyards accented by the yellow robes of priests, is worthy of many visits; and Wat Poh, with the great recumbent Buddha, offers endless study of the genius of the past. The Buddha, one hundred and forty feet long, is still imposing, despite mutilation. The temple entrance is kept by a surly old woman, who reluctantly opens half a small doorway, through which one squeezes into—utter darkness. An attendant, usually a Bengalese, follows, and throws back a single shutter, whereupon the enormous heels of deity become visible, far overhead. The soles of the feet are delicately inlaid with mother-of-pearl; and on safely rounding this Cape of Exploration, the whole length of the huge reclining figure stretches away in dim perspective, the foreshortening enhanced by darkness, until all is swallowed up invisibly at the waist. But the attendant does not plan to be wholly miserly. A farther glimpse is allowed. Opening one shutter at a time, light is let through in sections. The left hand and arm, resting on the hip, emerge. Disppearing in darkness as the window is closed, the chest is revealed by another opening, then the right elbow, supporting the cheek, and at last the head itself. Though the whole interior is covered with dust, the roof broken through to the sky in half a dozen places, and the gold dropping off the Buddha in huge flakes, he is still impressive to a remarkable degree.

Many old customs are now obsolete, many modern ways are introduced, but the arranging of flowers, a national art quite different from the Japanese, is still practised. Actual fabrics of blossoms and buds are ingeniously woven and looped into a hundred lovely uses. The famous fighting fishes still pursue their mimic battles in bottles, turning from black to scarlet and green as the fray continues. But elephants do not play as conspicuous a part in Siamese life as the credulous have been led to suppose, and twins are not mentioned, though I did see a photograph of the famous pair in the Museum. The ancient fashion of throwing bodies of criminals to the vultures is now only history. Cremations of royal personages take place at intervals, gorgeous functions well worth a long journey to witness; for when a death occurs, the noble bones are often preserved for years in gilded shrines until several can share in the honor of the great ceremony. MABEL LOOMIS TODD.

FOUCHÉ.—III.

PARIS, July 28, 1901.

Fouché's political career, when once he became Minister of Police, was so completely mixed up with the career of Napoleon that to write his history completely is really to write the history of the Empire. His policy all along was, I repeat, one of equilibrium between the Royalists and the revolutionists. This policy often dictated to him acts of the greatest severity, one may say of cruelty; it allowed him at the same time to make friends in both camps, and to secure by acts of leniency the gratitude and the services of families of the Faubourg St.-Germain, as well as of the former Terrorists. Fouché always felt that the edifice of the Empire had no other foundation than the military genius of the Emperor, and that an unsuccessful campaign might ruin it. The Spanish war first shook his confidence in Napoleon, and it was the occasion of a reconciliation between him and Talleyrand, and of an alliance made in view of the death of Napoleon. Napoleon was alarmed by this reconciliation; he had, on his return from Spain, a great scene with the Prince of Benevento before the whole court. He began by alluding to those who sell the bear's skin before having killed him, and then, turning right on Talleyrand, insulted him in the most violent manner, reminding him that he was an apostate bishop, that he had counselled Napoleon to execute the Duke d'Enghien, and had urged him into this Spanish war which he was now exploiting against him. Allusions to Talleyrand's improbity were not withheld. He then retired, leaving all the members of the Government terrified. It was then that Talleyrand uttered quietly and with a smile the famous words: "What a pity that so great a man should be so ill-bred." The day after, Talleyrand learned that he had ceased to be High Chamberlain. Fouché had not himself been addressed by the Emperor; but he knew what to think when Napoleon, looking at him at the same time as at Talleyrand, said: "Beware! If there is a new revolution, whatever part you may have taken in it, you will be among the first whom it will crush."

The year 1809 was a critical period for Fouché as well as for Napoleon. When the Emperor left Paris for the campaign of 1809, he could not but see that France was uneasy; the fierce resistance of Spain, the ill-will of Austria, the active hatred of England, were a source of great anxiety. Napoleon had lost all confidence in Fouché, and ordered him to send him daily bulletins during the whole campaign. These he controlled by the reports of his private correspondents. The defeat which the Imperial arms sustained at Essling was fortunately followed by the victory at Wagram. This victory put Napoleon in good humor, and on the 15th of August Fouché was made Duke of Otranto. Fouché took it upon himself to make a levy of the national guard, notwithstanding the opposition of his colleagues. Napoleon sided with Fouché on this question, but he soon changed his mind, as the nominations which Fouché made in the guard did not all meet with his approval. He was warned also against the close relations established between Fouché and Bernadotte, who was hostile to him and who affected to be almost independent of him. Bernadotte was replaced by Bessières and the national guard was dissolved. When the Emperor returned from the war, he summoned Fouché to Fontainebleau and had an angry conversation with him without witnesses. We only know what Ségur tells in his Memoirs, of having seen the Duke of Otranto leave the room in a state of great agitation. He took a long walk with Fouché in the forest of Fontainebleau.

"There, in a long and terrified monologue, the Minister, as if he were answering the reproaches of the Emperor, reviewed before Ségur, who was stupefied, his terrible existence, trying to justify all his adhesion to the Revolution of '89, to the Republic in '92, his vote of January, '93, his odious mission of the year II., recalling the part which he had taken in the ninth Thermidor, in the ruin of the Jacobins under the Directory, in the *coup d'état* of Brumaire and the establishment of the Empire—all in such a vehement tone that his confidant concluded that the Minister must have been, in the Emperor's room, paralyzed by too cruel recriminations."

Everybody believed that Fouché was going to fall into complete disgrace; but there were too many ties between him and the Emperor. Not to speak of the old ties, there were new questions which made Fouché's services necessary. There was the clerical question, which had become very acute, as Napoleon was in open warfare with Rome. There was also the question of Napoleon's divorce. Though Fouché had been on the most intimate terms with Josephine and had helped her in many ways in the days of the Directory and of the Consulate, he had been the first openly to favor the idea of the divorce; whether he did so spontaneously or to obey the Emperor it is difficult to say. Napoleon several times affected to be angry with him for his interference in this delicate matter. Fouché probably knew that these outbursts of anger were not very sincere; he maintained that

it was necessary for the permanence of the Empire that Napoleon should have an heir, and it had become certain that Josephine could have no children. The choice of the new Empress was a political question. There were only two possible candidates—a Russian or an Austrian princess. Fouché was in favor of a Russian alliance, and spoke with great power against the Austrian, which, in his opinion, could only be the signal of a reaction against the principles of the Revolution. His opinion did not triumph, and on the 7th of February, 1810, Napoleon announced to his Council that he had chosen for wife Maria Louise of Austria. The marriage took place on the 7th of April. The niece of Marie Antoinette and of Louis XVI. was on the French throne. Fouché was not frightened by the satisfaction with which the Austrian marriage had been received in the Faubourg St.-Germain. The Empress Marie Louise played her first game of whist at the Tuileries with two regicides, Cambacérès and Fouché. Metternich treated Fouché with much consideration in his correspondence. The Emperor Francis, in his parting instructions to Marie Louise, told her to consult often M. Fouché "as being a useful man."

"It is difficult," says M. Madelin, "to imagine the degree of infatuation to which the Duke of Otranto had attained in May, 1810." The end of his favor was, however, approaching. He undertook to move alone in a sphere which Napoleon had reserved to himself. He desired to reconcile Napoleon with England, and sent an unofficial envoy, Fagan, to Lord Wellesley. This first mission failed. The army contractor Ouvrard and a merchant called Labouchère were new instruments chosen by him. Napoleon had some knowledge of this second mission, but Fouché had the audacity to substitute instructions of his own for those of his sovereign. There were some clandestine meetings of Lord Wellesley and of Labouchère. The Emperor, hearing of them, was greatly displeased; he had an angry scene with Fouché on the 2d of June, and the next day announced to the Council the dismissal of the Minister of Police. Fouché was appointed Governor of the Roman States, which was equivalent to his exile. Before leaving the ministry, he burnt an enormous quantity of papers, and the Emperor, becoming uneasy at his presence in Paris, ordered him to go to his country house at Ferrières. Documents concerning the mission given to Fagan were discovered after his departure. The Emperor claimed papers which Fouché had appropriated; Fouché refused to send them back, and when they were claimed five times unsuccessfully, Napoleon became exasperated, and definitely condemned Fouché to exile.

The Duke of Otranto took flight to Italy. He remained for a while in Florence, then came back to France, and received orders to remain in Aix. For a time he sank into oblivion, so much so that he was allowed to go back to Ferrières, where he lived in complete retirement. He pretended to have renounced all ambition; the Emperor thought it more prudent to give him some occupation than to let him stay near Paris. He employed him in various secondary missions, and finally intrusted him with the Governorship of the Illyrian provinces. Fouché showed in this post his qualities as an administrator, but the Austrian invasion of Illyria forced him to abandon Trieste and to take refuge in Venice.

M. Madelin has thrown much light on Fouché's doings in Italy, on his relations with King Murat, who sometimes was tempted to help Napoleon in his struggle against the coalition, and sometimes to betray him. Napoleon's admirable campaign in France in 1814 could not save the Empire. Fouché saw the end coming, and returned to France in great haste. Paris capitulated on the 31st of March, and the Senate proclaimed Louis XVIII. King. Fouché took his place in the Senate, entered into communication with M. de Vitrolles, the agent of the Bourbons, and sent memoirs to the King and to the Tsar. He was prepared to take advantage of events, whatever they might be. He kept in touch with Talleyrand during the Congress of Vienna; he was only half contented with the Bourbons. During the critical days which followed the landing of Napoleon at Golfe-Jouan, Fouché tried to impose himself on Louis XVIII. as a saviour. The ministry was offered him one day; the Count d'Artois asked for an interview with him, but the triumphal march of Napoleon towards Paris made Fouché hesitate. He refused to accept the ministry, and the order was given to arrest him. He succeeded in escaping over his garden-wall and in hiding himself, and when Napoleon came to the Tuileries, Fouché was among those who received him.

The latter part of M. Madelin's voluminous work is filled with the dramatic events which followed. We see in it Fouché serving and betraying Napoleon at the same time, forcing himself on the Bourbons, becoming for a moment *persona grata* with the Count d'Artois, entering the ministry formed by Louis XVIII., and soon afterwards obliged to leave it and condemned to exile as a regicide. This time his exile was final. His intrigues ceased to have any importance. He died at Trieste on the 26th of December, 1820, almost forgotten. M. Madelin says of him that he will remain in history as a mere intriguer, but an "intriguer of genius, the model of the politicians of the century which was to follow."

Correspondence.

TAXING OUR OWN TONGUE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You have repeatedly called attention to the fact that our Custom-house authorities, in their zeal to protect domestic industry, seem to look upon any attempt to buy any object abroad as some sort of high treason. The following experience which it was my privilege to undergo, may serve as a good illustration. A few days ago I received the 'Gedenkbuch zur Erinnerung an David Kaufmann,' a volume published in memory of the late Jewish scholar who died in Karlsbad July 6, 1899. This volume consists of contributions by various scholars, and comprises 882 pages, written mostly in German, and containing—besides contributions in French, Hebrew, Arabic—twelve pages in English. For my temerity in buying a book of 882 pages of which twelve are in English and had been printed in a foreign country, thus depriving the American workingman of a change to earn a livelihood, and attempting to reduce him to the level of European slave labor, I was ordered to pay $1.25 as duty on a book the whole cost of which, including the 870 pages printed in foreign languages, is about $5. It may be well for everybody who insists on reading books printed in foreign countries to profit by this experience. Any one importing Onoken's 'Allgemeine Geschichte in Einzeldarstellungen' might be charged duty on the whole work because the part dealing with the history of America contains a facsimile of the Declaration of Independence. So duty might be charged on Hauck's theological Encyclopædia, because in the article "Quakers" are found abstracts from George Fox's diary. Finally, there is no reason why the works of Lessing should be admitted free of duty unless the title of his tragedy "Miss Sara Sampson" be changed to "Fräulein Sara Simson."

These suggestions are furnished to the Government as the free gift of a patriotic citizen.—Respectfully yours,

G. Deutsch.

Cincinnati, O., August 3, 1901.

HARE'S AMERICAN STORIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Returning from some weeks' absence, I find in a recent number of the *Nation* an allusion to the absurd American stories which Augustus Hare has crowded into the last volume of the 'Story of My Life.' Will you allow me to say to your readers that I think we must trace those absurdities to a well-known American sculptress famous from early youth for her love of practical jokes? A careful reading will show that it was to her that Mr. Hare was indebted for the "good stories" which she had spoiled for his amusement. The Rev. Silas may be forgiven to an elderly man growing deaf, but the words attributed to the Rev. Phillips Brooks, and the story concerning Fanny Kemble Butler, carry their own refutation. Phillips Brooks never had any temptation to knock anybody down. Mrs. Butler's most intimate friends, when she first came to Boston, were the Sedgwicks of Stockbridge. They were also very dear friends of the Bartols, and though she knew how to be rude on fit occasion, she was loyal in friendship, and would never have been insolent to people beloved by her best friends.

In his first volumes Mr. Hare, who seems never to have read an American newspaper, told some absurd stories about Jefferson Davis. Of those volumes, I purchased the American reprint, and was much astonished one day when a gentleman quoted them as a proof that he was only an idle gossip. I insisted that there were no such things in the book. He brought me the English edition and showed me the passages. On comparing the two, we discovered that Dodd, Mead & Co. had kindly omitted the mistaken statements.

Of the last two volumes, I have only the English edition, but I earnestly hope that they have exercised the same care in regard to the statements due to his Italian intercourse with a woman who evidently wished to rebuke what she considered conceit and idle curiosity.

Caroline H. Dall.

Leicester, Mass., August 1, 1901.

THE FIRST AMERICAN SURGEON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Perhaps it is as well that Dr. Packard, in his 'History of Medicine in the United States,' did not say that the surgeon's name was John Pratt, as is regretted in the *Nation* for July 25, p. 77. In the *N. E. Historical and Genealogical Register* for January, 1864, I think I proved, so far as proof is possible, that this first surgeon was Abraham Pratt.—Yours truly,

Wm. S. Appleton.

Newton Centre, Mass., July 30, 1901.

[Mr. Appleton is evidently correct in supposing that it was Abraham Pratt who was drowned off Cadiz. John Pratt sailed in the *Lion's Whelp* May 11, 1629, but went back on the return voyage of that ship. Whether that Pratt returned is not known. There was a John Pratt in Cambridge in 1635, who later went to Connecticut; and, following Savage's notes to Winthrop, we confounded him with the shipwrecked Abraham.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Provision for juvenile readers is making by Henry Altemus Co., Philadelphia, with 'Folly in Fairy-land,' by Carolyn Wells, 'Galopoff, the Talking Pony,' by Tudor Jenks; and 'Sea Kings and Naval Heroes,' by Hartwell James—among others.

Archibald Constable & Co. will publish in London in October, and G. P. Putnam's Sons in New York, 'The Death of the Gods,' an historical romance by a new Russian writer, Dimitri Mereikovski.

E. P. Dutton & Co. publish immediately 'Imperial London,' by Arthur H. Beavan, a beautifully illustrated quarto, and 'Lake Geneva and its Literary Landmarks,' by Francis Gribble.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, whose publishing department will hereafter be under the management of Mr. F. G. Browne, hitherto business manager of the *Dial*, announce 'Rugs, Oriental and Occidental, Antique and Modern,' a ready reference-book, by Miss Rosa Belle Holt, with illustrations, in quarto.

A dreary and inglorious period in our history is described by Mr. Edwin C. Woolley under the title 'The Reconstruction of Georgia' (Columbia University Press, Macmillan). The greater part of the essay is taken up with an account of the various policies of reconstruction, and little attention is paid to the actual doings of the carpet-baggers. The legal and constitutional features of these policies are clearly set forth, but the particulars are devoid of present interest. Yet we may see like tangles in the Philippine Islands.

Far more elaborate is Mr. James Wilford Garner's 'Reconstruction in Mississippi' (Macmillan). The author begins with the period before the civil war, traces the growth of the secession movement, and describes at length the destruction and misery caused by the war. By the census of 1860 there were 70,295 white males in the State between the ages of eighteen and forty-five, while the enlistments in the Confederate army were 78,000, over one-fourth of those who enlisted perishing. The destruction of property was almost complete, and the barbarous cotton tax imposed by Congress in revenge for disloyal ebullitions made recovery impossible. Nowhere did the institution of slavery have more disastrous consequences, for whites as well as blacks. The attempt to establish the freedmen as rulers over their former masters had such success as might have been foreseen. The dismal story is told impartially by Mr. Garner, and it is idle to attempt to apportion blame.

Little good has come from the South African war, but Mr. Mortimer Menpes, who served as correspondent of *Black and White*, has done his best to bring out what good was to be observed. Under the title 'War Impressions: Being a Record in Colour' (London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan), he presents us with more than two hundred sketches, many of which are very beautiful. The coloring of the mountains, the veldt, and the sky is frequently superb, and makes one feel that the country is worth fighting for. The text, by Dorothy Menpes, is pleasant reading, and is without the brutal tone of much English writing on the subject. Mr. Menpes speaks highly of both the Boers and the English soldiers, and disbelieves the stories of misconduct on either side. But, as he tells us, he shut his eyes to wounds and horrors, looking as an artist only for the picturesque and the beautiful. This, perhaps, explains the positively servile adulation with which he describes persons of high position. It would be unfair to dismiss this attractive book without calling attention to the admirable work of Messrs. Carl Hentschel of London, in reproducing and printing the illustrations.

A new edition of Mr. D. H. Montgomery's 'Leading Facts of English History' (Ginn & Co.) puts forward for its frontispiece a portrait of Edward VII., and is in other respects brought to within a few months or weeks of publication. This is a book which omits no means of catching the school-boy's attention, even to the quotation of lines from an overworked song like "The Lights of London." On the whole, its anecdotes and selections from the poets are not badly chosen, though some of them strike the jaded reader of manuals as being very, very old. Mr. Montgomery has not, apparently, kept pace with the most recent writers on English constitutional history, and we can say little in praise of the illustrations. Otherwise there are grounds of favorable criticism. The author has a personal acquaintance with English scenes and English life, he has read a good many standard works, and what he says is marked by a wholesome tone. The passages devoted to the state of society and commerce give the narrative a pleasant diversity, and the footnotes frequently contain bits of amusing information. Best of all, Mr. Montgomery enjoys his work, and succeeds in imbuing his pages with a feeling of his fondness for historical study.

'The Chevalier de St. George and the Jacobite Movements in his Favour' (David Nutt) is a volume in the series entitled "Scottish History from Contemporary Writers." Its editor, Mr. Charles Sanford Terry, produced last year a similar book of selections for the time of Charles Edward, which he called 'The Rising of 1745.' He now goes back to the War of the Spanish Succession, and takes up the plots fomented by Louis XIV. with the ostensible object of restoring the Stuarts, though mainly with a view to weakening England. The earlier and later risings alike furnished good material for the writer of memoirs, and Mr. Terry, by drawing upon Lockhart, Forbin, Melfort, and Sinclair, is able to give a capital account of Jacobite intrigue during the earlier phases of its history. Simon Fraser, Lord Lovat, is a prominent figure in the days of the '15 as of the '45, and his presence infuses a good deal of color throughout Mr. Terry's collection of excerpts. The dates of the volume are 1701-1720, a range which includes, besides the Scots plot of 1703 and the French descent of 1708, the Swedish plot and the attempt of 1719. 1715 was the central year in the political life of "James III.," and it receives much of the editor's attention here, but many readers will find more that is new to them in Mr. Terry's chapters on 1703, 1708, and 1719. The notes are copious, and the illustrations have been chosen with great judgment. Bearing in mind its moderate cost, the book may be called very good value.

We are glad to notice the appearance in a second edition of the first volume of Dr. Rodkinson's translation of the Babylonian Talmud. This volume contains the tract Sabbath, and appeared in its first edition in 1896. Dr. Rodkinson seems somewhat surprised that a new edition has not been called for until now. He might consider how few translations of any portion of the Talmud have ever been reprinted. The curious will find in the 182 pages of this volume what are the consequences of taking the Sabbath seriously.

Whoever Mirza Mem'n of the unintelligible name may be, his "Rubaiyât" (Chicago: W. O. Shepard Co.) are very flat imitations of Omar's, flatter even and more un-Persian than those of Richard Le Gallienne. Thirty-seven out of the 131, we are told in a note, are "paraphrased from McCarthy's elegant prose translation" of Omar. We learn from the same note that this Mirza does not know what a Ghazal is. The chief pity about the book is that so much of the art and skill of the printer has been wasted on it.

If Dr. Archibald Macmechan would learn the difference between sentiment and sentimentality, he might do much better than he has done in his 'Porter of Bagdad, and Other Fantasies' (Toronto: George N. Morang). Several of these little sketches are full of grace and suggestion, pretty flutterings round an idea. But they are also full of laborious disappointments where the flutterings are heavy and the idea trivial.

That useful compendium, the "Histoire Générale du IVe siècle, à nos jours," edited by MM. Lavisse and Rambaud, reaches its end in the twelfth volume, 'Le Monde Contemporain, 1870-1900' (Paris: Armand Colin); the eleventh, 'Révolutions et Guerres Nationales, 1848-1870,' having appeared in 1898. The writers are in the main the same as in the earlier portions of the work, and these volumes show the same judicious apportionment of space and the same unimpassioned narrative. It is the fate of an historical record thus conceived to fail in interest as it approaches the present day, when we think ourselves familiar with events, and value only the comparison of opinion upon them. The closing volume is, however, by no means without interest, although we cannot think the Dreyfus case is adequately treated in a paragraph of nine lines on the attitude of the Brisson

Ministry towards revision; nor do we find the spice we look for in the account of our own Spanish war and our "insular" policies. Of the latter M. Moireau writes hopefully: "L'histoire des Êtas-Unis n'a pas appris que les Américains fussent incapables de s'accommoder à des situations inaccoutumées. Race essentiellement habile à tirer parti de toutes les circonstances, à saisir le côté pratique des choses, à s'instruire par une expérience rapide, ils se tireront d'affaire avec les Philippines comme avec le reste; les difficultés d'administration coloniale ne les trouvent pas à court de solutions."

In the thirty-seventh volume of the 'Jahrbuch der deutschen Shakespeare-Gesellschaft' (Berlin) the editors continue their commendable custom of including an Elizabethan play hitherto inaccessible in modern form. The piece selected for reprint this year is the anonymous "Warres of Cyrus," 1594, a drama of respectable quality of the school of Marlowe, the story being drawn from Xenophon's 'Cyropedia,' the whole now competently edited by Dr. Wolfgang Keller. Other matters of interest in the volume are the essay by Ernest von Possart on the staging of Shaksperian and similar dramas, by Walter Bormann on Shakspere's Scenical Technique and Dramatic Art, and especially the communication from Richard Garnett on "A Stratford Tradition respecting Shakespeare," pleading for the just authority of early tradition in unsettled questions of literary history, and building up an ingenious argument for a later dating (after 1607) of "Othello" and "Macbeth" from the Ward tradition "that Shakespeare, when living at New Place, regularly supplied the London stage with two plays a year." The usual book-notices in its field and valuable Shakspere Bibliography conclude the volume. The activity of American scholars receives due notice, some fifteen or sixteen American items being recorded in a list of about sixty noticed.

It appears from the semi-annual statement just issued by Mr. Solberg, Register of Copyrights, that his office has made a gross profit for the Government in four years of $82,287, and a net profit of some $60,000. The business of the past half-year amounted to 46,526 applications acted upon and titles filed and numbered, besides other very extensive labors.

The Quarterly Statement for July of the Palestine Exploration Fund contains a just tribute to the late Sir Walter Besant, for many years its Secretary, to whose tact and knowledge, together with that of Mr. Hepworth Dixon, it is due "that almost every book published by the Fund has been a commercial success." There are reports by Mr. Macalister, and some archæological notes by Prof. Clermont-Ganneau, chiefly upon the mosaic map of Palestine found at Mâdeba, in the land of Moab, near Mt. Nebo. This fact leads to the interesting suggestion that the geographical picture in question is intended to be a memorial of the scene which took place on Nebo's summit when Moses, about to die, was permitted to see in one supreme vision the Promised Land which he himself was not allowed to enter. Mr. Baldensperger concludes his account, interspersed with legend and incident, of Woman in Palestine, describing the life of the Bedawin, gypsy and Egyptian, the latter being descendants of the colonists transplanted to Palestine by Mohammed Ali during his occupation of the land sixty years ago. The traditional site of Golgotha and the Holy Sepulchre is defended by Canon MacColl, with much warmth, against the claims of the so-called "Gordon's tomb." Dr. Schick reports that it is proposed, if feasible, to construct an aqueduct from the Euphrates across the Syrian desert to Medina and Mecca.

The *National Geographic Magazine* for July contains a brief sketch of the comparatively recent history of China, with special reference to the relations of this country with her, by Mr. John Barrett. At the close we find the extraordinary statement "that the Chinese, if necessary, are a warlike people. They are born warriors." That they will fight if compelled to is no doubt true, but their real attitude towards war is shown by the fact that they place the warrior in the lowest class into which mankind is divided. Mr. T. Williams treats of the "link relations of southwestern Asia," illustrating his subject by several relief maps and charts.

It has long been known to art students that Albert Dürer painted a St. Jerome during his sojourn at Antwerp, in 1521, but what became of the picture remained a mystery until quite recently, when it was discovered in the museum at Lisbon, by Prof. Dr. A. Weber. The *Monatsberichte für Kunstwissenschaft, etc.* (Heft 8) contains an article on the subject by Professor Weber, accompanied by fine reproductions of the painting and of some of the master's studies for it. Among the latter is one of Dürer's best and most famous drawings, the "Head of an Old Man," in the Albertina at Vienna.

The cause of scientific exploration has suffered a severe blow in the death by dysentery of one of its leaders, Mr. William Doherty, in the railway hospital at Nairobe, British East Africa, May 25. Mr. Doherty was a native of Cincinnati. After graduating from the Woodward High School and studying one year in the University, he went to the Paris Exposition of 1878. The following winter he was in Greece. In 1879 he travelled through Persia and Afghanistan into British India. This country became practically his home for the rest of his life. He explored every part of it, including Southern Tibet and Burmah; also the great Eastern Archipelago. He made two trips to New Guinea. Mr. Doherty's specialty was the discovering and classifying of new species of butterflies and moths, in which he was *facile princeps*. Of late he had also collected many rare species of birds. Most of his collections are in the Rothschild Zoölogical Museum at Tring, Herts, England, some in the British Museum, and in France, Belgium, and Germany. Very few have found their way to this country.

—*Scribner's* for August is offered to the reader as a "fiction number"; the best thing in it, however, is not fiction at all, but an excellent sketch of a Samoan boy, adopted by the writer, Isobel Strong ("A Little Savage Gentleman"). The boy was a chief's son and was taken into the Stevenson household at Vailima by his adoptive mother. The title of the article is well chosen, for "chief" among the Samoans corresponds in a curious way with our "gentleman"—that is, it brings before the mind a certain Samoan ideal of breeding and behavior which corresponds to a remarkable degree with our own. Indeed, the delicacy of this Samoan boy and his consideration for the feelings of others far exceeded that of the average *gentilis homo* in the Western world. The leading story in the number is "A Derelict," by Richard Harding Davis. It would be a bold man who should criticise Mr. Davis frankly: the violence of his style arouses physical alarm in the humble critic's mind. At the same time, we take the liberty of observing that manner may, as has proved the case with other greater lights of fiction, as well as of verse, outlast matter; and the effect of this possibility upon the writer is to lead him to exaggerate his manner more and more until it becomes unbearable, when his public finally deserts him. A great object of the school to which Mr. Davis belongs is to make blackguards and outcasts interesting, as in this story. But these blackguards and outcasts of his are not convincing.

—*Harper's* is also a "fiction number," but contains a good deal besides. "A Hundred Years' War of To-day," by Ralph D. Blumenfeld, deals with the operations of the Dutch in Achin. According to this writer, the whole of the Achinese coast is now held by Holland, but the interior is unsubdued, and every year a certain number of Dutch soldiers are sent out to recruit the eastern army, which is a force of some 40,000 men. "At least half this army might be safely disbanded, were it not for the constant struggle in Achin." We have heard so much of the complete success of the Dutch colonial system that it is worth remembering that this war has, up to date, cost $85,000,000—a burden which is really borne by Java, as that island yields enough to pay for the Achinese war in perpetuity, and leave a handsome surplus. The Achinese live in a little country, about two-thirds the size of the State of Maine, and number some half a million souls. They have kept up the present war for twenty-eight years, obstinately preferring death to subjugation. They are Mohammedans, and are encouraged to die for their country by their Moslem priests. The soldiers sent out from Holland, it is said, all die in Achin, but this does not matter, as they are mercenaries. Julian Ralph has an article on "The English of the English," which is readable, though inaccurate. Thirty years ago such a paper would have provoked much discussion; now the problems suggested by the divergence between the English of England and that of the United States arouse but a languid popular interest. Partly, no doubt, this is due to the fact that the whole field has been pretty well gone over already, and partly to the fact that correctness of speech no longer counts for much socially among the wealthy and powerful. Mr. Ralph's point is that a very large number of ordinary words designating the commonest things in every-day use are so totally different in the two countries that the English terms have no meaning in American ears, and vice versa. But some of the instances given need revision. We have never, for example, seen the "conductor" of an English train. One of the phrases heard every day here, which is absolutely unintelligible to most Englishmen, is "right away" for directly; and to us "spatchcock" seems a strange term for broiled chicken.

—Henry Austin Clapp begins in the *Atlantic* a series of "Reminiscences of a Dramatic Critic." Mr. Clapp for many years

thus served the Boston *Advertiser* as far back as the days when the editor of that paper was the late Professor Dunbar. Among other changes that he notes is the disappearance of the old farces, of negro minstrelsy, and of plays for children. What do any of the children of to-day know, he asks, "of the wild joys which thrilled our little breasts when 'The Enchanted Horse,' 'The Enchanted Beauty,' 'The Forty Thieves,' 'The Children of Cyprus,' and 'Aladdin' possessed the fairyland of the stage?" Again, a generation is now growing up which will not know "Box and Cox" or "Poor Pillicoddy," and will never have heard the delightful indigenous humor of the End Man and the touching voices of his melodious and corked associates. Of course, we shall be told that we have far finer things now, but this is no answer to a theatre-goer, who is, by the very law of his being, a *laudator temporis acti*. If Mr. Clapp were to have undertaken to prove that the theatre of to-day is every bit as good as it ever was, we should have had our suspicions of him; but he is true to his rôle. The period here gone over is that which has witnessed the rise and progress of the "variety show" and its final extraordinary apotheosis in "refined vaudeville"—perhaps as absurd a work of theatrical fashion as any which the boards have seen; for, as Mr. Clapp points out, what is now called vaudeville is nothing but the once despised "variety," grown fashionable, and, we may add, ameliorated. Why this form of exhibition should have so extended itself as to seem at times to threaten to drive out the legitimate drama, would require an essay by itself. We doubt if "continuous vaudeville" would have been imaginable to the theatre-goer, or even to the manager, of fifty years ago. It needs a potential audience to draw upon enormously greater than any that existed at that time, and this audience, too, must be of a different sort; must be averse to having its attention strained by a long effort, must be rather volatile and frivolous. Still, there are all sorts of audiences in the modern metropolis, and there seems to be still a good demand for Shakspere, even for Shakspere as acted by Irving, which is certainly a great strain on the attention. Mr. Clapp notices the persistent vitality of the Robertsonian drama, and insists that a nation which is producing no readable dramatic literature is producing no dramas of any lasting importance.

—The New York Public Library gives in its Bulletin for July a list of its manuscript collections, of which it has printed examples from time to time. Rich as were known to be its stores in this line, the list more than fulfils expectation. Perhaps the Emmet collection should take precedence for its interest in historical and autographic material, and certainly stands first as the life-labor of an enthusiastic and intelligent collector. But the Bancroft papers deserve to be mentioned in the same range, in spite of the fact that so many are in the form of transcripts. Too little attention is paid in this country to the value of such collections as Sparks and Bancroft made, containing copies of much that has since been lost, and series of documents long since scattered. The papers of Samuel Adams in the Bancroft collection are sufficient to show that much original matter is to be found in it. Supplementary to the Bancroft may be placed the Chalmers papers, relating as they do to the history of the British colonies in America, while the collection of Theodorus Bailey Myers enables the New York Public Library to say that it holds four complete sets of autographs of the signers of the Declaration of Independence —three of these belonging to the Emmet series. Covering a later period may be named the Washington letters and the Gouverneur, Madison, and Monroe papers, and the huge Ford collection, which has not yet been fully arranged, though known to be of considerable historical value. We have yet to mention the Rich papers, relating to early American history—and one of Mr. Lenox's own acquisitions—and the Hardwicke manuscripts, chiefly on European history. Nor is the curious entirely absent, for the Burns and other Scottish forgeries are included and frankly acknowledged to be the product of clever rascality. It would be a great assistance to students of history if other libraries would issue similar lists, for the wealth of unpublished manuscript material scattered in our large depositories is greater than has been believed.

—Mr. Maclay has not profited by the kindly suggestions we made in our review of the earlier volumes of his 'History of the Navy,' now issued in three volumes by D. Appleton & Co. He has clung to his habitual methods, which betoken the credulous annalist rather than the sober historian. The third volume fairly bristles with faults of the same kind which we noted in its predecessors, particularly lack of the critical faculty and lack of perspective. We are tempted to imagine that those of Mr. Maclay's correspondents who responded most fully to his requests for information secured the most pages in his work. On no other ground can we account for the absence of all reference to Commander (now Captain) Wadleigh's plucky service in 1883, when, in the *Alliance*, a frail and unsuitable craft, he penetrated far into the Arctic Ocean in search of news of DeLong; for total silence as to deep-sea sounding, such as Commander (now Rear-Admiral) Belknap's in the *Tuscarora*, and as to the seal-herd patrol in Bering Sea on the one hand, or, on the other, for the exaggerated allotment of space to the *Maine* episode. The reason why the confessedly gallant rescue of Greely is ignored lies, doubtless, in the author's opinion of the leader of that expedition, as manifested in a bitter denunciation of Schley's conduct in the war with Spain. This matter is one in which honest men find room to differ concerning the awful charge of cowardice, even if agreed in condemning Schley's waste of golden opportunities. Happily, the whole affair is soon to be judicially determined. Let us hope that the ghost of a sickening controversy will then be laid for all time.

—Besides the omissions mentioned, a multitude of others come to mind, any one of which is quite as worthy of chronicling as the uniforms worn by the *Maine's* officers and men as she entered Havana harbor, or as worthy of the full page in fine type devoted to Sigsbee's biography—an honor wholly denied to Sampson, and but half accorded to Dewey and to Clark of the *Oregon*! A real historian would have sought the causes of the survival of naval *esprit de corps* (so splendidly displayed in the Spanish-American war), during the rotting of the old ships, and before the new ones came to be built, and he would have found them in the vigor and pertinacity with which Admiral Porter kept up the drills and inspections of the old-time craft. He would also have thought twice before embarrassing that capital, modest officer, our Admiral, by stating that Dewey "undoubtedly excelled Nelson's victory at Aboukir." The book contains annals interesting and generally trustworthy, but—history? As Kipling says, "That is another story."

—Professor Tyrrell has presented, through the Macmillan Co., an 'Anthology of Latin Poetry.' Like Mr. Stedman's collections of English and American poetry, Professor Tyrrell's volume seeks to be representative of the entire field, illustrating his previous critical estimate of the Latin poets, and not to present simply the best. Nearly seventy authors, known and unknown, are presented, Boëthius closing the list. No two men will ever agree as to what should be included in such a collection, but when we are told that the guiding principle in making selections from Horace has been "a wish to illustrate the great variety of his lyric measures," we naturally feel the omission of several forms in which Horace wrote effectively, even if he used them but little. The one ode in the Greater Sapphic strophe, i. 8, is well worthy a place on its intrinsic merit, and the same may be said of at least two of the three short odes in the Greater Asclepiad. To represent the Lesser Asclepiad, either the dedicatory ode, i. 1, or the epilogue at the end of book iii., might better have been selected than the remaining specimen of this metre, iv. 8. The choice of this last ode has evidently been prompted by a desire to display the emendatory skill of the compiler. The ode as it stands in the manuscripts violates the canon of Meineke that a lyric of Horace must be reducible to four-line stanzas. Thirty-four is not divisible by four, and so three passages, six lines in all, are boldly cut out. The first excision, from the middle of line 15 to the middle of 19, is based on the assertion that the lines are an interpolation "by which some subsequent writer sought to narrow down the generalities of Horace into special applications to Roman history." This is rather dangerous dealing with an author who is noted for his constant habit of making special applications of his general ideas. There are some difficulties in the passage, but they are no more incapable of a fairly satisfactory solution than many unquestioned lines, and should not be excised in deference to a rule which no student of Horace ever discovered until recent times. Line 28 is cut out as "a versified gloss" on the half-line following, and 33 meets the same fate because of its close resemblance to the last line of iii. 25. Students of Horace will not generally follow Professor Tyrrell in such summary dealing with the manuscript readings. As nearly four pages are given up to selections from the poetical remains of Cicero, we take it that the author has not repented of his attempt in his Johns Hopkins lectures on Latin Poetry to establish the merit of Cicero as a poet. The case is hopeless. Quintilian, with all his admiration for Cicero, could not avoid a fervent regret that he had not spared himself criticism in the field of poetry; and Tacitus, in the 'Dialogus,' said the last word, and said it well, when he made one of the interlocutors remark that Cæsar and Brutus had written

poetry, "not better than Cicero, but with better luck, since fewer were aware that they had done so." But these points are not of vital importance, and the collection as a whole is well adapted to its purpose.

—Parts 6 and 7 of the 'Catalogo Generale della Libreria Italiana,' 1847-1899 (Milan: Hoepli; New York: Lemcke & Büchner), are wholly in the letter C, with need of more than six pages for the rubric "Catalogo" itself, and more than four for "Cenno" and "Cenni." "Centenario," too, is prominent. Cicero requires three and a half columns, far surpassing Cæsar and even Catullus, whom the Italians are never tired of trying to turn into the vernacular, while at intervals of twenty years efforts have been made to purge him for school use. Carlo Cattaneo, who is coming to his own again, as our readers were lately informed, fills nearly a column; Carducci takes two and a half; that erratic genius Cavallotti, poet, dramatist, and politician, one and a quarter. Cavour dead has produced many volumes, from his Diary in 1888 to the inedited letters of 1895, following two editions of the ten-volume collection (1863-1871; 1883-1887). He is still a force. Lively is also Benvenuto Cellini. There has been a revival even in the case of Guido Cavalcanti, after a long interval from 1851 to 1881. We observe that St. Charles Borromeo is entered under C, as are Mr. Chauncy Langdon and Richard Chenevix Trench. Our countryman Henry C. Carey, with whose 'Principles of Political Economy' the Italians appear to have been satisfied once for all in 1853, is misspelled "Carrey." There is a cross-reference to Richard Hildreth's 'White Slave [Archy Moore]' under Chateaubriand, whose vogue in Italy is still fair. Cervantes has, from decade to decade since 1851, gained in popularity. Such are some running comments on this valuable repository.

SAINTSBURY'S HISTORY OF CRITICISM.

A History of Criticism and Literary Taste in Europe, from the Earliest Texts to the Present Day. By George Saintsbury, M.A., Oxon., Hon. LL.D., Aberd., Professor of Rhetoric and English Literature in the University of Edinburgh. In three volumes. Vol. I. Classical and Mediæval Criticism. Edinburgh: William Blackwood & Sons; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1900.

The general plan of this work is not ill conceived. Each author is introduced by an abstract, for the most part accurate, of so much of his text as, from the nature of the subject, comes under consideration. As epitomizer Mr. Saintsbury has succeeded admirably, and in the epitomes, brief but sufficiently comprehensive, consists the chief value of his History. Scholars as well as the laity may here find all the information they are likely to need in regard to many texts which are rarely read except by editors and proofreaders; while there can be no question that the comparative study of literary criticism, upon which the author lays so just an emphasis, will be greatly facilitated by his mode of procedure. Again, his constant employment of modern, especially English, parallels, of which his wide knowledge of modern literatures furnishes him no lack, affords a pleasing contrast to those arid products of contemporary pedantry which, in so many classical editions and literary histories, keeps its attention concentrated upon the field of the classical specialist. In fact, the classical tradition as a literary motive depends for its permanence upon the illustration of the ancient by means of the modern masterpieces. The spirit of Mr. Saintsbury's book is excellent in this respect. It is evidently his intention to treat the history of letters as an organic whole, and not as a succession of epochs.

So much, then, for the abstracts and general plan. As to his treatment of separate authors and of the historical details, we are obliged to pronounce our opinion, after the most mature consideration we have been able to give, that Mr. Saintsbury is almost uniformly untrustworthy. Nor are we under the necessity of resting our indictment upon a vague generality. He has, in this case, dealt with a period of literature of which he has no special knowledge, and of which the ordinary reading public has no special knowledge, and is therefore the more likely to be deceived. He assures us that he has read all the texts, but he has confessedly neglected the labors of generations of scholars on those texts. "There is no room," he says, "to handle both text and margent, with the margent's margent *ad infinitum*." True, but there is both room and opportunity in a work of this sort to use the results of critical scholarship without overloading the text and without a portentous array of footnotes. We shall have occasion to point out some unfortunate consequences of our author's neglect of the margent and margent's margent.

Mr. Saintsbury's discussion of the literary criticism of Plato, the first important name, is appreciative as far as it goes. The following, especially, seems to us an excellent statement of the rational basis which Plato unquestionably had for moralistic bias in his critical estimates:

"He had probably seen in Athenian life, and he had certainly anticipated in his instinctive command of human nature, the complementary error and curse of 'Art for Art only'—of the doctrine (itself, like his own, partly true, but, like his own also, partly false and mischievous) of the moral irresponsibility of the artist. And, looking first at morals and politics with that almost fevefish eagerness of the Greek philosopher, which was in part justified by the subsequent Greek collapse in both, he shot wide of the bow-hand from the purely critical point of aim."

Mr. Saintsbury likewise recognizes that in many places Plato has finely apprehended and nobly expressed the true nature and essence of poetic charm and poetic genius, and he appreciates the value of the literary criticism of Aristophanes. But from neither of these, the first great figures he has to deal with, does he give his readers excerpts or abstracts. To be sure, he apologizes in a footnote for the lack in the case of Plato by alleging as an excuse the extremely desultory nature of that author's judgments of literature. But in any history that pretends to completeness we should have at least a brief résumé and discussion of the relevant portions of the Symposium, Phædrus, Ion, Republic, and Laws of Plato, and of the "Frogs" of Aristophanes. There follows on page 24 a passage that must throw grave doubts on the writer's accuracy as a scholar. With reference to the Greek Comic Fragments he declares: "I do not hesitate to say, after most careful examination of the collections of Meineke and his successors, that there are not more than one or two faint and doubtful approaches to our subject discoverable there." But Mr. W. W. Baker, who has recently received the degree of Doctor of Philosophy from Harvard, wrote his dissertation on the subject of literary criticism in the Comic Fragments, and found about a hundred instances of it.

One of the most interesting questions in ancient literary history is the relation between Plato's and Aristotle's literary criticism. Aristotle in writing the 'Poetics' was, in a sense, as original as any author can be. Many of his fundamental principles, however, were borrowed directly from his master. This subject is noticed in a number of the authorities mentioned by Mr. Saintsbury himself, by Egger and Butcher, for example. There is also a thesis by a German scholar, Belger, entitled 'De Aristotele etiam in Arte Poetica componenda Platonis discipulo.' But Mr. Saintsbury's chapter on Aristotle says never a word on this most important relationship. Surely we have here a striking illustration of our author's contempt for the margent and margent's margent. In fact, one of the faultiest parts of the whole work is the chapter on Aristotle; which is especially unfortunate in view of the fact that the 'Poetics' is not only the first but also the greatest document in the history of criticism. On pages 51-2, Mr. Saintsbury sums up what he considers to be the defects in Aristotle's theory of poetry. We cite his exact words: "The importance of Tragedy (as we are enabled to see clearly by the invaluable though rather unfair aid of the historic estimate) is altogether exaggerated." Now we had always thought that one of the most elementary facts in regard to the 'Poetics' was that its text is fragmentary, and that purely by accident the part that deals with Tragedy and Epic—the latter chiefly in relation to the former—is nearly all that has come down to us. "We can see further," continues Mr. Saintsbury, "that the glorious achievements of the three great tragedians . . . induced him [Aristotle], aided no doubt by the Greek taste generally, to exalt Plot, to depress Character, to put quite undue stress on artificial Unity." Aristotle does indeed exalt plot at the expense of character, as was long ago pointed out by Cardinal Newman in his essay 'On Poetry, with reference to Aristotle's Poetics'; and this principle runs counter to the prevailing habit of Greek Tragedy, as the fine and sure insight of that great writer did not fail to observe. "That the charm of Greek Tragedy," says Newman, "does not ordinarily arise from scientific correctness of plot, is true as a matter of fact." This he proceeds to demonstrate by reference to many typical plots of the extant Greek tragedies; almost the sole exception being the plot of the "Oedipus Tyrannus," which Aristotle repeatedly cites in exemplification of his principle.

It is clear, then, that this depreciation of character cannot have been due, as Mr. Saintsbury thinks, to "the glorious achievements of the three great tragedians," for such depreciation is directly at variance with their all but uniform practice; and we confess ourselves unable to see why the "absence of prose fiction," which we find more than once alleged as responsible for Aristotle's failure to grasp the true significance of the fictitious element in literature, had anything at all to do with the matter. Newman was nearer the truth in

assigning the cause to Aristotle's natural taste, which led him "to delight in the explication of systems, and in those connected views following upon his vigorous talent for thinking through large subjects." But we venture to suggest a still more definite explanation. We apprehend that Aristotle's exaltation of plot was chiefly in consequence of his remarkable doctrine of *katharsis;* the doctrine, namely, that Tragedy stimulates artificially the emotions of pity and fear which are natural to human beings, but painful and dangerous if aroused in ordinary experience by pitiful and fearful events; and that the artificial stimulus of Tragedy by means of the poet's art pleasurably exercises them, and purifies or calms them for the time being.

It will be observed that this conception plainly emphasizes the moral effect of Tragedy, for Aristotle rightly held that Tragedy must, from the nature of the case, be maintained on a lofty moral plane; and inasmuch as he so often invokes the "Oedipus Tyrannus" by way of illustration, we may shrewdly conjecture that he was in large measure induced to the formulation of his theory by observing the moral and psychological effect of this play on Greek audiences. In no other extant Greek tragedy is even the reader, to say nothing of the spectator, kept at such a tension of expectation by the subtle unfolding of an intricate plot. Professor Goodwin has assured the present writer that when the "Oedipus Tyrannus" was enacted at Harvard in 1881, the effect on the audience, the major portion of which was dependent on an English translation, was powerful beyond all his experience before or since of theatrical representations; and Mr. Henry Norman, who wrote an account of this performance, says that when the play was over, an involuntary burst of applause, as if it were a thing inappropriate, ceased almost as suddenly as it began. The emotions of the people seemed to be subdued, and they dispersed quietly, thus affording unwitting testimony to the ancient philosopher's profundity of insight.

It was, therefore, an over-valuation of a great psychological truth that led Aristotle to overestimate plot at the expense of other forms of poetic and dramatic excellence; but it can hardly be questioned that a drama composed according to this theory will exercise a stronger influence on a greater number of people than any other kind. Nor in maintaining this need we deny Newman's dictum that the "Agamemnon" of Aeschylus and the "Bacchæ" of Euripides, though deficient in skilfulness of plot, are distinguished by a richness and sublimity of which the "Oedipus Tyrannus," in spite of its many beauties, has not even a share.

In his chapter on Longinus (pp. 122-3) the author gives expression to a strange misconception which would appear inexcusable were it not shared by almost every writer on Aristotle's 'Poetics' with whom we are familiar. "He [Longinus] has not lowered the ethical standard one jot," says Mr. Saintsbury, "but he has silently refused to give it precedence to the æsthetic; . . . Aristotle had been forced, equally by his system and his sense, to admit that pleasure was an end, perhaps the end, of art; but he blenches and swerves from the consequences." This implies that Aristotle set up two standards, the æsthetic and the ethical, and that his judgments abode sometimes by the one and sometimes by the other. As a matter of fact, his standard was consistently the æsthetic, and there is no passage in any of his writings which, rightly interpreted, goes to show that he ever abandoned it. He does hold, however, that every variety of literature must produce its οἰκεία ἡδονή, its appropriate pleasure. The ethical requirement in Tragedy is not distinct from, but a part of, the æsthetic requirement. That is to say, unless a tragedy be held on a high moral plane, it does not yield its appropriate pleasure, and is not, æsthetically considered, a good tragedy. It is strange how constantly critics overlook the fact that Aristotle's treatise, as we have it, is concerned almost exclusively with Tragedy. They have always, from the Renaissance down, been prone to understand what was said with reference to this form alone, as if it were applicable to every form of poetic art. Mr. Saintsbury is here guilty of just such a blunder.

In a footnote on the first page of his second book, which deals with Latin criticism, the author mentions with high praise the late Professor Nettleship's 'Essay on Literary Criticism in Latin Antiquity,' but it would almost seem that he had purposely avoided profiting by it. Nettleship, in that admirable treatise, shows how the Roman professional critics, not excepting even Quintilian, slavishly imitated the scholastic criticism of the Greeks, with its three-fold classification of style, canons of classical writers, and other arid technicalities. Mr. Saintsbury's only allusion to this whole subject is merely to the effect that Quintilian may have borrowed from Dionysius of Halicarnassus; whereas, Nettleship makes it certain either that he borrowed from Dionysius or that both used a common source.

Mr. Saintsbury disposes of Cicero's claim to eminence as a critic in a quite characteristic manner. The orator remarks in a letter to his brother (*Ad Quint. Frat. II.*, II): "Lucretii poëmata, ut scribis, ita sunt: multis luminibus ingenii, multæ tamen artis." This is a sufficiently intelligible estimate of Lucretius, and just, as far as it goes. Cicero merely wishes to say that the poetry of Lucretius reveals not only genius, but also artistic workmanship. In other words, it is not true of him, as Ovid said of Ennius, that he was *ingenio maximus, arte rudis.* But Mr. Saintsbury avers that the text as it stands is a contradiction in terms; and triumphantly convinces Cicero of absurdity by reading *non* before *multis.*

Says Mr. Saintsbury of the 'Treatise on the Sublime': "There is absolutely no evidence against the authorship of Longinus, only a set of presumptions." There is good evidence against the authorship of Longinus, of which a conspectus may be found in the Introduction to Prof. Rhys Roberts's excellent edition. The evidence, as Professor Roberts says, is not absolutely conclusive, but inclines strongly in favor of the first century as the date of composition, and against the third century—that is, against the authorship of the historical Longinus. Again, in regard to Horace's 'Ars Poetica,' we read: "Aristotle (whom Horace follows without direct acknowledgment, and by no means slavishly, but still on the whole) had been sufficiently positive," etc. Scholars are now generally agreed that Horace in writing this poem did not draw directly upon either Plato or Aristotle. The universal silence of Roman writers on the 'Poetics' favors the belief that he never read it. He probably did more or less follow the body of Aristotelian tradition.

It is only fair, after so much in the way of dispraise, to direct the attention of our readers to some further laudable features of Mr. Saintsbury's work, in addition to those mentioned above. One need not agree with all his conclusions in order to find much that is stimulating and suggestive in his three Interchapters, which are summaries respectively of Greek, Latin, and Mediæval Criticism. With some points of exception already noticed, we assign to his accounts of Quintilian, and more especially of Longinus, a superior merit. To cite one example: There is in the summary of the treatise 'On the Sublime' an exceedingly interesting discussion of the author's use of the words φαντασίαι and εἰδωλοποιίαι.

"It is nearly certain," Mr. Saintsbury well observes, "that no ancient writer, and no modern critic before a very recent period, attached our full sense to the term [imagination]. To Aristotle, φαντασία is merely αἴσθησις ἀσθενής, a 'weakened sensation,' a copy furnished by memory from sensation itself. . . . Of the imagination which is in our minds when we call Shelley an imaginative poet, and Pope not one, . . . there does not seem to have been a trace even in the enthusiastic mind of Longinus, though he expressly includes enthusiasm—nay, passion—in his notion of it."

We are somewhat surprised, however, that Mr. Saintsbury, the historian of English literature, did not in this connection mention Wordsworth as author of the modern discrimination between Fancy—which is more or less φαντασία—and Imagination, a discrimination which, subtly implicit in the "Poems of the Fancy" and "Poems of the Imagination," has also for prose literature received, in the poet's own essay 'Of Poetry as Observation and Description,' its classical expression.

FITHIAN'S JOURNAL.

Philip Vickers Fithian: Journal and Letters. 1767-1774. Edited for the Princeton Historical Association by John Rogers Williams. Princeton, N. J.: The University Library. 1900.

If, as it would appear, the Princeton Historical Association is the conservator of unpublished narratives from the pens of alumni or of others closely associated with the University, it has been fortunate in this which appears to be its first publication. Unfortunately the Journal which Fithian kept in his boyhood and resumed in his post-graduate days, was neglected while in college, so that we do not get the minute account of his daily life and the conditions which modified it as a student, nor the freshly recorded impressions from those surroundings. When a private tutor in Virginia, he fixed such details day by day with his pen. The editor has introduced an interesting cut of Nassau Hall, the Old North of to-day, as it stood in those seventies when Fithian and his associates, Madison, Lee, Burr, Freneau, and Brockholst Livingston, went in and out. It sheltered the whole college, excepting the President, and including the tutors. In the material sense it *was* the college. We find in one of Fithian's letters that the rousing

bell rings at 5 A. M., with compulsory prayers after the second ringing at 5:30, " and lest any should plead that he did not hear the bell, the servant who rings goes to every door and beats till he wakens the boys, which leaves them without excuse." There was then an hour's study, in winter by candle-light, breakfast at eight, recitations and study from nine to one, when dinner, study from three to five, at which hour came prayers. Supper was at seven, and at nine the bell rang for study and inspection of rooms by a tutor for absences. "After nine any may go to bed, but to go before is reproachful." That curfew survives, but without tutors or inspections. The diarist notes the death of "a wise, useful, religious girl," a valued correspondent, who "took with her all her virtues," and the editor fails to connect this eulogy with her grave lying in modest isolation within the University grounds. Surmise and imagination have surrounded that lonely tomb with baseless legends, for which Fithian clearly substitutes the reality.

All that is of local concern and of little more. The general interest of the Journal lies in the copious daily observations of unfamiliar surroundings while the writer was a private tutor in Virginia. In the autumn of 1773 Fithian accepted the offer of Col. Robert Carter of Nomini Hall, on the little river of that name. To reach his destination involved 260 miles in the saddle, and crossing by ferry the lower Delaware, the Susquehanna, and the Potomac, and by ford the Patapsco, now of such diminished volume as to be scarcely worth mentioning, but then the source of vigorous mill-power and the bearer of shipping at least to Elk-Ridge Landing, Baltimore's commercial rival. (The "Rolling Road" from Catonsville to the Landing still bears witness that tobacco hogsheads were transferred by rolling to that head of navigation.) This journey, now a little matter, then required nine days, including one of rest which was not the Sabbath. Westmoreland County, Virginia, was indeed removed in time, which is the true measure of distance, and in customs, which differentiate people, from Cumberland County, New Jersey. Independently of the actual number of miles or of days from home, the remoteness from routes of travel, although within plain sight of the Potomac, is shown in Fithian's entry that he received together on July 26 several letters from New Jersey written between February 13 and July 7, for which he paid postage twelve shillings fivepence, Pennsylvania currency, "and I very proud of my bargain." Newspapers were most rare, due, he suspects, to their sale by the mail-riders on the way. There are frequent references to and speculations concerning the exciting events in Boston, and the assembling of a Congress at Philadelphia, but no definite news came from either place.

Besides this physical isolation, the Virginian settlements were detached socially from the northern provinces. The planters lived their own lives, with the English church and the provincial court as the foci of the ellipse that bounded their religious and social career. The sentiment of West Jersey was Calvinistic, where it was not Quaker, and there is little wonder that the popular opinion of life on the plantations was not acceptable to the friends of this Presbyterian theological student. They advised against his taking the place lest he should encounter the dangerous temptations of "gay company, frequent entertainments, little practical devotion, no remote pretension to heart religion, daily examples in men of the highest quality of luxury, intemperance, and impiety." There certainly was contrast in the life of the two colonies, but, as usual, the unknown had been magnified, and our tutor returned with his principles unscathed, and possibly his minor morals of manners polished and improved. He visited home in the summer to be examined by the Presbytery, and returned there finally in the autumn at the expiration of his engagement. In his expense account of these two trips appears this curious illustration of the times, not merely of a Virginia custom: he paid seven shillings and sixpence to be ferried over the Potomac, and "gave the ferryman a bottle of rum"; at South River, ferriage sixpence and "to half a gallon of rum for ferryman, two shillings sixpence"; over the Chesapeake from Annapolis, "the ferriage here for a man and horse is fifteen shillings, to the ferryman for a quart of rum one shilling threepence, and for my footing, never having crossed the ferry before, I paid one shilling." In other words, the free bestowal of ardent spirits was a common benefaction that excited no comment, even when made by a prospective minister, and were it withheld it would probably occasion remark, if not complaint. The equanimity with which Fithian enters the items of his personal consumption of alcoholics on his journey has a matter-of-fact air, although the theological student of to-day finds it unnecessary thus to fortify himself. They are: Bitters, 4d.; wine and oats, 4s.; oats, cordial, etc., 4s. 10d.; tea, oats, cordial, etc., 4s. 10d. drank a bowl of punch with Mr. —— ——; "called for a gill of bitters to qualify my humours, and a dish of tea to cheer me, and soon to bed." "I got a bowl of punch and fed, 2s. 6d."; "fed my horse and drank some brandy"; "expense here, half a gill of brandy, 3d."; "glass of wine bitters, 4d." It was the habit of the day. He was not too sedate.

Fithian was a thorough Whig, and his zeal for the cause outran his respect for the rights of property and the restraint of law when, being at home, with forty other young men disguised as Indians, he assisted in burning a cargo of tea at Greenwich, N. J., 22d November, 1774. This does not appear to have disturbed his conscience, nor, if known to them, to have weighed with his ecclesiastical superiors; for within a fortnight the Presbytery of Philadelphia licensed him to preach. He remained in the active ministry until he died, a Chaplain in the Continental Army, in October, 1776.

Many of Fithian's notes were merely of the conduct of the children under his care, some of his toothache, some of the weather, but there is hardly a page but sheds light upon his surroundings, and we get views of the plainness as well as the costliness of Virginia country life. Col. Carter's home estate embraced 2,500 acres with 150 negroes, but he possessed in all 60,000 acres and 600 blacks. Not only as a man of wealth but as one of the Governor's Council, he was a social leader, and Fithian at once entered as a favored observer a community which illustrated the best of the Colonial type. The editor, somewhat idealizing the "most delightful picture . . . of refinement and culture, of elegance of living and lavish hospitality, of balls, and fox hunts, and an almost constant round of entertainments," adds with a melancholy strongly suggestive of youthfulness, "But those days are gone. A century and a quarter has passed and left behind the ineffaceable trace of war and its consequent desolation." It has been less war than the natural lapse of time which has changed the conditions in the Northern Neck. One form of this change was foreshadowed by the sagacious and (as painted by Fithian) charming Mrs. Carter thus:

"After supper I had a long conversation with Mrs. Carter concerning negroes in Virginia, and find that she esteems their value no higher than I do. We both concluded (I am pretty certain that the conclusion is just) that if in Mr. Carter's or in any gentleman's estate, all the negroes should be sold, and the money put to interest in safe hands, and let lands which these negroes now work lie wholly uncultivated, the bare interest of the price of the negroes would be a much greater yearly income than what is now received from their working the lands, making no allowance at all for the trouble and risk of the masters as to the crop and negroes."

Slavery existed in New Jersey, and its mere presence in Virginia excited no comment. There are few references to the institution in the diary, but what there are mark the difference between the domestic service as Fithian had seen it at home, and the control of large numbers in whom the interest was chiefly that of property. We have already made excerpts on this subject from the foretaste of the diary in the *American Historical Review*. The real interest in these pages, apart from the unconscious relation of the young man's own character, are the illustrations of rural life in a sparsely settled region where wealth without real luxury prevailed. His pupils were backward in their studies, although not thus characterized by him. The eldest girl, sixteen years old, was "reading the *Spectator*, writing, and beginning to cipher." It is written: "She is small of her age, has a mild, winning presence, never swears, which is here a distinguished virtue, dances finely, plays well on the key'd instruments, and is on the whole in the first class of the female sex." The establishment is on a large scale, and by suggestion not so comfortable as if more compact. Three yoke of oxen to one cart deliver four loads of firewood daily in the winter, but in the severer weather there was none to spare, as "twenty-eight steady fires, and most of these are very large," consume it all. The family at Nomini makes away yearly with 27,000 pounds of pork, 20 beeves, 550 bushels of wheat, besides corn, 4 hogsheads of rum, and 150 gallons of brandy, which indicates profusion if not splendor. That the life seemed grand is shown by this note on an occasion when a number of guests were in the house: "Half after eight we were rung in to supper; the room looked luminous and splendid; four large candles burning on the table where we supped; three others in different parts of the room; a gay, sociable assembly, and four well-instructed waiters!" "Almost every gentleman of condition keeps a chariot and four; many drive with six horses"; which is as indicative of bad roads as it is of display. Attendance at church was a social and business function as well as a religious duty. The parson preaches fifteen or twenty minutes; the church door holds advertisements

of pork for sale: the gentlemen "consult about and determine their common business, either before or after service"; they remain outside until the service begins, and enter in a body.

"Their method of farming is slovenly, without any regard to continue their land in heart for future crops. They plant large quantities of land without any manure and work it very hard to make the best of the crop, and when the crop comes off they take away the fences to enclose another piece of land for the next year's tillage, and leave this in common to be destroyed by winter and beasts till they stand in need of it again to plough."

The human strain that permeates the volume is most attractive. Fithian's ingenuous manner and affectionate disposition everywhere appear. He shows no sign of humor, life is too serious; but neither is there the least censoriousness. He kept the Princeton anniversaries as feast days of his soul, and, avowedly pleased as he was with his duties and his companions, the comparative magnificence of Nomini failed to weaken his loyalty and longing for the humble Cohansie.

The introduction refers to a note to one of the manuscript volumes that some of the Journals and Letters were transcribed from loose sheets by a brother of Fithian's who wrote a clerkly hand, but was not well educated, and this "will account for many errors in orthography, punctuation, the placing of capital letters, etc., etc." To perpetuate such errors in the printed page is unbecoming to the occasion. There is an excellent index of proper names, but the subject index, except under those names, is defective. Somewhat more careful proof-reading would not have allowed "hopelessly" to stand for "hopefully" converted (p. 30), nor have designated the wash-house as the work-house (p. 130). But the reader is misled by neither.

One may wonder why the editor, who has carefully traced the genealogy of many persons casually mentioned in the diary, failed to note the distinguished Major-General David Hunter, a son of the Rev. Andrew Hunter, jr., who frequently appears in the earlier pages. By John Champe Carter is almost certainly meant the well-remembered Edward Champe Carter of Revolutionary fame, noted for his physical prowess and vigorous patriotism.

TWO BOOKS ON TIBET.

With the Tibetans in Tent and Temple. Narrative of Four Years' Residence on the Tibetan Border, and of a Journey into the Far Interior. By Susie Carson Rijnhart, M.D. Fleming H. Revell Company. Pp. 400.

In Tibet and Chinese Turkestan. By H. H. P. Deasy. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901.

Dr. Rijnhart's is an altogether exceptional book in missionary literature. She has gone far and seen and suffered much, and tells of it with simplicity and effect. The style may sometimes be dubious and the sentences even obscure, but the root of the matter is there—a narrative of life for several years in a Tibetan population on the border of Tibet, and of a journey to within 150 miles of Lhasa itself. Dr. Rijnhart and her husband went out, as independent missionaries, to attempt an entrance into Tibet. They chose as their point of attack the northeast frontier, feeling confident that far freer access would be possible on that side than through the jealously guarded Himalayan passes on the west and south. The fact seems really to be that it is only Lhasa, the sacred city, with its immediate district, that is protected so carefully against foreign profanation. For this purpose they settled at Lusar, the secular village attached to the famous Lamasery of Kunbum, about twenty miles west of Sining, in the province of Kansu. The western part of that province, sometimes called Outer Tibet, has a large Tibetan element in its population, and the Lamasery at Kunbum is reckoned the next holiest to that at Lhasa. They reached there early in 1895, just in time to be in the thick of the Mohammedan insurrection which swept Kansu in that year. During it they were driven to take refuge in the Lamasery, where they had already made friends of the abbot and others by their medical skill. Living under such conditions, they came into close and friendly contact with men of all sorts and conditions, and, especially, had an almost unique opportunity to study life in a Buddhist monastery and Lamaism as it really exists. The descriptions are sympathetic and intelligent, the enervating charm of the ritual is appreciated, and its curious and exact parallels to that of the Roman Church are detailed. The strange legend of Tsong-capa, the reformer of Tibetan Buddhism, and of the founding of Kunbum is retold, with the suggestions of Western influences which still live in tradition. Of Mahatmas they could find no trace; even Lamas from Lhasa could tell nothing of such wonder-workers. The nearest approach was that some Lamas professed magic powers by which they drew the figure of a horse on paper, changed it to a real horse, and sent it on the wings of the wind to aid distressed travellers. The doctrine of reincarnation they found to be as absolutely accepted as present existence; but the proofs were of the meagrest, and they did not feel driven to the Satanic theory of MM. Huc and Gabet.

In the spring of 1898 they felt that the time had come for a forward movement upon Tibet proper and Lhasa. Their success had been so great in gaining the confidence and friendship of the people and the intimacy of the Lamas that the journey to the neighborhood, at least, of Lhasa did not seem impossible. But these hopes were not fulfilled, and Dr. Rijnhart, after almost eight months of journeying (April to November, 1898), returned alone, her child having died on the way and been buried under a boulder on a hillside, and her husband having vanished without leaving a trace. It is a pathetic story, full of patience and strength. It could have been told with more art, but hardly more effectively. During the last two months Dr. Rijnhart was absolutely alone, and how she fought her way through, revolver in hand day and night, illustrates the mysterious possibility of strength in some natures—for we should judge from many things that she is not a masculine woman. Horned cattle are a horror to her, and the sound of firing full of nervous shocks.

Their route lay on the great caravan track running from Si-nung through the Chaidam and the Dangia Mountains. Their farthest point was the Shiabden monastery, just south of Lake Chomora. There they were met by officials from Lhasa and were finally turned back. The return route was on the track through Harba and Darge to Ta-chien-lu in the Chinese province Sze-chuan. It was something under a hundred miles west of Jyékundo (a place of many names and spellings, apparently Kegudo on the map of Tibet in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica') that Mr. Rijnhart was lost. It is evident that the journey would have been far richer in geographical results if he had survived, or if his papers could have been preserved. As it is, the expert in Tibet will undoubtedly be able to piece a good deal together from what has been saved here and from Dr. Rijnhart's own somewhat confused observations. The route from Shiabden to Jyékundo seems to cover fresh ground. Bonvalot and Henri d'Orléans came near it in 1890, but only for a small distance. Dr. Rijnhart may probably claim to be the first to enter Jyékundo from the west. But the strength and value of her book is rather in the view which we gain of the people and their life and of the possibility of contact and influence. With strong religious fervor Dr. Rijnhart has succeeded in combining a common-sense appreciation of the standpoints of others, and a sympathy with them in all their wanderings of thought. It is very evident that the modern scientific training of missionaries is already bearing fruit. The black-coated and tall-hatted figure of the tracts of our childhood is vanishing, and we have now men and women who are prepared to go among their people, to live with them and dress like them, and to trust to their own weight of character and knowledge to carry them through and make their influence felt. It is in such work only that there is any hope of bringing the East and West together.

For geographical science it is well to know how high the peaks of Tibet and Chinese Turkestan are. The full-length picture of Capt. Deasy shows a well-knit man in the late forties. He is apparently as much at home in garments made of sheepskin, with the wool inside, as in the white duck and gold braid of summer camps in India. In 1896 the newly published map of Tibet, with a vast extent of the territory marked "unexplored," acted as a direct challenge to this British officer, who had long sighed for fresh worlds to conquer. He had trained himself carefully in the study of astronomy and surveying, and on the voyage from England to India put his knowledge in practice by assisting the naval officers in their work. In the Greenwich Observatory he paid especial attention to the mastery of the problems of longitude. He then gave his attention to medicine and surgery. Having made his preparations in Srinagar, he journeyed to Leh, and, after laying in supplies and gathering his caravan men, he set his face towards the land of the Lamas. At Zingral, the insect-infested rooms were left behind and he climbed the passes. At Frobrang, a tiny village of about a half-a-dozen houses, at an altitude of about 14,800 feet, probably the highest cultivated place in the world, he purchased the sheep which were to serve for transport purposes. These are the best beasts of burden for Tibet. In good condition and under charge of a man who knows his business, they will carry loads of about twenty-two pounds for a long time, but, like the East, they must not be hustled. They will go twelve miles a day and need one day's rest every week. Besides these fifty sheep were twenty-seven mules, thirty-five ponies, and a donkey, together with three riding ponies. The human contingent consisted of two Englishmen, ten caravan men, and one shepherd, besides burden-bear-

ers, and seven India men in various capacities. The total weight of baggage and stores was about 17,000 pounds.

Thenceforward the story is a march through unknown lands, among magnificent snow mountains, without guides and with much work being done by triangulation. The red lines of the map show that while in the main the valleys were followed, yet the travellers were surrounded on all sides by mountains over 16,000 feet high, not a few of the peaks rising to 20,000 feet and more. Sandy plains and salt lakes were frequent. It was not merely the making of one journey traversing a certain area. In a literal sense, triangulation was made by going around three sides of the great clump of mountains, between parallels 34 and 35 and meridians 81 and 82, whose peaks are four miles high. In addition to the frequent cold, the barrenness and waterless stretches of country, and the sickness and death of the animals, there was constant danger from worthless caravan men and hostile Tibetans. The nomads refused to help the explorers, and even showed them the wrong direction, so that more than once they wandered about and had to retrace their steps. It seemed to be impossible for the inhabitants to understand why in the world a white man should want to come into Tibet, climb high mountains, and use strange-looking instruments, unless the purpose was immediately and malevolently military. The cordite, or smokeless gunpowder, on these high altitudes was useless. At one camp, Pike, the author's companion, tried six times to shoot an antelope, but each time the bullet dropped to the ground within fifty yards of him. The severe weather made heavy demands on the medicine chest, but when the whole human nature in the caravan became afflicted with coughing, the author issued an order allowing for each man's restoration of health within a period of twenty-four hours, after which a heavy fine was imposed for every cough that was heard. This remedy was more effective than drugs, and cured the camp with marvellous rapidity. From the 18th of June until early in November, the caravan travelled 776 miles, by which time sixty out of the sixty-six animals had fallen victims to the hardships of the journey or had been stolen by the Chukpas. Capt. Deasy reached Leh on November 13, rejoining his regiment at Umbala about the middle of December.

Still smitten with the exploration fever, the author in March, 1897, resigned his commission, owing to troubles arising from an unhealthy river, and resolved to explore and survey the valley of the Yarkand River. He would know what was the meaning or value of the dotted line which, on Lord Curzon's map, was supposed to represent its general direction. No traveller had followed the course of the river below the west end of the Raskam valley. This time, securing as invaluable aid a Yunnan Chinaman, who had wandered westward to India, he started with his caravan-men and officers, four of them old comrades, and again set out from Srinagar, making his start from Bandipoora. He gives an unvarnished narrative of the journey to Yarkand, in which he often camped at a height of 16,000 feet. To take observations in the strong wind, when the temperature was several degrees below zero, and beard and moustache froze to the metal every time the vernier was read, until he was forced to cover his face with cardboard, made scientific work very difficult and slow. From Yarkand to Khotan across the Takla Makan desert, the journey was on comparatively low ground—that is, well under 5,000 feet; but much was the sickness and great was the scoundrelism of humanity in that part of the world. It is no wonder that the author writes later that among them morality is unknown.

At Karasai, a village of caves, the second journey may be considered over, for here most of his bearers were paid off. He set out again eastward through Tibet, to examine and survey the country, to determine the heights of as many mountain-peaks as possible, and to find out whether there was a route of travel between Polu and central Tibet. This part of the exploration took him over the highest mountains, and was the cause of much suffering, but he returned safely to Yarkand. Thence making a fourth attempt to explore the valley of the Yarkand River, he suffered much from lying natives, in crossing frozen rivers, and in ascending glaciers; but, accomplishing his task, he finished his winter journey on February 2, after a three months' tramp of more than a thousand miles. About the middle of September, he left the oasis of Yarkand to visit Kashgar, where, at the house of McCartney, the English assistant for Chinese affairs, who had suggested Deasy's journey across the Takla Makan desert, he enjoyed for a few days the luxuries of civilization.

Setting out again from Yarkand to Khotan, he suffered, not only from dust-storms and loss of his pack animals, but from the opposition of the Chinese officers. From other causes, however, chiefly the severe weather, the scarcity of grass, the unusual exertions necessary, and the failure of the health of his chief helper, he was obliged to abandon his most ambitious journey. So, making a "cache" of the food and other supplies not required for the route homeward, he left the barren hills of sandy deserts and reached Leh. There he at once called for two quarts of beer, a liquid which he had not tasted for two years. Having covered more than 5,300 miles with a caravan, he looked, when at Srinagar, rough enough. At Simla a combination of maladies overtook him, and he spent two months in a hospital, yet was able to explain his work to the officers and computers of the trigonometrical branch of the survey to India. When he reached London he was so weak in health as to be scarcely able to crawl.

An appendix gives the digested results, with memoranda and criticism of Capt. Deasy's measurements and computations, together with reports on the plants and animal forms collected and brought back. There are a good index and abundant illustrations from photographs, and the work is one of first importance to the student of mid-Asian problems.

Histoire de l'Affaire Dreyfus: Le Procès de 1894. By Joseph Reinach. Paris: Éditions de la *Revue Blanche.* 1901.

Of all the literature produced by the Dreyfus case, rich and full of talent as it is, this book is by far the most complete and the most likely to last. M. Joseph Reinach, who is well known in French politics as the ex-confidant of Gambetta and one of the most influential writers of the Opportunist party, played in the Dreyfus affair a most militant and courageous rôle. Thanks to his many relations in official circles, his wide experience of both civil and military matters, he was one of the best informed and most skilful of the revisionists, and his terse, logical, and pathetic articles in the *Siècle* threw much light on many mysterious corners of the great drama. His championship of Dreyfus was, moreover, as disinterested as it was brave. Unpopular as he was already, there was nothing for him to gain in that battle and everything to lose. In fact, he lost everything. A captain in the reserve of the French army, he was dismissed and deprived of his grade. A representative in the Chamber of Deputies, he was defeated at the polls by his constituents. Finally, great as was his unpopularity with the mob, it was increased a hundredfold by the stand he took as a Dreyfusist, and is today almost unrivalled. All this does not seem calculated to make a very impartial and trustworthy historian of the Dreyfus case. Nevertheless, M. Reinach has succeeded in being such an historian. His book covers only the period of the trial of 1894, from Gen. Mercier's appointment as Minister of War, December 3, 1893, down to Capt. Dreyfus's departure for Devil's Island, February 21, 1895. This is one of the most pathetic chapters of French contemporary history. M. Reinach has written it not merely from his own recollections and information gathered at first hand from his friends in the Government, but also with the aid of the testimony given before the courts, at Paris and at Rennes, by all the principal actors in the case.

The book opens with a graphic sketch of Gen. Mercier when he first appears in Parliament as a promising minister, and wins the enthusiastic support of the Deputies by a well-worded and patriotic speech. A year after, countless mistakes and blunders in his military administration had revealed an incapacity and conceit which made him the most despised of all the politicians. His popularity had faded away, when, suddenly, on September 24, 1894, an event occurred which would allow him to regain it by posing as a saviour of the country. The famous bordereau, stolen at the German embassy in the janitor's office before reaching M. de Schwartzkoppen, is brought to Col. Henry by one of the spies of the so-called "section of statistics," a man by the name of Brücker. M. Reinach, while renouncing his first imprudent hypothesis of Col. Henry being Esterhazy's accomplice, takes for granted that the former recognized, at once, in the treasonable document the handwriting of his comrade and friend Esterhazy, but dared not suppress it for fear of Brücker's betraying him. His argumentation does not seem to us quite decisive, and Henry's rôle at the origin of the affair still remains in some obscurity. But what the author has explained with absolute clearness is how, in the midst of the emotions caused at the War Office by this sensational discovery, the suspicions happened to converge towards the unfortunate Dreyfus. He shows how they all started from the preconceived and erroneous notion that the bordereau, since it referred to topics discussed at the War Department, must perforce have been written by some one who belonged to that department—and by one who was both a *stagiaire* and an artillery officer. The two men who built up that theory, Lieut.-Col. Fabre and Lieut.-Col. d'Aboville, happened to be both anti-Semites, like almost all the aristocratic officers of

the general staff. Looking over the list of officers who answered the description of the supposed writer, they at once stopped at the name of Dreyfus. A rapid glance at his handwriting satisfied them that "the resemblance of the two handwritings was striking." The word *artillerie* in the bordereau and in certain notes written by Dreyfus could be superposed so as to fit exactly. Moreover, all the other requirements seemed to be met by the Jewish captain, who was generally disliked as a conceited, priggish, and ambitious man. No objections, no difficulty embarrassed them henceforth. The traitor was discovered. "From that time on," says M. Reinach, "begins the phenomenon which dominates the whole affair. It is no longer verified facts and carefully examined documents which establish conviction; it is the preëstablished sovereign and irresistible conviction that alters the facts and documents" (p. 62).

The arrest of Dreyfus, the long inquiry carried on by Du Paty de Clam with the help of Bertillon and Henry—all that procedure which reads like a chapter of the Inquisition; the despair and frenzy of the accused man, who has to fight against mysterious and unknown accusations, the anxiety and impatience of the chiefs responsible for the whole scandal, who dare not back down for fear of the slanders let loose by the gutter press—constitute one of the most heartrending stories to be found in the judicial annals of any country. In contrast to this display of dark ignorance, fanaticism, and moral cowardice, coupled with a sort of auto-suggestion which the author has very keenly analyzed, we see the heroic faithfulness of Dreyfus's wife and brothers, the kind-heartedness and generosity of Major Forginetti, head of the Cherche Midi, who, from the start, recognized in his prisoner an innocent man and did his best to comfort him. "Toute la bonté du genre humain s'était refugiée dans ce geôlier," says M. Reinach.

Besides these facts, never before recited with so much accuracy, although well known in the main, this book gives us details on more mysterious episodes. Thus, we know now that the secret *dossier* communicated to the judges was made up of a so-called biography of Dreyfus written by some mysterious historian, and representing him as an old and hardened traitor; two letters of Panizzardi which had no connection with the accused man, especially that preposterous document known as the *canaille de D. . . .* (which related to a poor fellow known as Dubois), and a spurious translation of a telegram sent to the Italian Government after Dreyfus's arrest—all of which could but force conviction upon the seven judges.

The student of history who is concerned more with general facts than with the Dreyfus incident itself will find here some chapters of great interest and literary talent, such as chapter v., entitled *"La Libre Parole,"* which gives a good insight into anti-Semitism and its most powerful organ; or chapter xi., with its essay on the psychology of the French mob as described in the masterly report of the Degradation. We remark, furthermore, an exact and trustworthy account of President Casimir-Perier's much-discussed resignation on January 15, 1895. The reasons given by M. Reinach, who was at that time an intimate friend of Casimir-Perier, are true and the only true. Casimir-Perier left the Presidency in a fit of humor because his sensitiveness had been deeply irritated and wounded both by the attacks of his foes and by what he styled the weakness of his friends. Moreover, he did not find in the Presidency all the authority and power that he believed to belong to it. His Ministers did not show him the proper regard, did not keep him informed of what was going on, and reduced his office to a mere "machine à signatures." Casimir-Perier, who was not merely a nervous and sensitive man, but also a man of energy and activity, could not stand such an existence any longer, and he resigned. The Dreyfus affair had nothing to do with his decision.

In spite of the general tone of this book, which is impassioned and often eloquent; in spite of some pages, here and there, written by the journalist rather than by the historian; of some portraits of individuals such as Dupuy, Hanotaux, Boisdeffre, whom the author depicts with the pen of a modern Saint-Simon; and even granting that the whole explanation of Col. Henry's rôle is nothing but an hypothesis supported by mere deductions, the fact remains that M. Reinach's work is a scientific contribution to history, composed according to the best and safest methods of research, and well worthy of the great scientist to whom it is dedicated, Émile Duclaux, and of the great cause which inspired it, the cause of truth and of justice.

The Training of the Body. By F. A. Schmidt, M.D., and Eustace H. Miles, M.A. E. P. Dutton & Co.

The motive of the book before us is the value of physical training in fitting the young for success in games, and indirectly for success in life, through the exaltation of health and the cultivation of habits of perseverance, self-control, and coöperation. Mr. Miles, an English amateur champion in various fields, seems to conduct his own life on the principle that whatever is worth doing at all should be done with energy and attention, and that a game should be more than mere sport or diversion for amusement's sake alone; and he is willing to give us glimpses of himself in illustration. Dr. Schmidt, a German physician, supplies the medical side; Mr. Miles makes the application. They are not always in accord, but the differences confirm their independence, affirm their earnestness, and do not weaken the combination.

The fundamental advice is to learn part by part, and to become automatically perfect in those features which belong of necessity to any game, before practising for the sake of practice the unusual and unexpected; and examples are given. That is the teaching of the expert who has become such through the genius of common sense and industry, and it is to be respected accordingly. The game is not to be worshipped as a diversion or an exercise, but to be enjoyed as combining physical and moral advantages not otherwise easily acquired. Chief among the latter are those of cooperation, loyalty, and practical honor.

The physiology of exercise is made as plain as lay readers may expect, and various bodily movements are illustrated by numerous figures. Some of these are superfluous, and one or two unintelligible; but as most of us learn by pictures better than by words, we may pardon the excess. It should be a great satisfaction to know why certain movements are made as well as how they are made; as, for instance, the mechanical effect of sharp muscular action upon the circulation, so that, within certain limits, an energetic stride may be less fatiguing than the slow saunter. The diagrams also teach what the text does not always sufficiently impress—the evil of strain from excessive exertion. Thus, figure 221 shows a sphygmogram of a pulse of 250 beats at the end of a run of 220 yards. When one compares this with the tracing of the normal pulse (fig. 220), the irregular, feeble, and rapid impact due to exhaustion is an impressive lesson. As the author frankly states elsewhere, from such exertion too prolonged there is no recovery, witness the runner from Marathon. In the main, the training instructions are wise, and the danger of overwork, as well as that of too sudden abandonment of high training, is noted. One may except to the suggestion (p. 365) that rest during a long walk is better secured with an erect body than by lying supine with relaxed muscles, and perhaps to one or two other details, and may smile at the objection to heated houses "in which the staircases and passages are kept at an even temperature" (p. 266). The legitimate objection is to excessive heat and possibly contaminated air, not against thermic uniformity. But the general lessons are sensible and do not aim at extravagance in method or result. Moreover, there runs through the whole that admirable spirit which we may fairly credit the English with inculcating and maintaining in field sports, of what may be called practical as distinct from theoretical honor.

So much of the volume as Mr. Miles is responsible for contains a contention against flesh foods, either in training or for ordinary diet, which appears at every legitimate opening. This is not sustained by common experience, although the author himself seems a brilliant exception. One may not gainsay his demonstrated facts, however much his physiological reasoning may be at fault. Food supplies energy, replaces waste, and, to those still growing, furnishes new tissue. Energy is derived chiefly from nitrogen, whether through oats for horses or beans or flesh for man; muscles are built up from the albuminates in general; fat comes from the starches and sugars; and bodily heat, essential to life, from the fats and starches, and particularly from muscular metabolism. There are few marketable foods, fortunately, which do not embrace more than one of these classes, although in unequal amounts. Now, it would matter very little to the citizen at large whether he took his food supply almost solely from the animal or from the vegetable world, like the Eskimo or the Hindu, if it could be arranged so that he did not acquire a sufficiency of one sort at the expense of ingesting a superfluity of the other. But in practice the ordinary man who attempts to live by bread alone finds that he is insufficiently fed in one respect or is gorged in another. Nevertheless, the author appears to have solved the problem under his own conditions, and not only to maintain competent force and energy by a fleshless diet, but to have been relieved from a degree of albuminuria, from a desire for alcohol, and from various physical discomforts which he attributed

to an excess of waste in the circulation when he was a flesh-eater.

From that he concludes that such a diet would be better for all. His basis of fact is not broad enough for the superstructure. We should rather suspect that, consciously or otherwise, by following intelligent medical teaching, he has relieved excretory organs that were under strain, and, further, that he is blessed with assimilative powers which enable him completely to absorb all the nutritive properties of his food. It is not all grist that reaches the ordinary human mill. Upon one feature of diet he is, however, unmistakably correct. The effect of alcohol as a beverage, quite apart from the moral consequences of its abuse, is always mischievous to the man in training. A footnote reads loosely (p. 279): "I often found that even a glass of alcohol put me off." "A glass of alcohol" is not to be construed literally, and what strength of alcoholic beverage is meant is unknown to us; but the principle is true.

A single word upon the construction of the book. It is credited to two authors, but in the preface the English author writes (p. xi.), as an editor: "although I have removed a good deal from Dr. Schmidt's work." The appendices and three of the six parts into which it is divided are specially noted as by Mr. Miles, leaving it to be inferred that the remainder is Dr. Schmidt's. But constantly throughout those parts are notes of disapproval, impressing the Englishman's view where he and the German differ. The German text is nowhere mentioned by name, but this double work appears to be really Schmidt's 'Unser Körper' (Leipzig, 1899), freely done into English, annotated and added to by the very practical champion. As a book, the pages are disfigured by the remarkable use of capitals, applied with great profusion "to enforce the arguments."

The Early History of English Poor Relief. By E. M. Leonard, former Student of Girton College. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan.

Miss Leonard has not only done a remarkably substantial piece of original work, based throughout on contemporary, and for the most part unprinted, evidence; she has made a notable contribution to the interpretation of English history. Mr. S. R. Gardiner, who began what we may fairly call "the rehabilitation" of the first two Stuarts and of their great ministers Strafford and Laud, has never gone so far as to maintain that their policy of paternal government was, in any important respect, really successful; he has been content if he could persuade us that they had worthy ideals even though, under the circumstances, these ideals were impracticable. The year after Charles I. broke with his Parliament in 1629, the Privy Council began to take energetic action for the enforcement of the Elizabethan statutes for the relief of the poor. It was undoubtedly moved thereto by the distress occasioned by a visitation of the plague in the spring of 1630, and a failure of the harvest in the autumn. In the January of 1631 a Royal Commission was appointed to take the matter in hand, consisting of some of the chief officers of state and certain members of the higher nobility. For convenience it was divided into committees for the several circuits, and it is interesting to observe that while Wentworth was assigned to the Northern circuit, Falkland was among those to whom Shropshire and the surrounding country were allotted, and Laud and Coke acted together for the district round Lincoln. At the same time a Book of Orders was issued, setting forth the duties of the justices of the peace, and ordering quarterly reports from them which were to pass to the Lords Commissioners through the hands of the sheriffs and the judges of assize. When we turn to Mr. Gardiner's one page on the subject, we find the remark that this requirement of reports "put a check upon the tendency of the local powers to slacken in their efforts for the public good." But Mr. Gardiner is chiefly concerned to argue that the anxiety of the Council, "in their quarrel with the aristocracy," "to fall back upon an alliance with the people" was not likely to strengthen its hands in the approaching struggle. "It was hardly likely that their good deeds in this direction would weigh very heavily in the balance." What Mr. Gardiner does not tell us is the practical efficiency of the "good deeds"; and but few would observe and realize the significance of the following sentence added to one of the footnotes—"The *State Papers* are full of the Justice's Reports as long as Charles maintained his authority."

But now comes Miss Leonard, and, having worked through these Justice's Reports as well as great masses of similar material for the whole century, she declares that it was to the action of the Privy Council during the period of "personal government" (1629-1640) that England owes the very existence of an effective poor law in later centuries. It is not commonly remembered that, until very recent times, the English poor law was quite unique in Europe. As to whether that was a blessing for England or no, opinions will differ; many will be inclined to agree with Louise Michel that the system of public poor relief has done a good deal to save the country from social revolution. However that may be, no other European country had the like. But the conditions all over western Europe were much the same everywhere in the sixteenth century when legislation was first attempted — England, instead of preceding other countries, lagged behind; and the principles to be followed were seen quite as clearly, if not more clearly, in other countries. Accordingly, France and Germany and Scotland have all of them enactments to show substantially identical with the act of 1536 and its successors.

In all these countries, however, they became a dead letter in the following century. The defect, so Miss Leonard urges, was not in want of legislation, but in want of enforcement by adequate administrative effort. This is probably true, though the survival of the monasteries and hospitals in France probably rendered the distress in certain localities less acute; and in Germany the Thirty Years' War has something to answer for. Be the causes what they may, the enactments in foreign countries ceased to be obeyed; and the same thing is true of England between 1605 and 1629. "The administration of poor relief was on the whole negligent," is Miss Leonard's conclusion upon the evidence, "and in many districts the poor law was already considered to be of little importance." Out of this slough the energy of the Privy Council dragged the poor law in 1631, and saved it for the coming centuries. The Civil War interrupted their work; and after the Restoration, and still more after the Revolution, the administration became more indulgent to the squirearchy. But the pressure of twelve years (1630-1642) had been maintained long enough to create a habit, even with justices and overseers, and the assessments continued to be made and relief administered.

We have singled out this one point, and it is that on which Miss Leonard herself lays most stress, because, if it is true, as we think it is, it tends to correct some common and deep-rooted prejudices. We are not likely to return to an indiscriminate admiration for the Martyr King, even though he was a martyr in the cause of direct taxation, as Disraeli was fond of saying; his abandonment of Strafford would stand in our way, if nothing else. But it is some little comfort to learn that Strafford and those who followed him did not sacrifice themselves quite in vain; that some part of their labor, at any rate, was fortunately "thorough." Miss Leonard's volume, however, is full of new information on many other sides of the social life of Tudor and Stuart times. The example set to the central authorities by some of the towns, notably London and Norwich; the active part played by the Elizabethan bishops in suggesting and enforcing measures for poor relief; the attempt to secure a public provision of corn to meet seasons of emergency; the various plans adopted for dealing with the unemployed—these are some of the subjects for which we must in future have recourse to Miss Leonard's pages. And if we are disinclined to agree with some of her conclusions, there is enough evidence printed in the notes and in the twelve valuable appendices, to serve as basis for an independent judgment.

It is no reflection on the authoress, but on her publishers, to express the hope that they will not continue to send out books to reviewers with the index pages represented by blank paper. A reviewer has been known to take a personal interest in the subject of a book, and to wish afterwards to consult it; and then he surely has the rights of the mere reader.

Rumania in 1900. By G. Benger. Authorized translation by A. H. Keane. Map and illustrations. London: Asher & Co. Pp. xiii, 286. Large 8vo.

The first step taken by Prince Charles on assuming the rule in 1866, for Herr Benger's work is practically an economic history of his reign, was to carry out the reform initiated by his predecessor, the emancipation of the peasants, and putting them in possession of the land they cultivated. This was done by expropriating two-thirds of each of the great landed estates and the secularization of the monastic estates. These latter amounted at the time, according to one authority, to an eighth of the whole principality, and were held in some cases by foreign monasteries, as those of Mount Athos, Jerusalem, and other places. The land thus acquired, known as the Crown Domains, was offered to the people on such easy terms of payment that there are now some 700,000 freehold proprietors, whose farms comprise half the area of the state, while forty years ago more than three-quarters was unreclaimed land. With the view of stimulating foreign and domestic

trade in a country almost destitute of means of communication, the Government has constructed 12,000 miles of highroads, 2,000 miles of railways, built bridges, including one over the Danube, and extensive harbor works on the Black Sea. Although a large debt was incurred for these public works, and from the land operations, as well as for the reorganization of the army, yet the administration of the finances has been conducted on so sound a basis that in recent years there has been no deficit. The foreign trade has an annual value of $150,000,000, while the increase of private wealth is indicated by the fact that deposits in the savings banks have risen from $12,000 in 1866 to $12,000,000 in 1899.

At the same time every effort has been made to increase the intelligence of the people. The twelve estates constituting the Crown Domains are managed so as to be an object-lesson to the peasantry, not only in the best methods of agriculture, but in house and village building on sanitary principles, and in rural education. On them are thirty-nine schools, in which instruction is given in all the various home industries within the reach of Rumanian peasants. The ordinary village schools have gardens attached, in which the children are taught practical horticulture. There is a picture of one of these village schools, which for attractiveness of exterior could not be surpassed in this country. There are also agricultural and forestry schools, and in twenty-three communes the teachers conduct bi-weekly advanced courses for adults. The village schools on the Government estates have libraries, and in some urban schools there are kitchens and refectories where the children can get a midday meal for a cent and upwards. This system is being gradually extended to the rural schools, where, considering the poverty of the people and in many cases the remoteness of the schools, it cannot fail to be most beneficial. The annual expenditure upon the village schools, which have 180,000 pupils, is a little over a million dollars. The different degrees of intelligence reached by the people of the three Balkan States is indicated by the fact that Bulgaria and Servia together have only 382 post-offices, while Rumania, with a million more inhabitants than the two, has 3,062.

In all these efforts for the moral and material elevation of his people King Charles has been ably seconded by leading men of the kingdom, as well as by his noble wife, Queen Elizabeth, Princess von Neuwied, better known as "Carmen Sylva," the poet of her adopted land. A true mother to her people since the loss of her only child, a girl of four, she has taken the deepest interest in promoting their welfare, ministering with her own hands to their needs in hospitals, and caring personally for their instruction. "For years together she has brought lady teachers from abroad, and has herself often personally undertaken the superintendence and even the management of the girls' schools."

One thing we miss in this array of facts and statistics brought together with such painstaking labor by Herr Benger. Little is said of the political education of the people. Freedom of speech and of the press has long been enjoyed, and religious freedom was assured in 1885 by the disestablishment of the National Church. But no information is given as to how the communes are governed, and how the right of suffrage is regarded and exercised, nor aught of the character and ability of the men who are elected to the Senate and Chamber of Deputies. It only remains to add that the book is a beautiful specimen of typography, is fully illustrated, and has an excellent map, but no index.

The Francis Letters, by Sir Philip Francis and Other Members of the Family. Edited by Beata Francis and Elisa Keary. With a Note on the Junius Controversy, by C. F. Keary. With portraits. 2 vols., 8vo. London: Hutchinson & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

These portly and showy volumes contain portions of a family correspondence of considerable interest and value, though not precisely the same as the title-page would lead us to expect. The introduction tells us that "the Francis family had a weakness for preserving letters which lasted through several generations." The selection and arrangement was originally the work of Sir Philip's great-granddaughter, and, when necessarily laid aside by reason of her fatal illness, was completed by the lady whose name stands with hers on the title-page.

These letters are very miscellaneous in character and of very varying interest. Some from Alexander Mackrabie, Philip's brother-in-law, throw amusing light on the colonies in the days just before the Revolution. He writes from Philadelphia, in 1768, "I would not as a friend advise Mr. G. Grenville to come and pass a summer in America. It might be unsafe." From New York, in the same year: "They have a vile Practice here which is peculiar to this City; I mean that of playing Back-Gammon (a Noise I detest), which is going forward in the public Coffee-House from Morning till Night." Francis's own letters from India are interesting, but do not add much to our knowledge of his stormy service there. Those from and to his family exhibit him on the whole in a very amiable light, as an affectionate, if sometimes irascible, father, and a most devoted husband in England, whatever his life in India. There is much amusing gossip about great people and little people, and one story of an elopement, agreeing in many minute details with that in 'Pride and Prejudice,' written about the same period. There is no want of wit or of pathos; but there is not a single word elucidating the smallest point, pro or con, in the "Junius" discussion. The letters are preceded by a well-written introduction on this subject, showing concisely, but clearly, the additional evidence which has been accumulating of late years in favor of Francis's authorship, and commenting, not unfairly or intemperately, upon the bitterness of the animus with which C. W. Dilke and others always attacked the "Franciscans." But the thread of connection between this introduction and the correspondence is—not.

The portraits are an attractive feature of the book; but that of Burke is disfigured by putting his name under it, by a common but irritating American mistake, as "The Hon." instead of "Right-Hon." Edmund Burke.

The Use of Words in Reasoning. By Alfred Sidgwick. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan Co. 1901. Pp. xi, 370.

This book is at once a criticism of formal logic, deductive and inductive, and a course of instruction in regard to how formal logic should be used. The author's prime object is to aid the reader to get at the truth in matters which concern him, and to avoid overestimating and underestimating formal logic as a means to that end. It is his contention that logicians, by confining themselves to a consideration of the form of reasoning, have so simplified their problem that their rules are applicable, except in the simplest cases, only after the hard work of the intelligence is done; and that, ignoring the fact that logic is a practical science, they have encumbered their doctrine with a number of distinctions which are of no service whatever, but rather of disservice because they are confusing. He takes up the directions given by formal logic one after the other, and cautions the student at each step to scrutinize the "material" he is dealing with, pointing out the commoner sources of error in that step, and retrenching such surplusage of doctrine as he conceives logicians have been guilty of.

In purpose the book reminds one of Locke's little 'Essay on the Conduct of the Human Understanding'; it is an essay on the proper conduct of the human understanding in the use of formal logic. It has great value for the student at the period when he is forming his habits of investigation; it offers the professional logician a number of discussions conducted with the fairness and the authority which we have learned to expect from the author of 'Fallacies.'

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 15, 1901.

The Week.

It is war which the Amalgamated Association declared, and the rigors of war it is already experiencing. The swift reply of the Steel Corporation to the assaults upon its property at McKeesport is an order to dismantle the works. The men may have that field to themselves, and the wonderful Mayor who had announced that he would not protect mill-property, is likely to find himself and his municipality without any mill-property. Strikes and labor-organizations have caused the grass to grow in the streets of more than one New England town, and why should they not do it in McKeesport? The Steel Corporation has to seek for no justification except in the fact that war is being waged upon it. In self-defence, measures are warranted which would be, without provocation, open to severe condemnation. President Gompers's apologetic and hesitant defence of the Amalgamated Association, which he promises, in the name of the Federation of Labor, to aid in its great struggle, does not in the least alter the situation. A great industry has been wantonly attacked, and it is entitled, nay, it is bound, to defend itself by every lawful weapon upon which it can place its hand.

The resolution adopted by the two lodges (No. 9 and No. 14) of the Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers in Chicago, declaring their purpose to adhere to their agreement with their employers, will meet the approval of every man of honor in the country, whether he be a wage-payer or wage-earner, or a mere spectator of the contest. These men say that, through a ruling of their President in 1897, they made a record that they had never violated a contract, and that not wishing to bring the Amalgamated Association into disrepute, they will not do so now. They will extend financial aid to their brothers in the East, but they will continue at their work in accordance with their agreement. The moral worth of this action to organized labor itself is immense. It puts the men of these lodges on a plane from which they can command hereafter the friendship of their employers, the sympathy of the public, and, what is of still more importance, their own self-respect. Labor has won no victories of permanent value by dishonorable means. The great strikes of the past that have turned out to be failures, like the Debs strike of 1894, and the Martin Irons strike of 1886, were indefensible on grounds of justice; both of those named were carried on by lawless methods, and both ended disastrously to the strikers. Worse still, both of them brought disrepute upon labor-unions generally. The methods adopted in those instances were ascribed to all the unions, and thus suspicion and prejudice attached to them at the beginning of every subsequent strike of any magnitude. The resolution of the Chicago lodges points a new pathway for the attainment of the ends aimed at by organized labor, and one which gives promise of the most satisfactory results. It is not possible that differences should not arise between employers and employees in the future. They may be as numerous as in the past, but they cannot be so bitter and irreconcilable if the two opposing interests meet each other on the basis of mutual respect and regard, and with confidence in each other's honor. Such a basis these Chicago lodges have established for themselves, and their fellow-workers in Milwaukee and Joliet have wisely follow their example.

Saturday's Government estimate of the corn crop is considerably more unfavorable than the estimates hitherto set forth by responsible private experts. As interpreted by the grain trade, it appears to indicate a loss by drought, during July, of at least 650,000,000 bushels, or nearly one-third of the whole crop of 1900. This conclusion at least jumps with the rise in price of corn to the highest point reached even in 1894. The figures based on the Government's returns, however, may be taken with some reserve. This is not only because of the Agricultural Department's well-known tendency to underestimate. As a matter of fact, the Department does not, until the season's close, make any actual estimate of yield. Its monthly report deals solely with "condition percentages." That is to say, the average outturn of the average farm for a series of years is first accepted as the normal, and the "percentage" of a given State or district is then reckoned according as its present promise indicates a crop above or below that average. Since these "percentages" deal with average yield per acre, it is obvious that the area planted must be kept in mind in figuring out the indicated yield. This is by no means a certain quantity; in addition to which fact, experts disagree radically as to the accurate method of reckoning probable yield, even from the known percentages. In the present case, for instance, two well-known statisticians, both using Saturday's Government figures, put forth estimates of a total crop varying a hundred million bushels from one another.

The salient fact of the Government returns, however, is that the August report on condition of the corn crop—54 per cent.—not only compares with a percentage of 87½ a year ago, but with 69 in August, 1894. Still, the effects of the season's disaster may very easily be exaggerated. It is plainer now even than it was a month ago that numerous offsetting circumstances exist which will go far towards preventing really calamitous results. We do not here refer to the "price compensation." This is at best an unequal and uncertain consolation. We have, however, spoken already of the ability of the farming West to meet the crop disaster. Returns at the opening of this season, for national banks outside the larger cities, showed for the five States of Texas, Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, and Missouri no less an increase of individual deposits over 1900 than $52,000,000, or 36 per cent. So recently as the opening week of August, checks drawn on banks in the corn-belt section and passed through the clearing-houses ran more than 15 per cent. above last year. Finally, there remains the striking fact that the wheat crop will still in all probability reach a dimension never but once exceeded in our history. Among the States, moreover, where the "condition percentages" on wheat run well above the country's average are Iowa, Missouri, Kansas, and Nebraska. The indication of an enormous wheat crop comes at an hour when the weekly shipment of wheat from the United States to the foreign consuming world runs four times as high as that of a year ago, and a million and a quarter bushels beyond the largest previous weekly record in our history.

A Washington telegram to the *Times* assumes that the recent interview given out by Senator Cullom, respecting the tariff and reciprocity, was the product of an understanding reached during the recent visit of the Senator at Canton, Ohio. Mr. Cullom, according to this account, is to be Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations in place of the late Senator Davis. He is to represent the policy of the Administration in reference to the pending reciprocity treaties. He said in the interview that he did not favor any general tariff legislation this winter, but that he thought that some of the pending treaties of reciprocity might be ratified. He did not mention the French treaty, but it is evident that he had this one in mind. So we may assume that the tug will come on this treaty, its supporters being led by Mr. Cullom and its opponents by Senator Lodge. In such an event the ratification may be confidently expected, provided the Democratic Senators support it. The Western Republicans may be relied on to follow

Mr. Cullom if, by their votes, he becomes Chairman of the Foreign Committee. The Democrats will be likely to support it if they see a chance of producing discord among the Republicans. Everything depends, however, on the firmness of the President in adhering to his present intention. If he is willing to fight for the trade policy which he advocated during his Southwestern tour, he can carry it through. But will he do so?

The need of an Expansionists' dictionary of definitions is clearly shown in Gen. Kobbé's report on slavery in the sultanate of Sulu. "Slavery," he says, "as the term is usually understood, does not exist among the Moros." That there is some special, unusual form of slavery in his district he virtually admits when he continues: "Radical and comprehensive measures to abolish it [slavery as it is not usually understood] would at this time be premature and ineffective." A certain light is shed on the peculiar institution of the Moros by the final statement: "The slaves and the masters belong to the same race and live on equal social terms." Here is evidently the blessed dispensation which makes of the Sulu worker not a slave "as the term is usually understood," but a "hired man" without the hire. How should this Government venture to disturb an idyllic order of society which permits master and slave to "move in the same set"? Of course, observers quite as conversant with Moro life as Gen. Kobbé have used the world slavery in no such Pickwickian sense. Mr. Foreman writes concerning the sultanate: "Slavery exists in a most ample sense"—that is, as it is usually understood. Professor Worcester, now of the Philippines Commission, wrote of the Moro warrior: "Inhuman cruelty is one of his most prominent characteristics, and he will cut down a slave merely to try the edge of a new barong." Of a neighboring island he writes:

> "We soon found that the slave business still flourished in Tawi-Tawi. Girls of fifteen years were valued at three cabans (about five bushels of rice). One was offered to us at Tataän for three dollars in cash. . . . Slave-dealers had no difficulty in selling all the able-bodied men they could capture to the Dutch planters in Borneo."

This, too, is slavery "as it is usually understood." Possibly a two years' alliance with this country has mitigated this kind of slavery by introducing the American ideal of "social equality"; but it seems more likely that Gen. Kobbé uses the word slavery "as it is usually understood" by his official superiors—that is, in some benevolently assimilative sense that the mere lay mind must inevitably fail to comprehend.

Gen. Chaffee's final report leaves the missionaries in China something to explain. So much has been written for and against their peculiar methods of collecting indemnities that the public is pretty well tired of the whole controversy. Gen. Chaffee's word in the matter will, however, be received with interest and respect. People know that he thinks bravely, and speaks straight out of personal conviction. He writes that a Mr. Tewksbury presented for his approval a sliding scale of indemnities, according to which one town was to pay $48 a life, another only $17.50, two others $157 and $350 respectively. This difference he finds suspicious. And, in fact, it looks very like carrying over into missionary enterprise the practice of the great surgeons, who charge according to the ability to pay. We have no doubt that Mr. Tewksbury and the missionary societies will have an explanation ready; but it must be said for the decision of the Japanese Buddhists in China to collect no indemnities that it has the more Christian look.

The American counsel who represented claimants before the South African Compensation Commission in London on Monday, objected to the suggestion that something might be done for some of them as "an act of grace." He stood on the law and the comity of nations. "If in diplomacy an ambassador were told that a Government's representations were considered as 'an act of grace,' it might be dangerous. Less than that had produced war." Glorious language to hold in the face of the insolent Briton, but it comes with exceeding bad grace from an American. More than once has the American Government paid indemnity, or offered compensation, as an act of grace. It did so in the case of Spaniards attacked in New Orleans in 1850. So it did again in 1885, in the affair of the Chinese massacre in Wyoming. In the latter instance the vote of money by Congress expressly stated that the grant was not made as a matter of legal right. And in President Harrison's message of 1892 he referred to the placing of 125,000 francs at the disposal of Italy, to be distributed among the families of the Italians lynched in New Orleans, as a "friendly act," thus carefully guarding against the inference of legal obligation. And the uninstructed Mr. Harrison, far from dreaming that "less than that had produced war," declared, in his untutored way, that the incident had been "highly promotive of mutual respect and good will"!

It was no joke for Mr. William Radcliffe, nor is it for Colorado or the United States, that that Englishman recently lost $75,000 worth of property by mob violence, and is absolutely without legal redress. Mr. Radcliffe had presumed to establish a fish preserve on the free and easy mesa, and had his buildings burned by masked ruffians. He cannot sue the State, which is sovereign, nor can he, in Colorado, recover damages from the county. If he could identify the mob leaders, and they had property above the $2,000 which the State law makes exempt, he could cast them in damages; but this is, of course, impossible. The result is that Mr. Radcliffe has no recourse except to make diplomatic representations to the Washington Government. This, we believe, he proposes to do, and we heartily hope he will. We cannot too often have it sharply brought home to our national consciousness that local lawlessness, like that in Colorado, is a national disgrace to us in the eyes of the world. Italy is again going straight to headquarters on account of failure to protect her subjects in this country; and if the practice spreads among foreign nations, we may become sufficiently impressed to revise our laws and mend our manners.

The Governor of Georgia demonstrated last week the ease with which a lynching may be prevented, if the authorities but set themselves seriously to the task. Gov. Candler had to send a negro, accused of criminal assault upon a white woman, from Atlanta to Canton, Ga., for trial. Having heard rumors that there would be an attempt to lynch him if the negro was sent in the custody of two or three policemen, the Governor ordered out three companies of militia and put them in command of a prominent officer, upon whom rested the responsibility for the safe conduct of the criminal. On arrival at Canton the negro was tried, convicted, and sentenced to be hanged, all within forty minutes. The convict was then taken back to Atlanta and safely lodged in jail, where he will remain until the sentence is executed. Gov. Candler, in speaking of the case, said that the expense of the military escort would be $800, but that if more troops were needed on the day of the execution, they would be forthcoming, no matter what the cost, as he is determined to have the law obeyed. When the highest State officials set examples like this, their subordinates and public opinion throughout their commonwealths must inevitably respond to their influence. Had it cost $80,000, or even $800,000, to prevent a lynching, Gov. Candler would still have been justified in taking the action which he did.

In the course of his strenuous efforts to bring about the disfranchisement of the negroes by the Alabama State Convention, Congressman Bowie brought out some extremely encouraging facts. The Birmingham *Age-Herald* having suggested that the payment of a poll tax be made the basis for suffrage, Mr. Bowie hastened to show that this would never do, since in twelve counties the negroes paid nearly twice as much poll-

tax as the whites during the fiscal year 1899-1900. In Dallas County, for instance, the negroes paid $2,048, while the whites paid only $906, the figures for all twelve being $15,316 and $8,869. That this proportion is partially due to the excess of negroes over whites is probably true. But Congressman Bowie was right, from his point of view, in pointing out that some other way of keeping the negro away from the polls must be found, if the latter is so ready to pay a poll-tax at the present time when he is always doubtful of being allowed to cast his vote or of having it counted. While the friends of the negro in Alabama and the colored men themselves find the new Constitution worse than expected because of the grandfather clause, they are nevertheless encouraged by the fact that its objectionable features will expire by limitation in 1903. After this time every new voter must read and write, and pay taxes on $300, and any negro who can meet these conditions is entitled to registration now. This will be an added stimulus to them to learn and acquire and to prove themselves worthy of the support of the white minority which fought for their cause in the Convention with no little courage.

Assistant Secretary Hackett's reprimand of Rear-Admiral Robley D. Evans is a blow in the face of every naval officer. In telling non-officially the story of his naval career, Rear-Admiral Evans narrated the incident of his being detached from the lighthouse service because of his refusal to give way to political demands upon him, and characterized the action of the Secretary at that time, without mentioning his name, as the sting of an insect. Secretary Chandler has been out of the Navy Department for sixteen years, and therefore Rear-Admiral Evans was in no way contravening the usual rules of discipline which wisely forbid a subordinate to criticise his superior. Had he criticised Gideon Welles or some earlier Secretary, no one would have dreamed of taking him to task for it. But, as we all admit when it is a question of doctorates for the President of the United States, the sanctity of office must be maintained, and Mr. Chandler's reclamations were promptly heeded by the Department.

Friday's raids, captures, and revelations by the Society for the Prevention of Crime should astonish no one, except for the extraordinary completeness with which the alliance of Tammany with crime was again established. The proof was only of a state of things which has long been morally certain, but it was proof—legal proof, apparently—and that is hard to get. It cuts out new work for the District Attorney, and is one bombshell more exploded in the already demoralized ranks of Tammany. Never before, we believe, have so many high officers of the police been caught thus openly hand in glove with criminals, and using the machinery of their office to protect the crime on which they wax fat. The uncovering of this Tammany foulness falls in very pat with the announcement from Wantage, that Croker is coming back to conduct his campaign "on high moral lines," and in such a way that the very clergy "would endorse it."

If it be true that Lieut.-Gen. Lyttleton is to succeed Gen. Kitchener in command of the English troops in South Africa, he will be the fifth officer to assume this responsibility since the summer of 1899. He certainly is not to be congratulated upon the undertaking before him. "Monotonous misery" the Jingo *Broad Arrow* calls it, expressing, no doubt, the views of most English officers, both at home and abroad; and it admits that outwardly the signs of a termination of the trouble are difficult to find. What the English newspapers have been slow to portray is the steady deterioration of the army, and the astonishing lack of vim and energy in the men who are reported fit for duty. 200,000 is the number the British still claim to have over and above the men in hospital, but the battalions are sorely weakened by convalescents, by the need of many soldiers for detached duties, the lack of officers, and the widespread homesickness and physical exhaustion. Moreover, the War Office is having no little difficulty in furnishing those fresh mounted troops to the number of 30,000 that Kitchener has called for. In fact, recruiting for the whole army is in such a backward condition that Mr. Brodrick's reorganization scheme is admitted to be seriously endangered. Recruiting has now fallen to the level of January, 1899, which was then below the demands of the army before the war. This adds ominously to the difficulties which will confront Gen. Lyttleton. How great these are in the mass, and how seriously they press upon the Government, is shown very clearly in the proclamation of banishment issued on Thursday to the Boers in arms. What good it can do except to show the state of harrassed desperation to which the Ministry is reduced, it is hard to see.

By a curious coincidence the death of Crispi follows within a few days that of Gen. Baratieri. It was Crispi who, more than any other statesman, had stood for the ideal of a greater Italy. It was Baratieri who had the misfortune to survive Adowa, that fatal day to the military and colonial prestige of Italy. Crispi had so dropped out of sight, and the great bank scandals had so clouded the end of his régime with the suspicion of personal ignominy, that we need to remind ourselves how potent and individual a figure he was in his prime. He set before himself early in life a single ideal, the aggrandizement of Italy. This made him a Garibaldian, so long as the specific task of conquest lay before him. It made him, with equal logic, a royalist when the monarchy had become "the symbol of Italian unity." By aggrandizement Crispi always understood material aggrandizement—something that a party might set before itself, or an appropriation might secure. When his party came to power in 1876, there began a riot of extravagance. Italy began to go in for the biggest public buildings of the time, the biggest ships on the ocean, a great army, the alliance with Germany and Austria which was to restore her position as a world-Power, colonial expansion, domestic speculation on a vast and disastrous scale; and for all these things it was Crispi who somehow got the money and got the votes. Many Italians hold Crispi quit of the charge of personal corruption, but it is hard to see how history can forget that the worst corruption went on under him and very near him. He lent his support to many useful reforms, notably to the extension of the suffrage; but in a general way he appears to have had no sufficient apprehension of the wider moral results of his various policies.

The death of Prince Henry of Orleans draws fresh attention to the attitude of the royalists and Bonapartists towards the French Republic. Prince Henry, it is well known, had frankly cast in his lot with the new régime—or, rather, had taken himself out of politics for the purpose of pursuing the strenuous life in adventures and explorations in Africa and Asia. Just on the eve of his untimely end, the Paris *Figaro* published authorized interviews with Prince Napoleon, and also with the Duke of Orleans, covering questions as to what position they and their followers would take in next year's general elections in France. The Bonapartist pretender professed to be a great believer in popular suffrage, and thought that if a really fair *plébiscite* of the French people could be had, they would declare for a Napoleonic Emperor again. Lacking that, his hope is in "one of those events which no one can foresee," and which might lead him to "place his life and devotion at the service of France." The plain meaning is a war or a *coup d'état*. As for the Duke of Orleans, he has few illusions left about universal suffrage as the direct road to the monarchy. To him, it is the "interest of the people" (he, of course, understands that better than the people themselves) which demands a restoration of the Bourbons. The Duke endorsed the formula of one of his followers, "Remember that we have a prince who has said, 'I shall come back in any way I can.'" There the matter rests.

THE STRIKE TO MONOPOLIZE LABOR.

Whatever doubts there may have been about the real issue in the steel strike, they were all swept away by President Shaffer's strike order on August 7. The aim of the Amalgamated Association is now perfectly clear. It would monopolize the labor of the iron and steel industry of this country. On the one hand, it would turn to non-union workers, and say to them, "You shall have no employment without an Amalgamated card." On the other, it would face the employers and say to them, "You shall hire no man not approved by us." Say what you will of the Steel Corporation—call it a threatening combination and a hateful monopoly; it is not so dangerous as this one which the steel-workers' union is trying to make strong and tyrannous.

"We don't want to quarrel with you, but we know how to manage the mills better than the masters do, and we mean to do it." So said the English labor-leaders to Mr. J. M. Maclean, late member of Parliament for Oldham and Cardiff. It was a labor constituency, and he eventually lost his seat for refusing to vote in the Commons as the trades unions dictated. Secretly congratulated by a Radical for his courage, Mr. Maclean said that he had only ventured to maintain in the Commons that even property still had some rights in Great Britain. "Ah," rejoined the Radical, "that is a thing you may think, but you mustn't say it in these days." In these two quotations lies the kernel of the whole controversy between the Steel Corporation and the Amalgamated Association. The men mean to take the management of the mills out of the hands of the owners. That is what Mr. Shaffer had in mind when he declared that the strike was due to the refusal to "recognize as union men those who are now striving for the right to organize." If they are not yet organized, they cannot be union men—but let that pass. The position of the directors of the Steel Corporation is that they must protect a vast capital, and that they might as well shut up their mills and let their securities become unsalable as to place their property at the mercy of either labor-leaders or politicians.

There has been much public wonder over the bringing on of this gigantic struggle when the points of difference appeared so trivial. On its face, the dispute was simply whether three or four mills, out of scores, should be unionized or not. Why should a great labor union be ready to run such frightful risks for so slight a gain? Why, on the other hand, should a huge corporation, with immensely extended and highly vulnerable interests, make a stand on so minor a matter? You might as well ask why a general should bring on a bloody battle and imperil his whole army, merely to hold an insignificant hill. If the hill is the key to the position, if it is a Little Round Top or an Arapil Grande, and its occupation by the enemy would mean destruction to Meade or Wellington, he is justified in fighting for its possession with his last man and gun. The public may have been mystified, but the Amalgamated officials have not been. They knew what they were working for. And the officers of the Steel Corporation were shrewd enough to perceive it. To unionize a few more mills meant a determination ultimately to unionize all mills; and if there was to be a fight at all against that encroaching tyranny over free labor and free capital, it had better be made at once, before the Malakoff of the defences had been carried or weakly surrendered.

One thing should be perfectly understood. It was the Amalgamated Association that took the aggressive. It is easy to accuse Messrs. Morgan and Schwab of being "labor-crushers" and union-haters, but no evidence to support that charge appears in the record. The Steel Corporation made distinct concessions. It went further than some of its own directors thought wise or safe. Remember, it was not a question of continuing last year's status as regards union and non-union mills. A change was demanded, and it was not by the Corporation, but by the Association. There was no proposal to transfer a mill from the union to the non-union list. The Association could allege no such aggressive action against it. Indeed, it would be to suppose Mr. Morgan and his associates mad or drunk if they could be thought capable, in the present situation of the Steel Corporation, of needlessly provoking a quarrel with the labor union. It was by the other side that the arrogant demands were made. One of them was for the unionizing of the W. Dewees Wood mill at McKeesport. There the Amalgamated Association had made itself so intolerable to the proprietors that they had fought themselves clear of it, and their mill was publicly recognized, at the last signing of the scale, as non-union. But Shaffer insisted that it now be ranked as union again, and this without any evidence that the employees wished to join the union. What the Amalgamated officials desire is power to coerce them and all other steel-workers, and gradually to work into a position where they will have a complete monopoly of the labor of one of the greatest and most vital industries of the country.

When such a sharp challenge is put forth, men who believe in personal liberty, in freedom for both laborer and employer, in the maintenance of a government under which there shall still be preserved individual initiative and free competition of muscle and talent, cannot hesitate where to take their stand. It is now useless to discuss side issues and minor matters. Perhaps this attitude of the labor-union should have been more clearly foreseen by the Steel Corporation. Perhaps sufficient allowance was not made for the natural effect of a billion-dollar company on the imagination and ambitions of labor-leaders. Trust promoters have talked complacently about "inevitable" combinations. Doubtless strikes are just as inevitable. We cannot say that the things which we like are ordained of God, and the things that disturb us are the work of Satan. Perhaps, also, the steel incorporators should have reflected more maturely on the certainty that, while they were thinking of the supremacy of America in the manufacture of steel, the labor-unions would be thinking only of their own supremacy. But all that is now past. We are confronted with a demand which stabs free labor to the heart and holds a dagger to the throat of property. An insolent union, aiming at a labor monopoly, rises up boldly in the face of capital and says, "It is one or the other of us now." To that there can be but one answer.

FEAR OF A WORD.

We are daily getting additions to the stock of dodging phrases about the Philippines. The rule with their makers seems to be that you may say anything you please as long as it is indefinite, but that in no case, and yielding to no exigency either of logic or politics, must you use the word independence. Thus, the Iowa Republicans are for a Philippine policy which will "secure the lasting welfare of these people whose fortunes and destinies have become in large degree dependent upon us." This was a successful sailing round the awful word, though it must have given the Convention a shiver to come so near it as to say "dependent." Gen. MacArthur tries his hand at an elegant amphiboly, speaking in his last annual report of what will happen after "beneficent republican institutions" have been permitted to operate in the Philippines "with full force." If you asked him, or any Republican, to define the full force of republican institutions, he would rush off into some other ambiguity. He would blandly tell you he meant the "completest degree of self-government that the people are capable of maintaining." But he would never say independence. He would fear that the heavens would fall if he did.

All this hemming and hawing reminds us vividly of the similar agonized avoidance of the word gold in the early months of 1896. Mr. McKinley ransacked the dictionary to find vocables to conceal his thought. He was for "the best money known to mankind." He would fight to the last gasp for a currency as "unsullied as the flag," as

"unquestioned as the nation's sovereignty." But when you asked him, "Do you mean by that the gold standard?" his reply was only another shuffle. And it was not until the demand from the East became imperative, and Mr. McKinley took his courage in both hands and at last said "gold," that the campaign began to move and the currency question to be settled politically. Some day a Republican leader will be found bold enough to brush away the cobwebs which have been similarly spun about our policy in the Philippines, and to find the only settlement in one clear-cut word, "independence."

Gen. MacArthur's report comes as a timely reminder of the duty of the American people to face and answer the question what they mean ultimately to do with the Philippines. The problem is now removed from the confused smoke of battle. It is not complicated at present by the strife of tongues political. But it is there, this question is, just as real and urgent as ever. And we ought to see the immense importance of deciding at the earliest possible moment what our ultimate goal is to be. In government, as in everything else, conduct is determined by the end in view. Acts are wise or foolish according to their purpose. The firm-held intention controls and shapes every measure subordinate to it.

Take the simple matter of education in the Philippines. We have sent six hundred school-teachers to the archipelago. Very good, if we and they have distinctly in mind what the object is in teaching the natives. If we mean always to hold them in subjection, taxed without being represented, ruled by a power which sends its fiats across 7,000 miles of ocean—then their education would be one thing. We should know at once what books and provinces of thought to keep for ever closed to them. We should not dare to let them study American history; it would be madness to instruct them as to the historic Anglo-Saxon struggle for liberty; in pure self-defence we should have to keep from them the world's great charters of freedom. It is in this way that the end would, necessarily, not only crown the work, but control it throughout. But if we intend to make the Filipinos independent, our whole attitude and aim, our means and methods, would inevitably be different, from the start and all through. If the natives are to be independent, their education must be, like that of our own children, in the school of liberty. To teachers and pupils alike it is of vast consequence to know, before the first text-book is opened, whether this is to be so. Thus far, the Government oracles are dumb on this subject. They leave us, with their servants in the archipelago, in wandering mazes lost of vague benevolence. What the times cry out for, however, what true policy demands, is a north star to sail by.

The one we Americans have always laid our compasses by hitherto is independence. Why should it be such a bugaboo to us now? Why should that word suddenly become taboo to our tongues which we have freely shouted to the blast? We speak now of our "new possessions," of our "colonial government." They are but makeshift phrases. What are we going to do with our new possessions? Whither does our colonial government tend? Until we answer those questions, we have not got beyond the A B C of our difficulties. The historic American view of the only natural and desirable outcome of the transition stage in which we at present find ourselves, is no secret. It is as an open book in our Monroe Doctrine—a solemn national protest against colonies governed across the sea. In 1826, Edward Everett, the orator born to gild American commonplaces with his rhetoric, uttered the prevailing view of his countrymen about colonial government. His reproach of the English statesmen of the age of the Revolution was for not being large-minded enough to grasp the idea that "a wise colonial government must naturally and rightfully end in independence; that even a mild and prudent sway, on the part of the mother country, furnishes no reason for not severing the bands of colonial subjection."

RECIPROCITY OR WAR.

We have been requested by respectable and sober-minded persons to express our opinion of a contribution by Mr. Brooks Adams in the *Atlantic Monthly* for August, under the title, "Reciprocity or the Alternative." It would be easy to say that its only importance, in our opinion, is derived from the magazine in which it is allowed a place; but that would not be a satisfactory answer to persons who have been puzzled by Mr. Adams's eccentric interpretation of history, and his application of past events to present conditions.

Briefly, it is Mr. Adams's contention that the United States has reached the point, as an industrial nation, where it is beginning to compete disastrously with other nations—that is, disastrously to them; that those nations are becoming irritated and will, in the course of time, be sufficiently exasperated to join together and make war upon us *vi et armis*, unless we grant them "reciprocity," whatever that may be. Failing in this, he thinks that we ought to get ready to meet the expected attack by recruiting and drilling an army of 300,000 men, which can be put in the field in twenty days, together with an ample reserve of officers and supplies. A navy is still more important, and he thinks that "one hundred battle-ships and armored cruisers equipped and ready for sea would hardly suffice." Among other things needed for the coming crisis, he mentions "fortified coasts and colonies and an effective transport service."

Our Lochiel's warning is not the result of divination or second sight, but is the teaching of history, in which Mr. Adams finds it an accepted theory that "war is only an extreme phase of economic competition; and if this postulate be correct, it follows that international competition, if carried far enough, must end in war." The illustration which he chiefly relies on is an episode of the seventeenth century, in the reign of Louis XIV. He tells us that Colbert, the great Minister of that monarch, took up the task of economic reform, and, in the course of his endeavors to make France the leading industrial nation in Europe, found Holland standing in his way—that is, she was outstripping France in the race for commercial supremacy. Confronted by this fact, "Colbert pondered the crisis long and anxiously, and deliberately decided that it would be cheapest to cut the knot by war. . . . The final blow, which is said to have almost broken his heart, came in 1670, when, just as the French East India Company admitted itself to be practically insolvent, the Dutch Company divided 40 per cent. From that moment Colbert recognized peaceful competition as impossible, and nerved himself for war."

It is not absolutely essential to Mr. Adams's argument that this episode in Franch history should be susceptible of verification, but he makes so much of it and relies upon it to such an extent that we point out that other historians differ from him. The commonly accepted view is the one given in the latest edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' which says in substance that Colbert was greatly grieved and disappointed when Louis XIV., from motives of personal ambition and private grudge, decided on war with Holland. Colbert was grieved because war would necessarily throw back and nullify his economic reforms. Since Mr. Adams refers vaguely to the letters of Colbert, without quoting any of them, it may be well to cite a few words from the history of France by Henri Martin, who had examined these letters in the light of current events. He says:

> "The commercial war so well conducted by Colbert, with his tariffs and differential duties, was no longer enough; it was a war of invasion and conquest that Louis XIV. meditated, and there is no reason to doubt that this idea *belonged to him alone*. . . . Colbert himself could not escape this necessity, although a direct and territorial attack against Holland would naturally compromise all his arrangements and policy. He followed the movement which he could not openly oppose without destroying himself."

The historian inserts a footnote at this place, saying that "M. P. Clément, in his 'Histoire de Colbert,' concludes, from letters in which the Minister expresses indignation against Holland, that Colbert had urged the war. The deduction

does not appear to us sufficiently established. It was with other weapons that Colbert had commenced and would have continued the fight."

Mr. Adams's article is as flighty in its economical reasoning as in its historical illustration. It is as hard to attack his argument as it is to prove a negative. The way in which he habitually mixes up irrelevant things may be inferred from a paragraph on the last page, in which he sums up his conclusions thus:

"In a word, the experience of ages has demonstrated that alternatives are presented to aspiring nations in regard to the payment they will make for their prize. The one is the alternative of Cobden, the other that of Colbert. There is no middle course. Destruction has awaited the gambler who backs his luck, the braggart who would be at once rich, aggressive, and unarmed."

Here we are told that alternatives are presented to aspiring nations in regard to the payment they will make for their prize. What prize? There are various kinds of prizes in this world. The only two here mentioned are those of the gambler and the braggart, the latter being an "aggressive" person and presumably one who seizes other people's belongings. But the whole scope of the article which precedes the summing up relates to a nation which is not gambling at all, but is minding its own business with such assiduity that it is surpassing other nations in the cheapening of production. Much might be said against Mr. Adams's assumption that the United States is about to surpass European countries in all kinds of production, giving them no chance to earn a penny, and therefore compelling them to fight for a living. Of course, if the time comes when they cannot produce anything which we are willing to take in exchange for our goods, we shall not send our goods to them. Then they will have an opportunity to work, and they will probably improve it by producing goods of their own instead of sending soldiers three or four thousand miles from home, at great expense, to fight us.

THE SOCIALIST UNREST IN ITALY.

Cavour said toward the end of his career that his aim for Italy had been a kingship which, "far from following after the whims and immediate needs of the people, should so take the lead in all liberal and practical measures that it might oppose a sufficient authority to popular passions when the mob yielded to dangerous leadings." The great liberator might almost have had in mind the gallant young monarch who to-day faces an Italy torn by social strife.

Our own industrial situation is serenity itself when compared with the present state of Italy. Since the Saracco Ministry fell in February last because of its shuffling attitude toward the dock strike at Genoa, there have been strikes up and down the kingdom. Agrarian strikes in Lombardy and Emilia and Apulia, the tobacco-workers at Milan and Florence, the macaroni-makers about Naples, the train-handlers in Sardinia—everywhere it has been the same story. It is two months since the Minister of the Interior, addressing the Chamber of Deputies, congratulated the country that 511 strikes had passed off with a minimum of disorder, that 1,000,000 workmen had been benefited directly or indirectly, and that the Government had been able to maintain a benevolently impartial attitude alike to employers and employed. Probably few at the time shared the easy optimism of Signor Giolitti, and a week later the unfortunate shooting of two strikers at Berra by Government troops inflamed the worst passions of the Socialist leaders. The Minister of War was grossly insulted in the Chamber, and a campaign of vilification began against the lieutenant who had ordered the shooting.

In their avowed purpose of bringing on the war of classes, the Italian Socialists have succeeded beyond expectation. The persistent Agrarian strikes undoubtedly have a large basis in justice. It is small wonder that a people with whom hunger is a constant experience and starvation seldom far out of sight, should revolt against the conditions which oppress them. And yet many of the Agrarian strikes have a political complexion. The Leagues of the National Federation of Labor order strikes peremptorily, and the organization is so perfect that the laborers obey blindly and lend themselves to the most excessive demands. What would an American farmer and landlord say to such terms as these, which were flung to the proprietors of Como?

"The wage to be tripled.

"Rents to be reduced 30 per cent., and, if paid in kind, the tenant's weighing or valuation to be accepted.

"The landowners not to require payment of rent, or dismiss laborers who are unable to pay on account of misfortune *or other cause.*

"The landowners, on their proper peril, not to employ outsiders."

Exceptional as these demands probably are, they show that in many cases it is really industrial war that the Socialists aim at.

The Zanardelli Ministry, it will be remembered, stands by virtue of its Socialist and Radical allies of the Extreme Left; and the aged Premier, for a moment at least towards the close of the Parliamentary session, gained a real moral ascendency over his unstable majority. The comprehensive plan for the removal of the octroi taxes, and the consequent redistribution of taxation, had been buried in committee, and the Ministry, in passing the supplies bills, was harassed by the Opposition and taunted with maintaining an unholy alliance with the subversive Left, and allowing the strikes to run into anarchy. It was then that Zanardelli, in a nobly conceived address, affirmed his loyalty to the monarchy and his faith in liberty. He knew the drawbacks of liberal rule, he knew that progress was attained only through struggle and often strife, but to any apparent safety that might come from repression—a policy which his opponents had tried with bitter results—he preferred liberty with its perils: *malo periculosam libertatem.* For a moment it looked like the consummation predicted by Mr. Bolton King in his 'Italy of To-day'—the drawing together of the Radical, the Socialist, and Republican groups to form a genuine Liberal party. With such a coalition of the Left, Depretis ruled Italy for many years after the fall of the Monarchists in 1876, and earlier the Italian unity itself had come about only through the coöperation of Royalists and Republicans.

Whether Signor Zanardelli was too hopeful or not in citing these precedents, the near future will tell. For the present everything points to dissension. The reading of the veteran Socialist leader Turati out of the Milan Federation may be the work of a few incendiary politicians, such as abound in that city. But other indications make for the ascendency of the so-called "Anarchoids." Meanwhile the Ministry has taken steps for which it will be called roundly to account when Parliament reassembles. Zanardelli, bravely and loyally, has, in his position as umpire of the Genoese strike, decided against the 'Longshoreman's League. Giolitti, the would-be friend of all parties, has, wantonly, it appears, dissolved the Municipal Assembly in two southern communes. These actions must strain sorely the frail bond that holds the Socialists to the Ministry.

Among all these threatening signs, the relative improvement in the national finances promises gradual relief, while the increasing loyalty to the King, strikingly exhibited on the anniversary of Humbert's death, gives a more immediate hope of political conciliation. But the King cannot alone, as Cavour seemed to imagine, oppose the passions of the mob. There must be, to direct Parliament and represent the King, a great Prime Minister, a man of masterful will and large intelligence—another Cavour, in short, to confirm the process of unification that he began. The heartiest well-wishers of Signor Zanardelli and the sincerest admirers of his personal integrity and political sagacity can hardly hope that such an achievement will crown his long career. One advantage, perhaps at great cost, will flow from the Agrarian strikes this year. That political lethargy and indifference which has left rural Italy largely unrepresented in the ongoing of the Government is rudely changed into intense activity. From now on an Agrarian proletariat will make itself felt. From this mass, untrained, but sound at heart, may arise the moderate Socialism with which, in the opinion of many keen

observers, lies the promise of a Liberal régime in Italy.

AMERICAN ART AT BUFFALO.

WINDSOR, VT., August 2, 1901.

Very few people seem to be aware, and most people seem surprised to be told, that, whatever else is or is not to be seen at the Pan-American Exposition, there is to be found there the most complete and representative exhibition of American art ever yet got together. American art made a good showing at Chicago, and a better at Paris last year, but the opinion of artists who saw both exhibitions is that the present one outclasses either. That this is true is principally owing to the Director of Fine Arts, Mr. William A. Coffin, who is eminently the right man in the right place. At once an artist, a critic, and a man of affairs, knowing what it was desirable to get and where and how to get it, possessed of tact, energy, and great executive ability, he has secured a collection of works of art which for the first time fairly and adequately represents the achievement of the United States, in the last quarter of the nineteenth century, in painting and in sculpture. One could count upon the fingers of one hand the men who have made any mark in American art during that period who are not here represented by at least one work; and the cases where the work shown is not fairly representative are very few and, for one or another reason, nearly inevitable. The dead and the living, the Americans who paint abroad and those who stay at home, the figure-painter and the landscape-painter, the draughtsman and the colorist, the impressionist and the followers of the latest Parisian fancy—the "black band"—are all here, each doing his best to show that America has produced something vital and permanently valuable in art.

In one room is a group that represents what is probably the least contested glory of American art. It consists of seven well-chosen pictures by Inness, three by Wyant, and two by Homer Martin, all now dead, the foremost representatives of the elder school of landscape; and near them hang pictures by Ryder, Gifford, Dewey, Bunce, Ranger, and Minor—pictures which are rich and low in tone, handsome if somewhat conventional in composition, and which hang in perfect harmony with their greater neighbors. It is to be regretted that Winslow Homer should have chosen to be represented only by a group of twenty rather crudely and almost brutally powerful water-color sketches from the Bahamas and Bermudas. To the clear-sighted they afford a glimpse of one of the strongest personalities in American art, but they cannot be said, by themselves, to justify his great reputation, and one would have wished for one or two of his masterpieces in oil, whether marines or figure subjects. Mr. Tryon, on the other hand, is at his best in nine examples, mostly of his later and more delicate style, of which one is the capital "Early Spring in New England"; and Horatio Walker, a landscape-painter, too, though his pictures nearly always contain cattle and figures, is shown in three fine examples of his grave and powerful manner. Mr. Weir, though he has here many figure subjects, is at his best in landscape, with his beautiful "New England Factory Village," as is Mr. Hassam with his sparkling fantasies of light. Mr. C. A. Platt, who paints too little nowadays, is as distinguished as ever in the two pictures shown here, and Messrs. Twachtman, Ben Foster, Coffin, Crane, Ochtman, Dearth, Walter Clark, and W. Elmer Schofield, are each well represented by several characteristic examples, while the gaps are filled by many more that one has not space to mention. Though we miss Homer from the painters of marine, we have Alexander Harrison at his best, and Edward Simmons in two sober and solid works in a vein he has lately abandoned, while William T. Richards, F. K. M. Rehn, and Charles H. Woodbury are here with others still. So completely is the American school of landscape here shown that Bolton Jones is the only landscape-painter of any eminence whose absence from the chorus we have noted.

The painters whom it was most difficult to represent fairly in such an exhibition are, of course, those who have devoted themselves largely to decorative painting, those whose most important works are fixed in their places and incapable of transportation. Fortunately, most of these men have done enough in other branches of painting to give some taste of their quality. No collection of pictures could quite make plain the place that John La Farge occupies in our art—it is his general eminence in many branches of decorative design, as well as in drawing and painting, that counts—the sense of a great artistic personality that one gets from his whole career and from the total of his many and scattered manifestations; but we are able to see here at least one of his many sides in the "Christ and Nicodemus" and "Autumn." If we cannot have the decorations of the Mendelssohn Glee Club, we can, at least, have one of Blum's dainty Japanese subjects, and in lieu of Blashfield's mural paintings we have "The Angel with the Flaming Sword." Mr. Simmons has, unfortunately, nothing but the marines already mentioned, but Mr. Mowbray gives us a charming series of small portraits and easel pictures, and Henry Oliver Walker is quite at his best with his Clarke Prize and Shaw Fund pictures, while Vedder gives nearly the measure of his power of design, if not of his occasional force of decorative color.

Our figure-painters who are rather painters of easel-pictures than of decorations, are even more adequately shown. There are but two Thayers, but one of these is one of the best of his smaller works, and Brush is given in both his phases, as the painter of small and carefully finished pictures of Indian subjects, and as the painter of the life-sized "Mother and Child" of the Boston Museum. The exquisite refinement of Dewing is marked in nine small canvases which contrast with the sturdy and even ugly realism of Eakins in three. Miss Beaux has three canvases, of which one, the portrait of "Dorothea and Francesca," is perhaps the most beautiful she has ever produced, and three is also the number of the tapestry-like fancies of J. W. Alexander. Vinton has two admirable portraits, and Chase two or three. Eastman Johnson and J. G. Brown and others of the older men are here, and so are Sergeant Kendall and others still younger; and between them stand Volk and Barse and Wiles. The single, admirable head by Brandegee must not be forgotten. Painters of high key and painters of low, jugglers with light like Tarbell and Benson and Robert Reid, colorists and tonalists like Elliott Daingerfield and Arthur B. Davies, and dealers in black art like Tanner and Henri and half-a-score of others—here they all are, together, for once at least.

And then come the Anglo-Americans and the Franco-Americans: Whistler and Sargent, Abbey and Shannon, McClure Hamilton and Frank Millet; Dannat and Melchers and McEwen, Vail, Pearce, Weeks, Gay, John Humphreys Johnston, Jules Stewart, Julian Story, and a lot of new ones that promise well. Whistler is exquisite in half a dozen little pictures, and Sargent as brilliant as usual in four portraits and two of his wonderful Venetian sketches. Abbey has his "Penance of Eleanor, Duchess of Gloucester," and McClure Hamilton his "Mr. Gladstone in Downing Street" and his "Henry J. Thouron." Mr. Dannat has sent only one small picture—an early one, though none the worse for that; but the other Parisians are pretty fully and fairly represented with large and able work, showing all the technical cleverness of the schools in which they were trained.

In this hasty review I have, perforce, neglected much, some of it of the best, but I have said enough to show that here, if ever, is the opportunity to judge of the achievement of American painters. How great that achievement seems to me I am almost afraid to say. An artist of wide culture and critical judgment was asked where he had seen an exhibition of modern pictures of so high a standard of merit, and, after some thought, could name only the Retrospective Exhibition in Paris in 1889.

Besides all this, there are a collection of miniatures, in which Miss Laura Hills and Mrs. Fuller show the true artistic capabilities of a kind of work that elsewhere, to-day, is apt to be merely photographic and commercial; a collection of engravings and illustrative work; a small architectural exhibition, and an exhibition of sculpture. The architectural exhibition is the least satisfactory of these. Owing to exigencies of space, it was decided that it should be composed only of photographs of completed work, and there have been complaints that it affords no means for the proper understanding of the buildings from a purely architectural point of view. Such as it is, it was selected by a very eminent professional jury, and would probably repay the study of any one competent to form and express a judgment, as I am not.

The volume of book and magazine illustration produced in this country is so vast that no collection can give more than a sample of it, but most of the first-rate men to-day engaged in illustration are here represented; the exceptions being mainly of those who are so well shown in the section of painting that the absence of their black-and-white work could make little difference in the estimation to be formed of them. This section also contains a group of more than twenty etchings by Whistler, and a half-dozen of Duveneck's plates, besides a few etchings, copper-plates, and monotypes by other artists; but the most remarkable part of it is, perhaps, the collection of American wood engravings got together by the eminent engraver, Mr. Henry Wolf. The relatively small size of most wood engravings of the higher sort has enabled him to include, in a restricted space, specimens of the work of almost every American engraver, and thus to afford an unequalled opportunity for the study of the faults and merits of

American practice in an art in which this country has been considered especially successful. As the majority of these men have either abandoned their profession entirely or are now engaged in retouching process plates, such an opportunity is little likely to recur.

The collection of sculpture is not a very large one, nor can it pretend to quite such completeness as the collection of paintings —such names as that of Warner among the dead and that of Ward among the living being absent; but it is of an amazingly high standard, and makes a showing of American sculptors of which Americans may well be proud. Although most of our best men are here with their best work, the section of sculpture is dominated, as indeed the whole exhibition is, in a sense, by the work of one man, Augustus Saint-Gaudens. The impression produced by his "Sherman," which seems to me to be the greatest equestrian group since Verrocchio, hazardous though it be to make such a statement, is reinforced by the "Shaw Memorial" (altered in important particulars since the bronze was set up in Boston), the "Stevenson Memorial" for Edinburgh, and the lovely "Angel with Tablet," and by a series of small bronze reproductions that set nearly the whole work of his life before us, and convince us that in him we have the equal of any living artist in any country of the world. But if Saint-Gaudens is the "king-pin," there are more than nine others worthy to stand beside him. Five pieces give nearly the measure of the brilliant talents of MacMonnies, and thirty-eight, large and small, enable us to judge of the virtuosity of Bartlett; French has his two beautiful figures from the "Hunt Memorial," and, but a little way off, though not a part of the Fine Arts Exhibition, the "Washington" which he modelled in collaboration with Edward C. Potter; Herbert Adams has five of his dainty busts and reliefs; Proctor has nine studies of animals (he has also some admirable water-colors in the section of painting); Grafly is represented by six pieces, Barnard by two, MacNeil by four, Elwell and Bitter by two each, and Niehaus by three. There are, besides, a striking group of "Wrestlers" by J. H. Roudebush, the charming "Faun" by Louis Saint-Gaudens, an artist who produces too little; a couple of Remington's characteristic sketches in bronze, and many more works of real value.

And so I reach the end of what is little better than a partial catalogue. Not one but a series of articles would be needed to do even scant justice to any one of the sections of this unique exhibition. In this hasty review it has not been my aim to criticise particular works or to apportion praise or blame to individual artists, to comment on tendencies and movements, or, fascinating as the attempt might be, to point out routes for the future. All this may be done elsewhere and by others, and I hope it may be done fully and ably. I have wished merely to show what kind of an exhibition this is, to give some sort of rough notion of what it contains, and to make it clear that it is by no means to be neglected by any one careful to form as just an estimate as may be of the present state of the fine arts in the United States. KENYON COX.

P. S.—Since the above was written, the list of awards has been published. What I have written of the quality of the exhibition may serve to explain why the list is a long one, and to indicate that it might have been longer had not several brilliant artists, at home and abroad, seen fit to withdraw their works from competition. The award of a special medal of honor, "above and apart from all other awards," to Augustus Saint-Gaudens, is amply justified by his exhibition of a series of works maintained at a higher level of conception and execution than is shown in the work of any other exhibitor.

THE NEW BOHEMIA.

PRAGUE, July 15, 1901.

When I visited, at Sillein, Dr. Makovicky, there was present at dinner Dr. Ivan Hálek, a young practitioner, son of one of Bohemia's greatest poets of the past generation. Both are in direct touch with the intellectual movements of Bohemia, and our conversation soon turned upon the aspirations and hopes of the New Bohemia. They insisted that, in order to learn more directly of the progress of the new school, I must meet its greatest poet, J. S. Machar, at Vienna. Consequently, during my next stay in the capital, I hunted him up, but my visit was short, as he, in his turn, wanted me first to meet the pillar of the new movement, Professor Masaryk, at Prague, before he himself opened up his heart to me. In two more days I was at Prague.

Prague is a true picture of its nation. All the turbulent and opposing elements that have for centuries rent the Bohemians asunder, are represented here in the very structures and monuments. There are statues with German inscriptions, indicative of the Teutonic influence since the tenth century; others in Latin and Bohemian—the first, when a certain cosmopolitanism pervaded Europe under the ægis of the Catholic Church; the second, only a century old, when a national consciousness awoke and spoke in the language of the peasantry. There are streets whose names are as old as their murky jumble of buildings, and others broad and airy, graced by the names of beloved poets, like Neruda, philologists like Dobrovsky, historians like Palacky. Protestant churches, especially of the Hussite persuasion, may be found among the many Catholic, while the Greek Catholic faith, the earliest established here (namely, in the ninth century), finds its expression through the propaganda of various societies of Cyril and Methodius, its oldest missionaries among the Slavs. Nor has the quaint Jewish Ghetto disappeared, while one of the most pretentious religious monuments on the large bridge that connects the two parts of the city, bears the legend that it was built some two hundred years ago from the fine a Jew paid for railing at Christ.

This bridge leads into the "Small Town," where, at the turn of the road, a sign in five languages tells that the steep street leads to the castle on top of the hill that overlooks the whole city. Only a short distance below the outer parapet of the eerie palace is the house in which Professor Masaryk lives. It was not yet past breakfast-time when I knocked at his door, and was admitted. The rooms bore evidence of the approaching vacation, when the Professor and his family pass the sultry months in the Slovak parts of northern Hungary, of which he is a native. Professor Masaryk has the appearance of an American, and this impression is heightened by his reserved manner and composure. His wife (*née* Garrigue) is an American lady, and he has adopted her name, writing his own as Thomas Garrigue Masaryk. He is a political economist trained in the most critical school of his profession. He has looked without prejudice into the history of his country, and has found that the vicissitudes of Bohemia have been due more to the indolence of his own race than the avarice of the Germans, that self-restraint is productive of better results than indiscriminate abuse of everything foreign. He loves Bohemia fervently, and would like to see it occupy an honorable position in Europe, but he thinks that this can be acquired only by a close study of matters political, social, and intellectual; that far from blindly hating the Germans, the Bohemians ought to compete with them fairly for political supremacy; that all the heterogeneous elements of the country, the Jews included, are to be won over by love and not by hatred. In a momentary fit of righteous enthusiasm, his people elected him to the Austrian Parliament, where he represented Bohemia with honor and moderation. No one would have done more for his country than Masaryk, but he soon got weary of the platitudes and vile accusations of the Young Bohemians, and returned to his university position to carry on his studies in academic peace. It was a good idea of Mr. Crane of Chicago to invite him to deliver a series of lectures at the Chicago University. The date has not yet been set, but within two or three years America will have an opportunity to hear about Bohemia from the mouth of one of its most prominent sons. Professor Masaryk speaks English fluently.

Having passed two pleasant hours in his company, I was anxious to meet the greatest Bohemian poet of the generation just passing away, Jaroslav Vrchlicky, whose fame would be coextensive with the realm of letters if he had written in a better read language. He lives on the Palacky Riverside, where a fine view is to be had of the river and the "Small Town." I was ushered into a large room packed on all sides with books. There were books on the tables, chairs, and floor; and an immense wreath, the gift of some admirers, attracted my attention. From the seat near by arose the benign figure of the poet, who bears a remarkable likeness to Longfellow. Though only forty-eight years old, he has published not less than eighty volumes of his works, while many more still remain in manuscript. In Bohemia, literature, though a profession, does not support its writers. Machar, the best paid and widest read poet, receives a remuneration of something like seven dollars for a printed sheet—that is, less than fifty cents for a quarto page—of poetry. But then, of his most popular works 3,000 copies form the limit of an edition, while rarely is a second edition reached. Vrchlicky's poetry is of the same character as Longfellow's, is general, and has no especial political tenet to preach. This enhances him as a poet in the eyes of a Western critic, but makes him comparatively unpopular with all the younger generation of Bohemians. Here literature, as in all youthful countries, is not yet dissociated from didacticism, and a work which elsewhere would be judged by its intrinsic merit, is popular in Bohemia according as it propounds or favors a certain political maxim. Vrchlicky believes in art for art's sake, and thus is not the poet of either Young or New Bohemia. But even the older

generations do not read him, for he is too artistic and refined to be understood by easy-going Philistines; yet they purchase his works and parade them before the world as the pride and honor of their country. So it happens that, though in the prime of his life, he is counted among a generation that is just passing away. Similarly, Machar, at the age of thirty-seven, has issued twenty-one volumes; Hálek's life was cut short at thirty-nine, and at his fourteenth volume. Where such a mass is turned out to keep his head above water, exhaustion, often physical as well as mental, soon overtakes the poet, and at the age of forty-five he is an old man who must give way to younger, more vigorous men.

A more genial man than Vrchlicky I have never met. He spoke freely of his country, but our conversation soon turned to English literature and American men of letters. A grateful nation had made a place for him at the University, where he is professor of universal literature, and no man in Bohemia is better fitted to exercise this function, for forty volumes of translations from all the literatures of the world bear witness to his intimate acquaintance with the best thought of other lands than his own. He has turned into his language many poems of Byron, Robert Browning, Swinburne, Longfellow, Walt Whitman. For Walt Whitman he expressed especial admiration, and he eagerly listened to what bits of information I could give him as to new editions of this American poet, and works about him.

After Vrchlicky, I called on Machar in Vienna. There are a few spots in the outskirts of the city where an attempt is made to reproduce the American system of villa architecture with garden plots around the houses and trees along the streets. These localities are known under the English name of "cottages," and, though but a feeble imitation of our spacious residential streets, furnish the only acceptable breathing-spots in the barren plain in which the city displays its stucco monstrosities. Though architecturally beautiful in the very centre, Vienna is otherwise uninteresting, and not the kind of a city a poet would delight to live in. Machar, too, found a residence within the inner limits intolerable, both for himself and for his family. He has consequently removed to the outskirts of Neu Gersthof, where he occupies the upper part of a villa, with a fine view of the Kahlenberg, which, for lack of immediate comparison, is deemed by the Viennese to be a mountain and picturesque.

Machar is in body and mind a true Bohemian. Himself the son of a poor peasant, he looks like a son of the soil, whose features have been refined by much earnest thinking and fervent hoping. He is simple and kindly, more inclined to listen than to talk. The first time I called on him, with a view to interviewing him, he inveigled me into telling him all about America and matters that interested him more than myself. But when his reserve is once broken, his soft, childlike voice flows in an uninterrupted stream, his eyes sparkling with a brilliant lustre every time the picture of a greater Bohemia arises before his vision. He spoke of himself, but only as an incidental example of the New Bohemia that is laboring for the future of his country. His lot is that of all the literati of his native land, though his fame procures him a somewhat better remuneration. Hundreds of students devote themselves to the most arduous newspaper work, receiving at most thirty florins a month for their labor, and this doled out at the rate of half a florin to a florin a day, on which they must clothe and feed themselves. Machar himself had gone through this severe school, and when later he had to serve in the army as a lieutenant almost without pay, he was generally supported by one of his intimate friends, who has often been to him a friend in need, and who is the sole publisher of all his works. At present the poet passes the greater part of his day in a Government bank, of which he is an officer. He returns in the evening after five o'clock, when his time is devoted to work, his family, and his friends. And yet not only has he managed to write twenty-one volumes since his seventeenth year, but he regularly furnishes the feuilleton for a weekly of the party he represents.

I asked him to tell me of his hopes and aspirations. His face lit up with a kindly smile and he spoke uninterruptedly. "We Bohemians have sinned much in the past; through our own fault. The German element has got the upper hand, and it is incumbent on us, the wiser men of the younger generation, to regain our well-deserved prestige. We are the only Slavic nation that is developing a literature to be proud of. The Russian literature is one-sided and decadent; their poetry has been of a trifling nature for the past quarter of a century; the novel is their only field, but purely as a psychological study, for its diction rarely rises to the harmony of Turgeneff's. At present a low tone pervades most of their periodical literature. We have learned much from their writers and critics of half a century ago, and consciously or unconsciously owe much to Turgeneff, Gogol, Dostoyevsky, Tolstoy; yet we are no slavish imitators. We deem our novelist Jirasek as great as any; Neruda and Cech have perfected the short story, and introduced an element of humor which the Russians have not cultivated. Nor are the Poles more fortunate. They have had many great poets, and even now boast of their Asnyk, but their prose is pompous, and even Sienkiewicz's novels, with their accumulations of bloodshed and battle scenes, will hardly survive the fad excited by his 'Quo Vadis.' Our poetry is represented in a great variety of forms, but I regard Neruda as the most perfect of all our poets and as my spiritual father. Yes, we are the most promising Slavic nation from an intellectual standpoint.

"Young Bohemia has done us much harm. We must conquer by love and earnest endeavor. Year after year the national consciousness is growing and new Bohemian schools and Bohemian societies are being added to those in existence. There are six millions of us Bohemians, and we are already 20 per cent. stronger than the German element in Bohemia and Moravia. In Moravia the country population is thoroughly Slavic, and the cities are being invaded by Bohemian burghers. Northern Bohemia is our greatest trial, for there the population is mainly German, and, on account of its vicinity to the German Empire, is hard to gain over to our language and manner of thinking. But there are hopeful signs even there. Northern Bohemia is a manufacturing and agricultural country, and many southern Bohemian peasants are yearly finding their way there, as they work for smaller wages than the Silesians and Saxons on whom the manufacturers and proprietors would otherwise have to depend. In fifteen years our majority will be overwhelming, and we shall be in a position to dictate terms to the Germans.

"We want to be free and independent. Whether the Powers force upon us a Hapsburg or a Romanoff, matters not so long as we are free to decide our fate, as Hungary is. And we are entitled to play an important rôle in the Austrian Empire. Styria, Carinthia, and the greater part of the rest of the Austrian Empire are passive countries, producing little for their own support. It is practically the wealthier Bohemia that furnishes the necessary revenue for a great proportion of the whole country; then why should we not claim a proportionate representation?

"We must create a Bohemian society, for unfortunately there is none deserving the name. There are many heterogeneous units in Prague, but there is no social life with an outspoken public opinion representing its ideas and aspirations. We also want to be free from Rome. The Hussite movement is growing, and if we are not let alone by Rome, we shall throw ourselves into the hands of the Protestant Church. The Catholic Church is conscious of the impending danger, and wishes to check the Hussite heresy with opposing societies of Cyril and Methodius, oblivious of the fact that Cyril and Methodius were Greek Catholics, and heretics themselves. If not Protestants, we shall become Greek Catholics, and anyway be liberated from Rome."

Machar's poetry is a reflex of his thoughts, but there is nothing of the doctrinaire in his utterances. Only the initiated Bohemian who reads between the lines could discover a political tenet expressed in his lyrics or longer epics. To the foreigner they are representatives of pure art, and as such they have been translated into many of the Slavic languages, into German and other tongues. By the Bohemians he is classed with Masaryk as an exponent of a new Bohemia, but by the Westerner who can read him in the original or in translation, he will appear, together with Vrchlicky and Neruda, as a noble representative of Bohemian poetry, and will be classed according to the intrinsic value of his works. It is yet too early to assign him a place in the Bohemian pantheon.

LEO WIENER.

Correspondence.

GEN. CLUSERET AS AN AMERICAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A recent letter of your Paris correspondent contained a long biographical notice of that erratic individual, the late Gen. Gustave Cluseret. But his relations with America and Americans, which were many and curious, were dismissed with a few lines. A part of one of these American episodes in Cluseret's life, and not one of the least curious, came under my eye, and, as far as I know, has never been put in print.

On the fall of the Commune, Cluseret fled for his life and got out of Paris with a whole skin—thanks to his claim of Ameri-

can citizenship. During his exile, he wandered to Constantinople, while, if I am not mistaken, Horace Maynard, for whom Cluseret always had a kindly word (a rare thing for him), was United States Minister there. As was his habit, Cluseret soon made known the flat condition of his purse, and Maynard was able to hand over to him the collection of materials for a report on Turkish cereals, or something of the kind, for the Washington Agricultural Department. But, before the work was completed, Maynard resigned, and Cluseret found difficulty in getting his little bill settled. Later, "Sunset" Cox arrived, bought some of Cluseret's odd pictures, listened to his claim for compensation, and, when the Turkish mission was abandoned and he was reelected to Congress, succeeded in securing an appropriation from the lower house. Not long afterwards, a letter from Senator Evarts informed me that the Senate had also passed the bill, and that Cluseret could obtain his money by applying to the United States Legation in Paris. This happened in the summer of 1888.

In the early autumn I was not a little surprised to learn that Cluseret was a candidate for election to the Chamber of Deputies, and was still more surprised to see him come in at the head of the poll. (This surprise was largely caused by my knowledge of the candidate's then extreme impecuniosity.) Thereupon the moderate portion of the Chamber, not fancying the idea of having as a colleague a former member of the Commune, who had been condemned to death *in contumaciam*, and who had been but recently amnestied, determined to invalidate his election by basing their action on the fact that Cluseret was an American citizen. This he never denied, but, on the contrary, always affirmed, with evident pleasure, up to the very day of his death, and even within the very precincts of the Palais Bourbon itself, as I had often remarked in private conversations with him. But when the Chamber consulted the highest legal authorities, they declared that Cluseret had not lost his French citizenship; so he took his seat without serious opposition, was reëlected several times, and was a Deputy when he died, a few months ago. His campaign expenses in 1888 were wholly paid, as he admitted to me afterwards, by those five hundred American dollars. Had this been known, it is highly probable that his legislative career would have been stopped before it had begun, and another rather discreditable page in his far from estimable life would never have been written.

THEODORE STANTON.

PARIS, August 2, 1901.

Notes.

From McClure, Phillips & Co. we are to have in the autumn 'Seen in Germany,' by Roy Stannard Baker; 'Irish Pastorals,' by Shan Bullock; 'Lincoln's Plan of Reconstruction,' by Charles H. McCarthy; 'Lincoln, and Other Poems,' by Edwin Markham; 'Colonial Fights and Fighters,' by Cyrus Townsend Brady; and 'Life of the Master,' by Dr. Watson (Ian Maclaren).

The cream of the cream of periodical literature is now offered to students in the one-volume abridged edition of 'Poole's Index' just issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. It consists of 843 quarto pages in two columns, pointing the way to the select contents of "thirty-seven important periodicals," derived from the four main and the supplementary volumes of the original work down to the close of 1899. Mr. William I. Fletcher has presided over this abridgment, with the aid of Miss Mary Poole, daughter of the pioneer. The periodicals here set apart are such as any American public library may hope to procure, and as might reasonably be looked for in most institutions of the kind. Five only are English, but these are effectively eked out by inclusion of the files of the *Eclectic Magazine* and *Littell's Living Age*, both founded in 1844, whereas the oldest of the five, the *Fortnightly Review*, dates only from 1865. The *North American Review*, dating from 1815, is the dean of the company. Much dead wood has, by this sifting, no doubt been eliminated, along with much practically inaccessible. The great obvious gain for reference is the reduction of so large a number of entries under one alphabet between two covers, with a corresponding economy in cost and shelf-room. For the purposes of study the advantage of bringing together in one place the scattered finger-posts is too plain for words. A glance at such rubrics as Bismarck, Emerson, Gladstone, Lincoln; Civil Service, Protection, Railroads, Strikes; England, France, India, Italy, Russia, United States, will reveal the reader's debt to editors and publishers of this handsomely printed compilation. The possible errors of transcription will, of course, have to be checked by recurrence to the sources of the abridgment.

The "Authentic Edition" of Dickens's Works proceeds with four volumes, embracing 'Sketches by Boz,' 'The Uncommercial Traveller, etc.,' 'Hard Times, etc.,' and 'American Notes, and Pictures in Italy.' To the last named, Maurice Greiffenhagen has supplied six illustrations in default of any originals to be reproduced. There is a fine field for an edition of the 'Notes' illustrated with contemporaneous views of places, portraits, etc., and perhaps judicious annotations; and certainly an index, not provided here.

The curious may pass from Dickens's 'Pictures in Italy' to Gautier's 'Travels in Italy,' in M. de Sumichrast's excellent translation, which forms volume vii. of the series already noticed by us (New York: George D. Sproul). Volumes viii., 'Fortunio, etc.,' ix., 'The Louvre,' and x., 'Constantinople,' have also appeared.

Mr. Webster Davis appears as an advocate of the Boer cause in his 'John Bull's Crime, or Assaults on Republics' (New York: The Abbey Press). His descriptions of what he saw among the Boers, and the photographs that accompany them, are not without interest; but the flood of turgid oratory makes the book impossible reading. The circumstances of the controversy have been now thoroughly explained, and such pleas as this are superfluous.

Mr. E. Marston, the oldest of living London publishers, appears for the tenth time as an author in 'Sketches of Booksellers of Other Days' (Scribners). His subjects are, or were, persons of some note: Tonson, father of the Kit-cat Club, and introducer of Milton and Shakspere "to a reading public"; Guy, founder of Guy's Hospital; John Dunton, voluminous and erratic writer on any or all topics; Richardson, the novelist; Thomas Gent, historian of York; William Hutton, who wrote sundry local histories and books of verse; and James Lackington, who secured at least numismatic fame by the halfpenny tokens bearing his portrait and advertising his shop. (Mr. Marston copies one of these, showing the full face; another has the profile, and both are more amiable in expression than the head as engraved facing p. 149.) A publisher has advantages over other authors, and most of these men indited their own Lives, thereby easing the task of future biographers; but none of the four was unduly gifted in the literary way. The miscellaneous reader will not expect too much of this modest volume, which appeals chiefly to bibliophiles and brethren of the trade. Perhaps the most interesting item in it is the anecdote on p. 25, showing the good hearts of Thomas Guy and the stranger who urged him not to jump off London Bridge.

Dr. Leland O. Howard's 'The Insect Book'—a popular account of the bees, wasps, ants, grasshoppers, flies, and other North American insects, exclusive of the butterflies, moths, and beetles, with full life-histories, tables, and bibliographies—which comes to us from Doubleday, Page & Co., has its scope expressed in the sub-title. The ground has been surprisingly well covered. It is the first attempt to present in a popular form information concerning North American insects other than those expressly excepted. Unlike many other popular works, this is strictly accurate and scientific as far as it goes, and presents in synoptic and tabular form the classification into the main families or super-families of each order. Unfortunately, there is no sufficient explanation of the characters used, so that until the reader familiarizes himself with them through some other book, he will not derive much information from the tables. The characteristic feature of the book is the typical life history given for each large group; in this way a great deal of original and interesting information is displayed. Nothing better of the kind has heretofore appeared. The text figures are uniformly good and reliable; the black half-tone plates are generally good, sometimes excellent, but in some cases illustrate the limitations of this method for bringing out detail. The tri-colored process plates, of which there are a number, add very little to the usefulness of the work, because in the smaller forms all detail is lost and specific recognition is impossible.

Dr. Samuel H. Scudder's 'Alphabetical Index to North American Orthoptera' forms the sixth of the "Occasional Papers of the Boston Society of Natural History." It contains all known references to the Orthoptera of North America and the West Indies made by naturalists from the time of Linnæus to the close of the last century, and furnishes the exact names employed in the original descriptions of the insects. The arrangement is alphabetical, first by genera and afterwards by species, and the entries under each heading are chronological. This index includes the greater part of an earlier work by the same author entitled 'Catalogue of the Orthoptera of North America Described Previous to 1867,' published in 1868 as Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collections, 189.

Mr. George Villain's 'Le Fer, la Houille et la Métallurgie à la fin du XIXe Siècle' (Paris: Armand Colin) is not, as the title might imply, a treatise on metallurgy. All

who are acquainted with the author will surmise that it is an indictment of the iron and steel and fuel Trusts which are endeavoring in France and Germany, as well as in this country, to control the production of these essential aids to human industry and existence. In fact, movements towards co-operation in these branches of mining and metallurgy preceded in the above countries the stupendous consolidation which is now producing such momentous consequences in our own; and it followed lines which our promoters and their clients—the mine and mill owners—have not followed. The study is therefore one of deep public interest at this time. Whatever the methods pursued, the object is everywhere the same, namely, to control production so as to sustain prices. Therefore, for the French Socialist, still wedded to the principles of the French Revolution, the present tendency towards industrial control by a few individuals and corporations is particularly obnoxious, and, in the light of the French Revolution, suggestive of trouble to come. The author's information about the French coal and iron corporations and their coöperation for mutual protection is ample and precise, but it is vague in respect to those of Germany, concerning which more accurate details may be found in an interesting series of letters communicated by Charles Kirchoff, editor of the *Iron Age*, and since collected in book form as 'Notes on Some European Iron-Making Districts.'

We have received numbers seven to twelve of "Meisterbilder fürs deutsche Haus" (Munich: G. O. W. Callwey; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). These large folio plates are printed on stiff paper variously toned to render the effect of the original, and are issued at the very low rate of 25 pfennigs a number. The reproductions are made by the half-tone process, which, for paintings, shows the usual shortcomings. Still, it has been hitherto impossible to get at this price reproductions on the whole so good and on so large a scale. Each plate is issued separately in a paper cover, the inside of which bears the explanatory text. To brief descriptions of the artist and the picture is frequently added a note on the method of reproduction, on the technical processes used in the original, on framing the print, or other practical concern. Price and all considered, the series bears well the comparison with the older "Bilderschatz" or "Spemann's Museum." Among the plates at hand are Dürer's "Hans Imhof" and "St. Hubert"; Rembrandt's "Three Trees," and "The Carpenter's Family" of the Louvre; and Ruysdael's "The Jewish Churchyard." For collectors and students of art, who, in spite of the title of the series, should be the best purchasers, it would be a convenience to have printed on each plate the place where the original is preserved.

Graf zu Leiningen-Westerburg's 'Deutsche und oesterreichische Bibliothekzeichen' (Stuttgart: J. Hoffmann), the English edition of which appeared before the German and was favorably noticed by us in May last, differs from the latter in that it contains twenty additional illustrations and a more complete and accurate list of artists, the German list including not only the *leading* ex-libris designers, but *all* that had come under the author's notice.

A casual item in the thirty-fourth annual report of the Provost of the Peabody Institute at Baltimore is not without significance: "Lectures under the direct management of the Peabody Institute have been omitted this season, as there has been no public demand for them." Courses had been maintained for many years, with liberal remuneration to the lecturers.

The Museum of Comparative Zoölogy at Harvard College has recently acquired from Alan Owston of Yokohama a collection of birds from the Yayeyama, the southern group of the Liu Kiu Islands. It was made by Ishida Zensaku and assistants in 1899, most of the specimens being from the island of Ishigaki. Though consisting of but one hundred and seven specimens, comprising fifty-six species, it contains six forms apparently hitherto undescribed. A catalogue of this collection, by Outram Bangs, forms the latest Bulletin of the Museum.

There is need of a fund of $3,500 to continue the work begun by the Philippine Information Society of Boston, which has many distinguished names on its list of officers, and whose membership is widely distributed in this country and abroad. Subscriptions of any amount towards this disinterested work of public enlightenment may be sent to the Treasurer, Mr. W. H. McElwain, No. 84 Essex Building, Boston.

An International Labor Office has been established at Basel, Switzerland, according to the Consular Reports for July. Its main objects are to disseminate information in regard to the existing labor laws in different countries, to publish the reports of commissions of inquiries concerning social reform, to report all strikes and lockouts, and also to endeavor to secure proper labor legislation. The first annual congress will be held at Basel on the 27th and 28th of September, 1901. An interesting account of the teak industry in Siam shows that, on account of the remoteness of the trees on the mountainsides and the difficulty of their transport, by elephants and water, "under the most favorable circumstances they may reach Bangkok in six months from the time of arriving at the main streams, or three and a half years from the time of being girdled in the forest." From Stockholm comes the report that agriculture has been made a subject of national education in Sweden. One thousand three hundred and ninety-eight school-gardens have been established, in which "the children are taught the best methods of gardening, and each year they receive trees and shrubs to plant at their own homes." A condensed statement of Germany's foreign commerce for 1900 shows that the United States ranks first in the imports, and next to Austria in the exports; the total amount of our trade being $347,579,246. Our trade with Russia in 1900 was insignificant beside these figures, the total exports and imports being only $23,451,795, of which $18,413,310 represents the value of our raw cotton; the largest Russian export being manganese, to the value of $489,250. An illustration of the way in which the West is influencing Eastern life is shown by the report of a Syrian consul that "the best customers for phonographs are the Moslems of Beirut and Damascus, who buy them for their harems."

The Faculty of Letters of the University of Lyons has printed its Courses for Foreign Students from December to Easter, 1901-1902, on the subject of Modern French and of Contemporary French Literature, History, and Civilization. A committee exists to make provision for the material comfort of students of either sex. The Faculty's Secretary, M. Becq, should be addressed for information on this head.

In the death of Prof. Jan ten Brink of the Leyden University, the Dutch lose one of the most popular figures in contemporary literature. Personally, he was of most attractive mien, always kind to young writers and hospitable to Americans; and visitors to Leyden who knew him at his home or at "The Minerva," will read the announcement of his decease with real grief. He was a true cosmopolitan in the republic of letters, and the fact that the Italian writer De Amicis was for four months in close friendship with the master of letters in Leyden explains much of the grace and charm of the southron's famous book on Holland. Dr. ten Brink was himself no mean scholar in the language of Dante and Manzoni, but his heart and pen were with his own vernacular, and a long list of didactic and imaginative works in Dutch testify to this fact, in addition to his classic history of North Netherlandish literature. One of his latest works attempted to rehabilitate Robespierre. Professor ten Brink's daughter is well known as a translator of Italian into Dutch.

—A professor in an Eastern college asks what we think of the appended solicitation on behalf of a publishing enterprise. He says, and we agree with him: "It does not seem to me legitimate business; and I cannot understand why such men as Professor —— allow their names to be used." Here is the bribe:

"Dear Sir: Under the direction of Library Committees, headed by ex-President Dwight of Yale University and Justin McCarthy of England, a great and unique enterprise has been recently undertaken, having for its object the grouping of the great classics of the World's Literature, each book complete and unabridged, with special introductions by foremost living writers, in a uniform library, sumptuously prepared yet moderate in price. The character of the committees directing the work is a sufficient guarantee of literary excellence. We desire for it the influence of your endorsement, and under our plan the enclosed Press Certificate will entitle you to receive fifteen complimentary volumes of this great work. If you are interested, kindly sign and return the enclosed card with your address, and full particulars will be furnished.

"Yours faithfully, Managing Editor."

—The 'Review of Historical Publications relating to Canada,' which is edited by Professor Wrong and Mr. H. H. Langton (Toronto: William Briggs), covers in its fifth volume the literature of 1900. The success of the venture is shown by its continued existence and by its establishment on a business basis. For the past two years the editors have been able to pay for their contributions, and the quality of the articles is far from suffering in consequence. The creditable character of the Review is well illustrated by the contents of the present number. 1900 was marked by the appearance of a good many books about Canada, but few among them were of value. Under such circumstances the task of enlisting proper critics becomes vastly greater. As before, we must commend the care which has been taken to secure a complete list of all writings on Canada even to fugitive pieces in the magazines. Few of the reviewers now sign their names, and though the tone of sympathetic appreciation remains strong, the editors encourage the expression of frank opinions. The geographi-

cal element, including the early voyages, is perhaps larger than any other one, with ethnology and folk-lore coming close behind. The Hudson's Bay region and the Northwest from Assiniboia to the Yukon are represented more suitably than the provinces. Apart from Mr. Willson's 'Great Company' and Dr. Bryce's 'Remarkable History of the Hudson's Bay Company,' both of which we have noticed at length, one must give the place of honor in this department to Mr. E. B. Osborn's 'Greater Canada.' Whereas the Yukon is much less talked about now than when the late Dr. George Dawson wrote his admirable article upon it for Professor Wrong's 'Review,' southern Alberta and western Assiniboia are coming to the foreground. Here the attraction is not furnished by gold mines, but by the agricultural and ranching possibilities which a better system of irrigation affords. Owing to the false hopes which speculators excited about two years ago, mining operations have received a check in Canada, and the landed wealth of the Northwest is likely to receive a much larger share of attention than hitherto. Another review of some interest is suggested by Mr. Farnham's 'Life of Parkman.' New Englander though he was, many Canadians feel that Parkman belongs to them by virtue of his life-work, and expensive editions of his histories sell freely throughout the Dominion. We agree with the reviewer when he says: "To be quite candid, Parkman's type of character does not lend itself to successful biography"; but to the following statement we cannot give an unqualified assent: "His sympathies were narrow; his hostile and censorious attitude towards the life of the democracy of his own day explains why he shows in his works so little appreciation of the subtler traits of the Indian character." The volume closes with a long and discriminating paper on the late Sir Daniel Wilson.

—Miss Mabel Hill's 'Liberty Documents' (Longmans) adds another to the already considerable list of popular collections of "sources." The volume is designed, apparently, for the use of elementary classes in English and American constitutional history, although the meagre outlines given in the appendices leave us in doubt as to the precise nature of the contemplated course. Twenty-four documents or groups of documents, each intended to illustrate some important step in the development of constitutional theory or practice, are reprinted in full or in extract. The range is wide, extending from the coronation oath of 1100 to President McKinley's annual messages of 1898 and 1899, but including almost exclusively such well-known pieces as Magna Charta, the Petition of Right, the Habeas Corpus Act, the Bill of Rights, and Act of Settlement, and, for the United States, the Declaration of Independence, the Articles of Confederation and Constitution, Washington's Farewell Address, extracts from the Dred Scott decision, etc. The novel feature of the work, and the only one which, in our opinion, justifies the reprinting of such familiar and easily accessible documents, is the selection of illustrative extracts from contemporary writers and later commentators appended to each extract. The texts, so far as we have tested them, seem to have been accurately reproduced. We can but think, however, that Miss Hill has been ill advised as to the sources from which she has taken some of her documents. There can be no excuse in this day, in a work of scholarly pretensions, for reprinting the Virginia Bill of Rights from Preston's 'Documents,' or the Articles of Confederation and Constitution from the 'American History Leaflets.' With an officially authenticated text, also, of the Declaration of Independence in the "Revised Statutes" of the United States, it is mere pedantry to cite as authority the "facsimile of the original document in the Department of State." There are useful marginal notes and headings to the several pieces; the two on pages 374 and 375, however, relating to the force of the Fifteenth Amendment, do not agree. And surely Miss Hill ought not to characterize Taney's opinion in the Dred Scott case as a "report," or be "amazed that less than fifty years ago such conditions could have existed."

—A deplorable custom prevails among most clever magazine essayists of collecting periodically in a volume the achievement of their monthly toil. Mr. Herbert Paul's 'Men and Letters' (John Lane & Co.) is a case in point. Mr. Paul has a liking for books; he has read assiduously and widely, and for the surface matters of literature his taste is excellent. Furthermore, he is well supplied with the piquant gossip of literary biography; he has a facile gift of passable epigram, and a good knowledge of well-tried, historic humor. So far his discursive essays upon scholarly and literary topics have the qualities which make pleasant and not unprofitable magazine writing; but when these are collected between covers, their defects become too obvious. His essays upon such inviting subjects as "The Classical Poems of Tennyson," "Sterne," "The Victorian Novel," contain little notable opinion. The studies of Halifax, Swift, Macaulay, and Selden are somewhat better, but none contain the new and significant information, the careful, closely analyzed criticism, or even the genial, original, various humor, which can make a volume of literary essays worth while. Finally, slightly to vary Mr. Paul's own unlucky quotation from Swift, "that quality of these writings which the poverty of the English language compels us to call their style," is not of the sort to render them imperishable. There is an old superstition, still held by some people, that good English prose means graceful, connected discourse. Mr. Paul's writing will not please such persons. He has been at no pains to order his thought into perfect structural paragraphs, and he has had no care to preserve any conceivable sequence of thought in his abrupt sentences, or to make them graceful, flexibly modulated, and so finely expressive. There is a good deal of rather gratuitous allusion, as if the writer's purpose were to drain a given package of notes to the dregs; and some of the more excellent jokes are repeated. In short, Mr. Paul's literary manner, and we fear it is characteristic of his age, is that of one dictating at top speed to an unsympathetic type-writer. Cæsar, we believe, and Milton, and Stevenson could dictate style; but each, before this faculty was acquired, served a long apprenticeship to the pausing and returning pen.

—Although 'The Alfred Jewel,' by Professor Earle of Oxford (Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde), appears at a very opportune moment, it must not be regarded as a product of millennial festivity. The preface begins with a profession of interest in this ancient relic, which shows that material for the book has been long accumulating. "It is full fifty years since I began to contemplate the Alfred Jewel with a wonder and curiosity which became a habit. At length, in the latter half of that period, the vague attitude of inquiry began to point in a definite direction, and to exhibit susceptibility of development, suggesting promise of possible discovery." Moved by a growing belief in the correctness of his theory, Professor Earle caused a set of colored drawings to be prepared, and began lecturing on the subject. It is possible that the Delegates of the Clarendon Press wanted a treatise for 1901 (the more so because the jewel is the property of Oxford), but the present essay is much more than an adjunct of the Winchester celebration. The Jewel itself was found in 1693 at Petherton Park, Somersetshire, at a spot which lies three miles to the northwest of Athelney. The temptation, therefore, to connect it with the stormy events of 878 is irresistible when once we look upon it as having been the possession of Alfred the Great. Its extreme length "is a very small fraction under two inches and a half; its greatest width is just one inch and a fifth; its thickness barely half an inch. It contains a sitting figure enamelled on a plate of gold which is protected in front by a slab of rock crystal, and at the back by a gold plate engraved: the whole enshrined in a golden frame of delicately executed filigree work." But the historical part of the problem is suggested by the inscription, Aelfred Mec Heht Gewyrcan. There were many Alfreds in the Saxon period, and it would be hasty to infer from the words of the legend that King Alfred is intended. The richness of the jewel, the locality where it was found, the allegorical significance of the design, and a large number of general considerations point, in the author's judgment, to the royal scholar and fugitive. Without claiming to have furnished absolute proof, Professor Earle states his conclusions thus: "I trust we are now in a position to say with reasonable confidence that not only did the jewel belong to Alfred of Wessex, having been made by his order; but, further, that it was his work, having been made after his design; and further, again, that the design referred to, and was based upon, his own position; and, moreover, that the jewel was a production of his youth, of the period after his return from Rome, and before he assumed a share in public affairs by the side of his brother Aethelred." While some of Professor Earle's arguments seem fanciful and might easily be opposed, he has strong reasons for contending that the jewel which now lies in the Ashmolean Museum formerly shone in the helmet of the Good King.

—Mr. William Harbutt Dawson, the well-known author of 'Germany and the Germans,' has put the friends of the Fatherland under new obligation by contributing a volume on 'German Life in Town and Country' to the series of books entitled "Our European Neighbors," of which he is himself the editor-in-chief (G. P. Putnam's Sons). It is not often that the institutions, habits, problems, and ideals of a people are discussed by an outsider with such accuracy, clearness, impartiality, friendliness, and

moderation as is done in this little book, which in its way is a striking refutation of the common conception of the hopeless insularity supposed to belong to the average Englishman. For it is just his sober, matter-of-fact, and decidedly English way of looking at things which makes Mr. Dawson so discreet and valuable a critic of German affairs. He is by nature a conservative, and consequently in full sympathy with all that belongs to the old, patriarchal Germany, its rural simplicity, the idyllic life of its small towns, its family allegiance, its reverence for popular tradition. But these sentimental inclinations do not in the least blind him to the fact that patriarchal Germany is fast passing away, and that the main field of his own observations must be the conditions under which the new, industrial Germany is developing. He evidently has studied these conditions both theoretically and by personal contact with a great variety of people, from the princely landowner or captain of industry to the small official, day-laborer, or Socialist agitator; and he approaches every phase of this development—the denudation of the country districts, the agricultural crisis, the rise of city rents, the tramp nuisance, the commercial treaties, the fight for the world's market, and so forth—with that even calmness and breadth of judgment which are the combined result of an intimate knowledge of facts and a mind disentangled from personal prejudice. Altogether, this is a book from which not only Englishmen and Americans, but Germans as well, can learn a great deal.

—When, a little over a year ago, the regular steamer service across Lake Baikal was established, considerable curiosity was felt as to the success which the huge *Baikal* and the smaller *Angara* would have in keeping up regular communication during the winter months. The gloomy predictions of those who thought the project impossible were partly realized, for the *Baikal* met with a series of accidents which finally resulted in a suspension of the steamer service for some weeks in midwinter. Propeller-blades and shafts broke in a most aggravating fashion, and the vessel sustained some minor injuries, owing to the fact that the ice was double or even treble the thickness for which the boat was built. Just previous to being frozen in, it had successfully ploughed its way through ice nearly six feet in thickness, but, meeting with floe ice several feet thicker, near Mysovaia on the east side of the lake, further progress became impossible, upon the breaking of a shaft. The choice of Mysovaia as the harbor on the eastern side of the lake appears to have been unfortunate. Every winter, in consequence of lake currents, floe ice collects in large quantities in this harbor, and ice remains there long after it has disappeared from the rest of the lake. There are several other harbors further towards the south end of the lake, and nearer to the harbor on the western side, which are ice-free very early in the spring, and in which the ice never collects in such thickness as at Mysovaia. Had one of these been chosen, all might have been well. The performance of the vessels during the past winter has evidently not been satisfactory to the authorities in St. Petersburg, and, according to reliable information, it has been decided to build the railroad around the lake, as at first planned. Construction material is now being hurried in considerable quantity to the lake for this purpose.

CROMWELL'S SPEECHES.

Speeches of Oliver Cromwell, 1644-1658. Collected and edited by Charles L. Stainer. Henry Frowde. 1901.

Macaulay somewhere contrasts the incapacity to meet a dangerous crisis on the part of politicians who have obtained office solely by their command of parliamentary oratory, with the practical sagacity of William the Silent, who "never talked at all," or of Oliver Cromwell, who "talked nonsense." The blunder about William the Silent tempts a critic to treat the dictum that Cromwell talked nonsense as an utterance of arrogant ignorance. To do so would, however, be a gross blunder. Mr. Stainer has now provided the world with an edition of Cromwell's Speeches in which the words of the Protector are freed from the Carlylean rant which repels the readers of today as much as it seems to have attracted the readers of fifty years ago, and we may well take the opportunity of considering, first, whether Cromwell did talk nonsense, and, secondly, why it is that, to a man of as sound sense as Macaulay, he appeared to talk nonsense.

Our first question admits of an easy and definite answer. Cromwell could, at any rate when he chose, talk the soundest sense, and could express it in words which were both terse and clear. Take the very first speech to be found in Mr. Stainer's book; it is a defence of the Self-Denying Ordinance, and runs as follows:

"I am not of the mind that the calling of the Members to sit in Parliament will break or scatter our armies. I can speak this only for my own soldiers, that they look not upon me, but upon you, and for you they will fight, and live and die in your cause. And if others be of that mind that they are of, you need not fear them. They do not idolize me, but look upon the cause they fight for; you may lay upon them what commands you please, they will obey your commands in that cause they fight for."

This speech, be it noted, exactly sums up the view wich Cromwell wished to enforce; it is, moreover, capitally suited to influence his audience; in short, it is an admirable contribution to a parliamentary debate.

Consider, again, Cromwell's short address to Fairfax. Its real or its ostensible aim was to persuade that General not to lay down his command. The speech again is a very short one; it is perfectly clear, it goes straight to the point. If Fairfax could have been persuaded to take command against the Scots, Cromwell's words might have persuaded him. If, on the other hand, it was known that Fairfax was unpersuadable and Oliver's real aim was to clear himself of any responsibility for Fairfax's resignation, then again his simple and direct appeal to his commander was precisely suited for its end. Turn the matter which way you will, the speaker exhibits great power as a debater.

If Cromwell showed at times the gifts of a debater, he could also, when he chose, argue on difficult questions with great force. His address of the 12th of September, 1654, to the first Parliament which met under the Instrument of Government was delivered under difficult circumstances. It was intended for a Parliament which, having come together under what we should now call the Constitution of 1654, claimed the right to question the fundamental provisions of the Constitution under which alone it had any semblance of authority whatever. Cromwell had promised that the Assembly should be a free Parliament. He had, within little more than a week, to explain that this freedom did not include the right to question the authority by which the Parliament had been convened, or to upset the Constitution to which it owed its existence. The position was a trying one. No one can deny that the speech in which Cromwell dealt with it is marked by a certain awkwardness. It is not the kind of speech which would have been framed by a great parliamentarian, such as Pitt, or Peel, or Gladstone, but it is in substance a very noteworthy appeal to common sense. The Protector, though his language occasionally rambles, brings out the essential strength of his position, and brings it out with great force. He proves that the difficulties of the position were not of his making; he insists that his policy has received the moral sanction of the country—that the city of London, the citv of York, the judges, and the great body of the people had all, by their acts or tacitly, approved his action; above all, he insists, in language of which even now one can feel the weight, that for the Parliament to sit and disown the very authority under which it sits, must "as dangerously disappoint and discompose the nation as anything that could have been invented by the greatest enemy to our peace and welfare or could well have happened." He proceeds, further, to show that a large sphere was left for the activity of Parliament. If it might not constitutionally change the "fundamentals of the Constitution," it might legislate upon any other matter whatever. No doubt Cromwell's parliamentary adversaries had plausible replies to his arguments. All that need here be insisted upon is that his arguments were very cogent. We may go further and assert that, to any man who really dreaded a restoration and who wished to support the Commonwealth, they ought to have been conclusive.

One thing at least is beyond dispute. Cromwell did not on the 12th of September, 1654, talk nonsense; his words are the language of a statesman, though they are the language of a Puritan, and not of a Whig, and of a soldier rather than of a parliamentary leader. Why, then, did Cromwell appear to men like Macaulay to talk nonsense? This is not a question which admits of a summary reply, and yet, if one looks the facts fairly in the face, uninfluenced by any prejudice either in favor of or against Cromwell, the answer is not very hard to find.

The style of his speeches is, even when all allowance is made for bad reporting, terribly confused. At times Cromwell talks like a man who is thinking aloud and is trying to convince himself at least as much as to convince his hearers. This characteristic is very marked during the different debates held with the leaders of the army in 1647. In the short speeches then delivered by Cromwell, you rather hear his thoughts than follow his argument. Then, too, Cromwell was a singularly egotistic speaker. He is always thinking of his own position and of the charges which might be brought against himself. The reader has a feeling that the Protector is

constantly trying to justify his policy to his own conscience. This extraordinary self-consciousness is connected with the introspective and personal character of Puritan religion. It accounts to a certain extent for by far the least satisfactory feature of Cromwell's oratory, namely, his constant appeals to God. It undoubtedly does give a certain appearance of humbug to language which, could we feel unlimited trust in the candor of the speaker, we should hold to be simply impressive. Nor, as one reads Cromwell's words, is it easy to rid one's self of the feeling, not that he talks nonsense, but that he tries at times under confused expressions to hide a certain kind of craft.

To the worshipper of Cromwell the imputation of cunning of any kind to his hero may appear a kind of blasphemy. But even ardent admirers may admit that Cromwell was, to use for a moment the terms of modern politics, an opportunist. He cared little for political formulas, had a keen eye for the facts before him, and wished to deal with each difficulty as it arose, effectively and rapidly. Such a man is forced to use language as a means for concealing his thoughts. He does not know how to reconcile his principles, especially his religious convictions, with the dictates of his sagacity. He, therefore, in an age when religious phraseology is the language of the day, is often driven to cover statecraft by expressions of vague and cloudy religious sentiment. Can any one, for example, doubt that the strange kind of sermon which forms part of the speech with which the Protector in anger dissolved his first Parliament, really does conceal some idea or feeling to which Cromwell could not or would not give exact expression? What does he really mean by such sentences as these? "According to the tenth of the Hebrews, *If we sin wilfully after that we have received the knowledge of the truth, there remains no more sacrifice for sin*,—it was spoken to the Jews, that having professed Christ apostatized from him,—what then? Nothing but *a fearful falling into the hands of the living God*."

You can, no doubt, find a meaning if you hunt diligently for it, but can any man wonder that in such language as this in reference to a purely political transaction men of common sense should find nothing but nonsense, or that contemporaries who hated Cromwell should have talked, as Oliver himself admits they did, of "the cunning of the Lord Protector," and say that his "craft" had brought about the difficulties which were to be the excuse for his seizing or retaining power? This brings us to the root of the whole matter. Cromwell was no cunning self-seeker. The idea that his life was a long plot for the attainment of more than royal authority is a delusion which can never again influence any man of common sense, but, for all this, there was in Cromwell's character an element of what, if we may use the word "duplicity" in its strictly etymological sense, is best described by that term. This duplicity or double-mindedness is apparent in his acts, and even more strongly in his speeches. It arose from his not only entertaining, as did most men of his time, but also striving to act upon, ideas which, being either untrue or only partially true, led to inconsistent and even occasionally casuistical if not dishonest conduct.

He held, for example, that a ruler was bound to respect the authority of the nation, and he believed also, like most great English statesmen, that the authority of the nation ought to be delegated to and was best expressed by a freely elected Parliament, but he also clearly entertained a belief which came very near to a faith in the reign of the saints. It is absolutely impossible to understand his transference of power to the Little Parliament, popularly known as the Barebones Parliament, or the language in which he welcomed this Assembly, unless one bears in mind Cromwell's faith in the virtues and (up to that time, at any rate) in the wisdom of a body selected from among the best and the most earnest representatives of Puritanism. His expectations were disappointed, yet disappointment does not seem to have taught him the impossibility of reconciling the rule of even the most virtuous minority with the due authority of the nation. The one chance of reconciliation lay in Cromwell's accepting the crown, and either prudence or conscience, or perhaps both, or possibly the expectation of some further dispensation of Providence which should make the revival of the monarchy clearly possible, forbade Cromwell to accept the title of King.

What, again, is one to say as to his belief in Providential dispensations, or, to put the matter plainly, that success—and especially victories in the field—were the clear and undoubted sign of the favor of God? Of the fervor of Cromwell's faith in such visible dispensations it is absolutely impossible to doubt. The expression of it recurs again and again throughout his speeches. His victories were much more to him than successes: they were the sign of divine favor. Hence men who opposed his policy appeared to him to be not only political opponents, but something very like enemies of heaven, or, at any rate, persons so blind that they failed to see the clearest indications of the manifest will of God. Nor let any one suppose that this idea was at all unnatural. The close and yet baffling interconnection between might and right, and the consideration that goodness itself is power, while you nevertheless cannot identify power with goodness, have been a perplexity to philosophers no less than to statesmen. In Cromwell's case, the puzzle was rendered yet darker by his firm belief that the Old Testament was in the strictest and most literal sense the word of God. Why not apply to himself a doctrine which, as he read the Bible, he found in every chapter of Jewish history? Idolatry led to defeat, the service of the true God meant victory. This faith, moreover, had strengthened both himself and his soldiers, yet we all now know that this form of belief in an overruling Providence, just because it does contain, mixed with what is false, an element of truth, is apt to become the most dangerous of delusions. Cromwell's good sense constantly saved him from errors suggested by erroneous beliefs, though the Protector seemed to have attacked Spain with inadequate forces partly because of his conviction that Providence would certainly make him victorious over Papists and idolaters. But even where a sound judgment preserved him from practical errors, it could not guard him against the moral evil which always accompanies misplaced faith. Religious fervor which takes the form of a trust in the special favor or partiality of Providence is hardly compatible with that honest directness of action which is inconsistent with duplicity.

THE CLASSICS IN ENGLISH.

The Oresteia of Æschylus. Translated and explained by George C. W. Warr, M.A., Professor of Classical Literature in King's College, London. With illustrations. New York: Longmans, Green & Co.

This volume, with the series to which it belongs, deserves attention for many reasons. It is part of an elaborate plan to bridge over the gulf which separates the plain English reader from the Greek classics, and to build what we may call a royal road to culture—plebeian let us not dare to call it, since we live under a democracy. The attempt should succeed so far as success in this direction is possible, for the scholars who have the matter in hand are possessed of brilliant literary talents and are using many contrivances to smooth the reader's pathway. The translation is accompanied by explanatory notes and well-chosen illustrations. The whole series is likely, therefore, to be a notable contribution to the mechanism of University Extension and to the methods of instruction which are of late grown so fashionable. Our high schools, which stick at nothing and provide a cursory introduction to *omne scibile*, already furnish a course in the criticism of poetry, based on Aristotle's 'Poetics.' Pupils of fifteen years climb these critical heights with more or less agility and intelligence. The schools prescribe, also, elaborate courses in foreign literature, so called, namely, French, German, Greek, and Latin; yet, on examining the prescriptions, we find that they are all courses in English, and, therefore, on the whole, courses in the English of the translators. Nevertheless, these courses are, somehow, thought to be courses in the respective literatures, and the pupils who undergo them are doubtless under the impression that they, too, are studying foreign literatures. It is likely that the impression prevails, even in certain colleges and universities; for one may see a critical essay, signed by a professor of literature, in which a translated play of D'Annunzio's is dealt with precisely as if the critic had the Italian before him; yet D'Annunzio's style bears the same relation to his matter that a Venetian glass does to the water which it contains. Again, in recent surveys of the literary work of the nineteenth century, one might read in this or that periodical solemn and oracular utterances as to the style and method of Tolstoy, and Jokai, and Sienkiewicz, and Valdés. One wonders, in these cases, who owns the unseen voice, and whose observation it is that travels so lightly from China to Peru. Is he at once a Rhadamanthus and a Mezzofanti, requiring only a sip of water to wet his tongue for the transition from Icelandic to Chinese? or is he merely a plain American citizen, barricaded by shelves piled high with translations? And, if so, might he not imitate the candor and self-restraint of a well-known critic, who closes an admirable sketch of English literature of the last century with the confession, "I am not personally acquainted with the literature of all languages, and it is a vain thing to speak of books at second hand"?

This simple yet pregnant saying is well worth taking to heart by the people for

whom Professor Warr's book has been prepared. Just how far his method carries them toward the spirit of the Greek may be well illustrated by citing, not quite at random, the Watchman's soliloquy, while awaiting the beacon fire that is to announce the capture of Troy:

"A livelong *loathly* year I have prayed Heaven
To end me this dog's watch, while here abed
With Atreus' *hoary* housetop *cuddling cold*,
From rise to set I have perused yon stars
In conclave o'er the spangled firmament.

"Plague on this tyrant fancy, that hath taken
My lady's lording heart! Oft on my couch—
This dank uneasy bed, that hath for me
No spell of gadding dreams; for slumber *bilks* me
And terror stares upon me, lest I shut
Mine eyelids past all waking—whensoe'er
I think to purge my sleepy pate with song,
Humming or whistling, as I shred the dose,
I fall to poorly sobbing for our good man
And goodly occupation gone to bad.
Tut, tut! No firedrake be it, that doth house,
Mocking my scurvy watch, in yonder murk!

"Ah, my lord,
Thy household all impatient waits thy coming
With welcome in our hands, that *itch* for thine.
The rest is hush, all hush; a lumping ox
Hath poized down my tongue. *My bedfellow*
Would voice it plain enough, if stones could speak.
My closet he shall ope, who hath the key;
To them who know not I'm a dummerer."

In this passage the italicized words or phrases have no equivalent in the original, or have sustained great alteration. The lines beginning "Tut! tut!" replace the simple wish, "Now may there come a blest release from toils, when with good tidings from the dark the fire appears"; while in plain Greek the dark insinuations of the last four lines ran as follows: "As to the rest I keep silence—a huge ox has trodden on my tongue. The house itself, if it could find tongue, might clearest tell my secret. For my part, to those who understand I speak, to those who do not understand I am fain—to forget."

Here, certainly, is a wide departure from the original, the nature of which may be partly guessed by the plain prose version we have appended. It will be seen that in the Greek the year is not "loathly" nor the watchman "cuddling cold," nor does slumber exactly "bilk" him, nor does his hand "itch," nor does the conceit of the lines "I fall to poorly sobbing, etc.," occur, nor does the riddle of the last five lines exist at all. Besides this, the translator uses some odd and rare words—so rare that most of Professor Warr's readers, we venture to say, would have to turn to a dictionary for their meaning. They would probably search out in this way the meaning of bilk, and lording, and firedrake, and dummerer. The Athenians before whom the play was acted were blest in having no dictionaries to consult; nor indeed was there the slightest occasion for it so far as the language in this passage was concerned. What, then, is the reason of this strange departure from the original?

The reason doubtless seemed good to the translator, and his theory is so interesting that it deserves some discussion. This particular passage shows its merits and its defects. His theory was evidently to make his personages speak, in a way, like the characters of the Elizabethan drama; and this plan is carried so far that they use the very tricks of the Elizabethan stage. The mask and the costume are Elizabethan as well as the language. The expression is even colored by those conceits and devices which, by general consent, were the least pardonable features of that great dramatic period. How far there is warrant for this in the Greek is a question which may be left on one side for a moment. But, after all, why insist on reproducing the play with an Elizabethan cast of characters? The Elizabethans are removed from us by a chasm of several centuries, whereas the Athenian audience who first witnessed the Agamemnon heard their own spoken language, barring the special idiom and sovereign coinage of Aeschylus himself, and the common stock of poetic vocabulary and inflections that had descended mainly from the epic and lyric poems. The coinage of Aeschylus was sometimes strange, slightly bizarre, and not easy to understand; we have the testimony of Aristophanes for this—a rather partial and favorable witness. The stock descended from Homeric times may reasonably be compared to that of the Bible and Shakspere. It was, however, no definite stream, keeping its separate channels; it had, on the contrary, become thoroughly mixed with all the familar currents and sources of poetry. It was at once artificial and at the same time perfectly plastic and familiar to the minds of the audience; it was, in fine, the result of a long growth of artistic tradition. All that we are saying of it proves, indeed, how impossible it is to transplant such a special growth, to imitate its delicate shades and colors and fibres of far-drawn associations, woven and dyed as the vesture of the thoughts of a great master. And yet a large part of this vocabulary was spoken on the streets of Athens; and the English translator was certainly not bound to go farther back for its antique cast than the language, we will say, of Shelley's "The Cenci."

When we come to particulars, let us see how well Professor Warr's theory fits in the passage we have cited. It is certainly an extremely clever imitation of Elizabethan style, of its conventions, its mannerisms. Here we have a rustic who must be blunt and quaint, he must talk quips and conceits. He must wear the mask of an Elizabethan servant or clown; and this bizarre transformation the translator has managed triumphantly, if such a triumph is to be desired. But success of this kind is only a glorified counterpart of the achievement that is expected of the young student who goes in, we will say, for the Ireland Scholarship or the Oriel Fellowship. He is expected to turn some bit of Bishop Berkeley or Burke or Tennyson into a style adorned with patches from Plato or Demosthenes or Euripides. And this does him no harm, while it pleases his examiner. But Professor Warr's experiment, however interesting and clever, may seriously mislead and delude the trusting folk who submit themselves to his guidance. They will receive a curiously false impression of tone and color in a region where the Greek tragedians observed great delicacy and nicety of discrimination. For the Aeschylean watchman does not in the least talk like the porter at the gate of Macbeth. His quality is marked off by a few proverbs, antitheses, and unexpected turns of thought, by reference to his occupation, and perhaps by a single homely comparison; but, apart from this, there is not a word in his speech that might not have been used by Agamemnon or Clytæmnestra. The complex whimsicality of the last four lines is the invention of the translator, helped by the ingenuity of Dr. Verrall. It is quite true that, on the Periclean stage, a messenger, or a watchman, or a nurse easily betrayed his character and rank. The guard who reports his capture of Antigone reminds us slightly of Launcelot Gobbo, and Phædra's nurse recalls in some traits the nurse of Juliet. But the distinction between their great personages and the humble folk is sketched by Sophocles and Aeschylus with the most delicate moderation and reserve. Hence the Shaksperian mask does not serve here. The features are distorted, the colors are too thick and high; and the same is the case with the translator's exaggeration of the garrulous nurse of Orestes. It was always thought that Aeschylus here was sufficiently outspoken and hardy, for the Greek tragic muse is decent to the verge of prudery; but our translator's nurse gives us qualms of uneasiness, and we feel that his infant should be removed from the stage as rapidly as possible.

In the lyrical passages the translator has essayed "the somewhat difficult method of modulated prose"—a method difficult, indeed, and in which success is much to be desired. From a literary point of view, no one could wish a better fate for the choruses of Aeschylus and Sophocles than that of Isaiah and the book of Job in King James's version. So thought the late Dr. Jowett and so thinks also Mr. Swinburne. If any excuse might justify exorcising a Bishop from his peaceful rest, it might be to assist in such a task; if anything might serve as a spell to wake the reverend dead, it would probably be the reading above his grave of select passages from the Bohn series. It is no dispraise of Mr. Warr's prose to say that it might have been improved by the collaboration of a Bishop: "Such doom the seer shrieked and ample boons therewith, foretold of the wayside fowl. Welaway! Sing Ailinon! Ailinon! Weal better woe." Such riddles could never have been written by the magician who made Job say, "Then had I been at rest—with kings and counsellors of the earth which built desolate places for themselves." This particular secret of expression seems to be buried and lost for the Alexandrians of the present century. With all his pains and earnestness, Mr. Warr's web is not of even texture—it is not of one piece, nor of one literary period. It is too evidently wrought of patches. Here and there a quaint word or phrase out of due season thrusts itself on the eye and ear, and gives a sense of discord and discomfort. A few pages offer these specimens: browsick, sootied, surling, dizzard, ballotin, abroach, horn and halyard, overthwarted. Surely the Athenians of his own time heard nothing so strange as this from Aeschylus.

The anapæsts of the chorus are represented by unrhymed trochaic systems which strike the American ear oddly by reason of their association with "Hiawatha" and "Yankee Doodle." We doubt whether the English ear detects harmony or dignity in lines such as these:

"Seed of Atreus! scourge of Troia!
Oh, what stately
Speech befits my liege? What homage
Nice, nor turning short nor duty's
Mark o'ershooting?"

Yet these are designed to suggest the march of anapæsts, which have the stately forward rush of a brig with all sails spread, plunging over a billowy sea. The anapæstic is far from being an alien rhythm in English; and Mr. Way has lately proved this, following with discretion and success the brilliant guidance of Mr. Swinburne.

But the choruses have always been the despair and stumbling-block of translators. The dialogue, on the other hand, consti-

tutes, as a rule, a good three-quarters of each play, and in the dialogue Mr. Warr shows himself master of a sustained, sonorous, and vigorous rhetoric, which really gives the reader no inadequate impression of the power and sweep of the Aeschylean line. It is a pity that space forbids us to prove this by citations of the murder-scene in the "Choephorœ," or the famous description of the beacon race in the "Agamemnon," closing with the fine line: "The lineal child of Ida's parent flame." Lines as felicitous could be multiplied by the score. And since we have been forced to dwell on the weaker side of this work, it is the barest justice to cite one brief passage which gives some conception of the translator's best manner, its peculiarities and its decided merits. The speaker is Apollo in the "Choephorœ":

"Not so, ye loathly fiends, abhorred of Heaven.
That was no deadly hurt. Who binds may loose
As lightly of his own resource. But none
Can raise to life the dead whose mortal blood
Earth's dust hath drunk. Yon emperor, my sire,
Who shuffles the vast world without a throb
Of his indomitable heart, e'en he
Is master of no spell to charm the grave."

To sum up, then, Mr. Warr's method is interesting and clever, and it has the crowning merit of making the actors live. We are not complaining in the least of a process by which the translator takes the whole of a passage, inspires himself with its spirit, and redelivers it with *élan* and vivacity; on the contrary, he is to be highly praised for adopting this method and using it in general with great success. But our duty is to remind the simple traveller that he is at the mercy of his cicerone and interpreter, and to set up a warning sign-post, "No royal road this way to the realms of gold." You cannot really transport Cairo or the Piazza San Marco or the Acropolis of Athens to a "Midway Plaisance"; and, in the same way, we cannot take Goethe or Molière or Dante into our hearts and homes, and transform them into Englishmen—much less can we work such a transformation for Homer or Æschylus. We must, on the contrary, go out to meet them. We shall never know what they have to offer, nor all they have to offer, until we have taken this labor and pains to meet them half way. To read foreign literature may perhaps be regarded as a luxury, like foreign travel; to read Greek literature as an extravagant and undemocratic luxury, like travel cheered by draughts of champagne or pearls dissolved in vinegar. But the moralist need not frown severely on this indulgence, since it costs not other people's time and labor, but our own.

CHINESE LITERATURE.

A History of Chinese Literature. By Herbert A. Giles. D. Appleton & Co. 12mo, pp. 448.

It is a curious fact that while the veteran professor of Chinese in the University of Cambridge was writing in England about the Chinese encyclopædia of 500,000 pages, compiled after three years' work by 2,169 scholars, a copy of which was in the library of the Han-lin College in Pekin, this most famous of all the libraries in China was going up to the skies in fire and smoke, though the professor's son, Mr. Launcelot Giles, who went through the sieges in Pekin, secured volume 13,345 for himself. There are few men conversant with Chinese who would, we imagine, attempt to compress the story of the nation's literature in a space so small as this duodecimo. Mr. Giles, however, who spent the best part of his lifetime in China among books and scholars, has the powers both of bravery and brevity. In spite of his plentiful criticism, often severe, one can see that he enjoys his task of setting before the Western reader the results of thirty centuries of Chinese thinking and writing. He presents specimens in translations, and chapters of condensation and description, amply sufficient to give that impatient person, the Occidental, as fair an idea as is possible to any one living outside of China of the themes that occupy the mind of the sons of Han and the form and spirit of their literary activity.

Whatever sinologues may say in praise of the terseness of Chinese prose, of its jewelled sentences and sparkling mosaics of quotation or allusion, the language has the shocking limitation of being, phonetically at least, the baby talk of the race, fossilized. In other words, Chinese writing came into being so soon that it kept the expression of thought within bands as of rock and iron. For a foreigner, it is next to impossible to have or to gain pleasing associations with continuous monosyllables, while for the Chinese themselves these form an almost insuperable barrier to progress—as the rest of civilized humanity understand that term. Even in modern times, the lines of the expansion of language in China are antipodally different from those in other lands. With a surprising poverty of phonation there can of necessity be riches only in the direction of graphic symbols which appeal to the eye, the sight assisting hearing. In the spoken language a few score sounds are made into several hundred by each enunciation having several tones. The Chinese, in developing his power of expressing ideas, has done it not with the tongue, but with the pen. To one sound he has in some cases given two and three hundred, and in one or two cases four hundred, written expressions. Thus, in the course of three millenniums, he has reached a total of several tens of thousands, possibly even as many as eighty-five thousand, of written characters. Hence it is that Chinese literature, with its homophony, its absolutely untranslatable puns and plays on words, and, above all, its necessity of being known by the eye rather than by the ear—for the book language of China has no sense to the average Chinese hearer unless he be a trained scholar—loses so much of what charms the native man of culture that it takes a bold man to essay the task here done so well. Indeed, it would be absurd for one to judge the literature by any presentation of it in English, however choice. Even the grandeur and sublimity which we have enjoyed in reading in the original some of the ancient poems, seem in their expression in this book to partake more of a pragmatic Britisher than of a sensitive-souled Chinaman.

We do not charge Professor Giles with lack of ability. In his pages we catch occasionally something of the ancient breath of the Chinese poets who were responsive to the charms of nature, as for example—

"Upon this tall pagoda's peak
My hand can nigh the stars enclose;
I dare not raise my voice to speak,
For fear of startling God's repose."

In other renderings he is sprightly and expert to the last degree. On the whole, he has avoided the temptation of giving, on the one hand, any gloss of style or richness of thought and fancy which is not, or, on the other, of bleaching out whatever color bloomed, in the Chinese original. He has done his task well in setting forth in due proportion of comment, criticism, and translation the eight different divisions, historically considered, of Chinese literature. He starts from the sixth century B. C., when China consisted of a number of feudal states between the Yellow and the Yangtsze Rivers, which were ruled by nobles owning allegiance to a central state, or Middle Kingdom, at the head of which was a king. Even then the natives possessed a script practically identical with the writing of to-day. When Confucius, the typical historian, moralist, sage, and literary man, appeared, the whole weight of his influence was for conservatism and not for progress, either in politics, religion, or literature, either in form or in spirit. The Han dynasty (B. C. 200—A. D. 200) was a time of restoration, dictionary-making, and stereotyping of what already existed, though Buddhism brought in a great train of civilizing and stimulating influences. As to material used, while in other civilizations the order was stone, skin, paper, the Chinese seem to have omitted the middle term, using chisel and brush-pen. The epoch of the minor dynasties, from A. D. 200 to 600, was one largely of classical scholarship; but, under the Tang line of rulers, from 600 to 900 A. D., there was a grand outburst of poetry and general literature, followed in the Sung era (900-1200 A. D.) by the invention of printing and a gorgeous bloom of activity in every line of literary endeavor.

Professor Giles's limitations of space prevent him from treating of that tremendous outbreak of Chinese populism, in the twelfth century, which compelled close and deep thinking, and examination of the bases of knowledge and of society, that resulted in a restatement of Chinese orthodoxy. The ultimate issue was that representation of China's intellectual inheritance which has furnished the native literati of to-day, together with the Korean, the Japanese of the old school, and in fact the educated man in every nation pupil to China, with his mental outfit. Confucianism has thus become not merely a code of morals or body of traditions, but a general rule of life, an organon by which all new knowledge, principles, or discoveries are to be regulated and assimilated. The Mongols (A. D. 1200-1368) introduced what were practically innovations, and very welcome ones, namely, the drama and the novel. From this time forth, literary activity in these directions was very marked, calling into existence new classes of professionals, and furnishing the theatre and the lodge of the street story-teller with abundant material. Under the pure Chinese or Ming dynasty (1368-1644), this impulse towards works of the imagination continued, along with a revival of literature devoted to the useful things of life, especially in medicine and agriculture.

The present rulers were rough riders off the plains, and to this day "the horsey Tartars" are spoken of with contempt. Yet, once settled in Pekin and in the empire, these Mantchus, through luxury, intermarriage, and environment, changed totally. They became as Chinese as the natives themselves. Under their patronage the study of ancient literature was encouraged, while the pens of the poet, dramatist, novelist, and

especially the editor and enclyclopædist, entered upon new activity. It is in these modern times that what may be called "wall literature" has become such a power in the hands of the literati for the manufacture of public opinion. Journalism, that sharp thorn in the official side, is of recent birth.

In his final chapter, Professor Giles shows that as a rule translations of foreign literary masterpieces are a failure because they are deficient in style. An educated Chinaman will not look at anything, even the very best foreign product, unless it is offered him in good literary form. Hence the wisdom of those missionaries who realize that an ounce of gospel in good Chinese is worth a ton of broken lingo. Much of what to us is gold is dross to the Chinese, because poorly expressed. The pearl must come in a case of silk, and not in "a shovel of swine muck," if it is to be looked upon as the pearl of great price. The Chinese gentleman's over-fastidious taste is the salt of life, but also the paralysis of growth, for not only does what is old "win a glory from its being far," but it wins it in geometrical ratio. A man may honor his father, but he reveres his grandfather, worships his ancestors, and deifies the founders of the nation.

In the literature of proverbs, the small coin of human experience, the Chinese are very rich. Almost as matter of course, the wit and humor enjoyed "Within the Four Seas" cannot well cross the frontiers. Professor Giles has picked out a few which poke fun at the doctor, the artist, and the magician who fail, at the woman who conceals her age, and the scamp who poses as an injured innocent. In one case, the god of the target comes to the rescue of a general hard-pressed in battle, and gratefully assists him to win a victory, answering the surprised inquiring general thus: "I am grateful to you because, in your days of practice, you never once hit me." The index is wholly one of Chinese names.

A Short History of Renaissance Architecture in England, 1500-1800. By Reginald Blomfield, M.A., Exeter College, Oxford, Architect. With drawings by the author, and other illustrations. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: The Macmillan Co. Pp. xii, 323.

This is a well-made abridgment of a work by the same author, published in 1897 and bearing the same title minus the word "Short," together with a fair selection of the illustrations. About one-quarter of the full-page plates are reproduced on a smaller scale, and a somewhat larger proportion of the text illustrations are retained, in addition to which there is a folding plate, "The Five Orders of Palladio as Given in Freart's 'Parallel of the Ancient Architecture with the Modern.'" The reason for inserting this supplementary plate is stated in the preface to be "the great technical importance in the architecture of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries" of these orders as determined by Palladio.

English writers continue to use the word Renaissance as characterizing all the neo-classic architecture, whether it is counted from the first appearance of the classical revival in Italy, or from its commencement in France or in Germany, or from the work of Inigo Jones in England. The more accurate use of the term by Italian and French writers, usually followed now by Americans who are writing with any care, is in every way preferable. To one who has accustomed himself to the historical point of view corresponding to the use of the term, it seems as great a misnomer to speak of St. Paul's Cathedral as a work of the Renaissance, or still more to label in that way an eighteenth-century design like the Horseguards in London, as it would be to call the church of St. Roch or the Superga Renaissance buildings. In every country of Europe except England the Renaissance had its well-marked beginning and its almost equally determinable close; and in England, while writers, in view of the peculiarly developed style which we call Elizabethan, will always dispute over the beginnings of the Renaissance, it is equally certain that if Great Britain knew any Renaissance at all, it was during the reigns of Elizabeth and James I., and that the buildings which followed the Civil War at least are outside of any such category as that.

The work before us, then, is concerned with the whole body of revived classical building in England down to the close of the eighteenth century. The architects of the eighteenth century, Hawksmoor, Gibbs, and Sir William Chambers, are well criticised in detail, and their work well summed up in a few words in the Conclusion, and with them the story ends. The last paragraph of the Conclusion points out that it is true in England, as elsewhere in the modern world, that modern conditions are against the growing up of any good tradition of work, and that "the arts do not express the finest intelligence of the country." It is for this reason, of course, that the nineteenth century is not included in the inquiry before us. The historian might, indeed, go on with his record through a couple of decades more —the drawing of the line at 1800 is, of course, arbitrary; but it would seem that in England, as during the contemporary First Empire of the French, the record of the first quarter of the nineteenth century is not so clear, nor the subjects dealt with so valuable, that the history must needs be continued until its close. With 1825 there began, of course, "revivals" of one sort and another, and the career of conscious imitation through which we have been blundering ever since, and the history of the first quarter-century can only be a preface to that unhappy record.

Mr. Blomfield's book, whether we consider the large treatise or the small handbook, is an excellent one, full of clear perception, and showing an abundant knowledge of detail, which, however, the author is at pains not to draw upon too much in the smaller volume. He remarks in the preface that what the student needs is "a clear grasp of the historical development of the movement"; and no one will disagree with that view. The use of details for the student is merely to fix the fact of the historical development firmly in his mind. The vital question in any such handbook as the one we are considering is, whether the comparative absence of detail leaves the work uninteresting and of such a character that the beginner will hardly remember the important facts. The answer to this question seems favorable in the present case. The book before us, if we read with any care at all and with the occasional looking up of a biography or date, will assuredly give the reader a clear idea of the architecture of England from the time of Elizabeth to the time of George III.

The constantly apologetic tone of the works of English writers upon the fine arts is noteworthy. To read by itself an article in an English periodical, or the text of a book on English art, one would suppose that the merits of what exists in England were either disputed or were generally ignored at home. When, however, the texts of all the books and of all the articles are considered and their different utterances compared each with the other, the conclusion cannot be the same. It seems, then, that in some way it must all be addressed to an outside indifference, disbelief, or expressed undervaluation, that the world of the European continent, and perhaps of the American continent as well, is committed to; and that English writers are uneasy because of a certain contempt on the part of foreigners for English art, at least in its monumental capacity. This constant assertion that things are a great deal better in England than people suppose appears disagreeably in the volumes that we are considering, though less than in other books which could be named; and it is curiously different from the quiet assumption on the part of French writers that everything Gothic, even everything Romanesque, and everything of the revived classic out of Italy, has its centre and its main interest within the limits of modern France. That assumption seems to be the perfectly unconscious ignoring of the claims of other countries, and is based upon the really immense achievement in origination which no one can deny to the French. On the other hand, the English writers, notoriously belonging to the most travelled and the most widely curious race in Europe, if not the most scientifically disposed, assume an air of protest and of explanation which is vexatious enough. This narrowness of mind is not, however, the special characteristic of the book under consideration; rather, indeed, should the Conclusion (chapter xv. of the abridgment) be looked upon as an excellent treatise on Tradition in Architecture, and on the diverging course of this tradition in the different lands of western Europe, including England. If the unlucky words "our," and "we," and "us" could be kept out of artistic history, if the writers were compelled to treat the art of their own country as an outsider would, as a matter of course, treat it—that *is* to say, with apparently unbiassed comparison of land with land, people with people, epoch with epoch, building with building —the appearance and also the reality of Chauvinism would be almost wholly removed, at least from the best books, among which each of Mr. Blomfield's treatises must certainly be included.

Essai d'une Psychologie politique du Peuple anglaise au XIXe Siècle. Par Émile Boutmy. Paris: Armand Colin. 1901.

Whatever M. Boutmy chooses to write will be read with pleasure, and what he has heretofore written concerning the English Constitution has commanded the approval of competent critics. This essay contains much that is suggestive. It is full of clever observations and of delicate appreciations. Nevertheless, if we seriously consider the theories which it contains, disregarding the charms of style, we cannot say that it great-

ly increases our knowledge. To read it is like listening to a pretty and vivacious woman. We are entertained; the time passes agreeably; but we do not feel that we have penetrated to the truth of the questions discussed. So far as regards understanding the political psychology of the English people, we are like the person referred to in the Scriptures, who, after seeing his face in the glass, goeth his way and straightway forgetteth what manner of man he is.

The truth is, that generalizations concerning thirty or forty millions of people, the descendants of ancestors belonging to many different races, and existing under quite diverse conditions, require to be very carefully guarded. Huxley asked, What is meant by the term "Frenchman"? Many races are combined to make him, and the characteristics of the Breton are quite different from those of the Norman or the Savoyard. When we speak of the English people as a whole, do we include the Celts of Ireland and Scotland, the Danes, the Saxons, the Normans, and the Welsh? Obviously, if we lump them all together, we must overlook an infinite number of differences in order to lay hold of a few rather attenuated similarities. If we try climate as an explanation, instead of race, we are even worse off. M. Boutmy informs us that the humidity of the air, the obscuration of the sun, the fog and the rain, not only cause clothing to be thick and houses warm in England, but create initiative and prudence among the inhabitants. This sounds highly philosophical; but let us cross St. George's Channel, and our generalizations come to grief. We have not changed the *cœlum*, but we have changed the *animum*. Cloud and rain have not caused the Irish to be well clad or well housed, or made them distinguished for enterprise and forethought. And if we would generalize concerning the man of the South, we must remember that the rigorous lives of the Spartans and the Romans are not easily explained by the influence of the climate which now produces "une sorte de dilettantisme passif et raffiné." That inveterate fallacy of the plurality of causes still besets the path of the political philosopher, as it did in the days of Buckle.

When M. Boutmy has concluded his perfunctory if elegant attempt to show why certain traits and institutions must have been caused by racial and climatic conditions, he passes on to a field where more scientific results are attainable. No longer endeavoring to find reasons why things must be as they are, he turns his great powers of observation and description to good account. He discourses intelligently on the political history of England, and traces the development of her laws and institutions. There is still rather too much of the *a-priori* method in his reasoning; he complains that English statesmen pay more attention to what is expedient and attainable than to the requirements of abstract systems of political philosophy. But his criticisms of English institutions are highly suggestive, and we are indirectly led to an understanding of the psychology of the French people by means of the comparisons which M. Boutmy presents. We cannot defend the anomalies and absurdities of English law; but we are inclined to hesitate at the suggestion that French law is superior. For M. Boutmy, France is still the standard of civilization by which the institutions of other peoples are tested; but his study of royalty in England suggests that he is not unaware of what the French people have suffered by destroying this potent influence. They have lost ideals for which no substitute has been found.

A few sentences from the concluding pages of this essay contain the chief generalizations which M. Boutmy has reached. The English people, he says, remains and will remain highly individualist, with little capacity for sympathy and with little desire for it, very haughty even in the humility of an intense devotion, despising other races and unfit to mingle with them, incapable of comprehending the solidarity of the civilized world, inclined to divide questions and indifferent to the idea of reuniting them in the harmony of a vast synthesis, using logic more to make apologies after action than to discover new horizons, more inclined to follow a statesman than to adhere to a system of principles, free from the revolutionary spirit, yet producing many original personalities. How these conclusions are reached and illustrated may be better learned from reading M. Boutmy's work than from any summary not extending to the dimensions of a treatise.

Fifty Years of Work in Canada, Scientific and Educational: Being Autobiographical Notes by Sir William Dawson, LL.D., F.R.S. Edited by Rankine Dawson, M.A., M.D. London: Ballantine, Hanson & Co. 1901.

The second title of this book, "Autobiographical Notes," gives the clue to its character. It is not a volume of memoirs, but a collection of jottings. In 1892, after a severe illness, Sir William Dawson gave up active work and passed his remaining years in retirement. So long as his strength lasted, he was never idle, and the compilation of these reminiscences may be called the latest of his self-imposed tasks. Viewed broadly, the record which he has thus left of himself seems more a *compte rendu* of accomplished work than a mirror of sentiments, of opinions about life, or of intellectual and spiritual transitions. Those who may look for intimate details of thought and habit will be disappointed, but the book should be measured by the nature of its design. While it does not give the stranger a very just impression of Dawson's personality, it furnishes some means of estimating his services to geological science in Canada and to Canadian education.

A man who, besides lecturing twenty hours a week, can build up a school into a university and furnish his bibliographer with more than 500 titles, is certainly turning his powers to account. Dawson's general reputation rests partly upon his books, and partly upon certain distinctions which he gained. In 1881 he was awarded the Lyell medal of the Geological Society; in 1882 he became President of the American Association, in 1886 of the British Association; and he was the first President of the Royal Society of Canada. This list, however, is not a complete index of his achievements, for it leaves out all reference to the success of his educational labors. At the cost of incessant toil he created a degree of interest in secondary and higher education which had either not existed in eastern Canada before his day, or had been unable to assume a well-organized form.

Dawson's dates are 1820-1899. He was born at Pictou, Nova Scotia, and had his first training at one of the best schools in Canada, Pictou Academy. From there he went to Edinburgh University. Partly owing to a break in the continuity of his studies, and partly to the limitations of scientific teaching at Edinburgh, he was largely self-taught. On the other hand, he had the great good luck of being the first to open up extensively the fine subject of Acadian geology. He had, too, the advantage of being associated at times in field work with Lyell and Logan.

The most interesting section of these notes, if we consider personal details, is that which relates to Dawson's difficulties in Nova Scotia when he was not acting as Superintendent of Education. For financial reasons he could not give himself over wholly to pure science, and for several years prior to 1855 he stood at the head of the educational system in Nova Scotia. The London *Times*, in its obituary notice, made the strange mistake of saying that Dawson was not a good speaker. He was a ready and effective speaker on a wide range of subjects, and he got his first training when Superintendent of Education in Nova Scotia.

It was through Sir Edmund Head that Dawson left Nova Scotia and transferred himself to Montreal, where he lived from 1855 forward. McGill College, which was then at low ebb, needed a Principal, and asked the Governor of the Two Canadas for counsel. He suggested Dawson's name, and an appointment followed. We have no space in which to describe the toilsome process of creating a university by slow stages out of almost nothing. But, besides saying that this was Dawson's highest achievement, we may point out that it was accompanied by splendid unselfishness whenever a sacrifice of time, or energy, or money was demanded. One does not find in an autobiography any notice of gifts and loans to students which were taken out of salary, or of a personal solicitude which often assumed touching forms, but there must be not a few to whom such facts are well known.

As to allotment of space, the balance is in favor of education rather than of science. While Dawson was a true student, he had a born instinct for the transaction of business. Leaving McGill University out of account, he did a great deal for the schools of Canada which has left its mark upon the country and finds its place among these recollections. The writer's practical cast of mind, together with his hearty acceptance of Christian beliefs, is reflected here by the prominence of public questions and the absence of moral or philosophical speculations. But there is a passage in his preface which puts one quickly into possession of his attitude toward nature and human duty.

"I may add here, that, in so far as I have had any success as a teacher of Natural Science, it has been due to my reverent regard for every natural object as the handiwork of the Divine Creator, and as consequently a sacred thing, the description or illustration of which was to supersede altogether any consideration of personal display or reputation. This is, I believe, the true secret of any power to influence young people, whether with regard to natural objects or as to higher things. Whether the object referred to be the scale of a moth's wing or the structure of a mountain, it has, for the time being, to be regarded as the work of God, and therefore transcendently above either the speaker or the hearer."

We may say, in conclusion, that Dawson's extremely happy life amid his own family

is reflected in these pages only by scattered references. How much Lady Dawson helped him and shared his interests may, indeed, be inferred from more than one allusion, but a most attractive chapter is lost to us through a reticence which can hardly be blamed in the present age of published confidences. One limitation of the work will be found in its fragmentary character, and another, perhaps, in the prominence which is given to local details. But this memorial of a strenuous and useful career will not fail to attract the attention of those whose interest in natural science was quickened by Dawson's books, and of those who knew him as an admirable teacher.

The Indian Borderland (1880-1900). By Col. Sir T. Hungerford Holdich, K.C.I.E., C.B., F.S.A. With twenty-two illustrations and a map. London: Methuen & Co. 1901.

In these four hundred pages are recorded the rich results of twenty years of untiring toil in the interest of civilization. It is a book well planned, well written, attractive, at times exciting, and not without artistic touches that lend a vivid charm to the narrative. In all probability, however, not one in a hundred of those who have read Gen. Roberts's dramatic tale will even look at this, a work infinitely more interesting, and one that records events of greater importance. A general, rushing across the stage with blare of trumpet and flash of sword, engaged in a spectacular exploit of no lasting value, compared with an explorer battling with Nature and slowly winning one of the enduring victories of science—it is not surprising that the former is a more popular figure; but the latter does more credit to the last century.

Col. Holdich's service ended during the little unpleasantness of 1897. Obliged by the civilian's rule to retire on the day he was fifty-five, he left his force on the field and devoted himself to completing the story of his twenty years of good work, which covered all the period from the Afghan war of 1879 to the Tirah expedition, from a time when practically nothing was known of the country called Borderland, to the present day when the whole country west and north of the Khaibar is surveyed and mapped. Though a civilian, he had no peaceable time of it, and, despite the contrast just drawn, there are accounts of fighting, betrayal, and sudden death to satisfy those in search of the picturesque. But the difference lies in the fact that here all that is military is subordinated to something higher. Slaying only when attacked, his real war was with the wilderness, the unexplored peak, the ice-filled cloud, the deadly sun of the Afghan plain. There are so many view-points from which this book is valuable that a reviewer can scarcely do more than indicate them. Historically, Col. Holdich's work presents the only reliable account of the changes that have taken place in the last generation from the Khaiber to Herat. Geographically, the book is a revelation. Indeed, it "makes geography," whether in defining the limits between Russia and the British empire, or in describing Baluchistan, or in naming the three valley-names of the Kunar, or in pointing out how Chitral is absolutely useless to its conquerors, or in showing the strategical value of Quetta, or in defining as undefinable the vague conglomeration known to Europeans (but not to the natives) as Afghanistan, or in explaining that geographic and ethnographic mystery known as Kafirstan, where (as the author believes) descendants of the Hellenes still sing hymns to Bacchus—a strange race, whose favorite amusement is racing up and down hill for exercise on one leg. This is an item recorded apparently at haphazard by the observant author, who also in the same way notices the extraordinary expertness of the Beluch warrior in throwing stones; "heaving rocks" with accurate aim being his specialty. The Sanskrit scholar remembers with a pleasurable thrill that some of the allies in the epic war are renowned especially as "one-legged heroes," and that another clan was famed for its members' extraordinary accuracy in throwing rocks, and wonders how many such "myths of the epic" will turn out to be historical.

But if one desires a record of steep mountain-climbing under unsurpassed conditions of difficulty and danger, one may read the lively account of the ascent of the mountain peak in Wazirstan, never before or since ascended by Europeans, where, after the guide had addressed an apparently "empty hillside," and the great climb had been made without molestation, a backward sweep of the telescope revealed, what had been forethought, that all the hidden hostile clan had mustered in the rear, prepared to dispute the descent. The battle that ensued is graphically described. Another chapter tells of the ascent of the Takht-i-Suliman, and the exciting task of outmanœuvring another savage clan. Bits of curious information are strewn at random through the narrative, some of them simply amusing, as when one reads that the Jamshidi dogs have learned how to play 'possum with the marmots, and make use of the curiosity of these little creatures to tempt them to their death; or that a Nasir chief, on burying the hatchet, "received a robe of honor and a yet higher and more valued recognition, which lifted him above the level of all the local *khans*—he was allowed to sit in a chair." Other anecdotes are rather grim. One subject of the Amir became too popular. His downfall was prophesied by an Afghan official in the words: "There is no hope for him; he is so ill that the Amir has sent his own doctor to attend him." Needless to say, the doctor did his duty. Another method of getting rid of a faithful coreligionist whom the Amir could not decently have executed, was to order him to sit on a raised platform. The Amir did not kill him, but he was not allowed to come down. The sun and hunger did the rest.

But Col. Holdich has eyes for many things besides triangulation and customs. This from Herat:

"The time for scarlet tulips to decorate the hillside had come. They were there in patches of vermilion, and hung about the blue hill landscape in vivid contrast. Purple thistles and wild poppies and roses were of slightly later bloom; but there were even then beds of the graceful white opium-poppy, varied with a slate-colored beauty, massed in patchwork about the feet of old gateways and *minars*, and wasting a sleepy perfume over the acres of the dead. The villages of the valley were buried in orchards, now scattering their wealth of pink and white blossom idly to the passing winds. Lucerne beds were already knee-deep in luscious greenery, and the odor of scented willow pervaded the moist, hot air."

The author doubts whether roses were introduced from Persia. Also indigenous, but not to Kafirstan, are real oaks, "giants among the oak tribe," not the inferior ilex of the Himalayas.

The most important survey was that of the Pamirs. Here it was found that, in making triangulations, great care had to be taken to avoid awkward errors due to the local action of the mountain masses on the level; but on the 9th of September, 1895, the last pillar was set up: "Amidst the voiceless waste of a vast white wilderness 20,000 feet above the sea, absolutely inaccessible to man and within the ken of no living creature but the Pamir eagles; there these three great empires actually meet."

One of the strange contrasts of war and peace is found in the fact that at the very moment when other Englishmen were fighting for their lives at Chitral, Holdich and his men were being peaceably led up the Bozasar peak by part of the same tribe that was besieging his countrymen thousands of feet below, and both English and Kafir climbers knew what was going on in the valley beneath them. Though Col. Holdich speaks with due reserve, it is clear that he believes that the Amir played the British false in 1897, and was the moving cause of the "holy war." It seems a shame that England must allow herself to be regularly blackmailed by this potentate, but he still draws his nine lakhs a year for not disputing the Kafir boundary, which boundary is the "visible expression of our present determination to set a limit to a 'forward' policy."

A short appendix gives a lucid account of the history of Afghanistan. It is seldom that in this compass so rich a contribution is made to so many fields of knowledge. Col. Holdich's book gives with great modesty the record of a life-work whereof any man might well be proud.

The Philosophy of Religion in England and America. By Alfred Caldecott. The Macmillan Co. 1901. 8vo, pp. xvi+434.

Since much of what appears about the theory of religion is put forth without sufficient acquaintance with what else there is to be said, it seemed desirable to give a conspectus of what has been done all over the field. This might have been accomplished in different ways; or, rather, the chief emphasis and effort might have been put upon different parts of the task. That which Dr. Caldecott has chiefly, though not exclusively, aimed to do has been to take up each writer of any importance—perhaps a hundred and twenty or thirty of them—and, without entering into the merits of the controversy, to state intelligibly what that writer's position, method, and style are, to exhibit sufficient of his argument to show his place in the discussion, to give a critical estimate of his thought, and to inform the reader as to his reception and following; in short, to produce a sort of book-notice of the works of each writer such as a thoughtful evening newspaper might like to give. In this aspect of the work it is simply admirable. The author has a remarkable power of finding out just what is in a book, and what is not in it, and what its idiosyncrasy is. He is accurate, careful, calm, appreciative, many-sided. His power of reasoning is good enough to make any reader of philosophy glad to learn his opinion of a book, while it does not penetrate so deep beneath the surface that the aptness of his judgments can miss recog-

nition for their extreme profundity. His style is always savory; and where occasion is, he can write with finesse or with impressiveness. In one word, it is safe to say that there exists no directory to any branch of modern philosophy that is half or quarter as useful as this book is destined to be found.

Dr. Caldecott distributes the philosophies with which he deals into types; and it will dispose any reader to confess his need of the information that this publication furnishes, to learn that those types are in number no fewer than thirteen. This leads us to notice the second purpose of the book, which is to classify and consider the various types of thought which have been pursued, with a view of extracting therefrom lessons as to what should be tried next. It was, we dare say, beyond human powers to classify in a satisfactory way all the writers that had to be dealt with. But any well-trained logician would have avoided the worst faults of the classification of Dr. Caldecott, who, although Professor of Logic, is weak in that direction. At any rate, competent logicians will easily convince themselves that Caldecott is not of their number by turning to what he says of Dr. Samuel Clarke's so-called demonstration of the existence of a God, in which our author sees a "singular mixture of assertion and ratiocination" which has so puzzled him that he has "sorted out" Clarke's pretended demonstrations in two different ways before satisfying himself as to what the nature of the argument really was. Now, in an ordinary reader nothing could be more pardonable than a perplexity about Clarke's meaning. Indeed, it would rather be a sign that the reader's ways of reasoning were sound and healthy than the reverse. For, as John Caird pretty accurately says, "it is a piece of meaningless jargon." But to a reader well versed in logic there is nothing singular about the argument nor anything to hinder its being understood at a first reading. Clarke's notions of demonstration were false enough, but they were shared by almost all his contemporaries, particularly by Spinoza. The difference between those two writers was that with Spinoza the living thought did not pursue that erroneous method, which, in his case, was merely the garb in which it was clad after it was full-grown—and even then only imperfectly, since it does not accurately conform to the logical rules which it acknowledges. Clarke's reasoning, on the other hand, satisfies those requirements to the full, for it was constructed to do so, and never aimed at anything truer. Its sole merit is that of conforming to futile rules.

The division of thinkers into types would no doubt have been a good idea if it had been restricted to the separation on logical grounds of the histories of widely disparate lines of thinking, leaving smaller subdivisions to be drawn by the historical associations and dissociations themselves. What, unless it was the mysterious fatality of the number thirteen, should have possessed the author to make so many divisions on purely rational grounds that it becomes a nice question in what compartment almost any given author may be most appropriately pigeon-holed—thus calling for parallel histories, in equal number, of movements not historically distinct—one is at a loss to imagine. The consequence is that there is little genuine history in the book, whose parts are brought into relation only by the cement of rather fictitious reflections. It will appear to many that an account of the philosophy of religion in England and America which includes Emerson, treating the 'Essay on the Over-Soul' as natural theology, yet excludes the 'Substance and Shadow' of Henry James, the father, does not thoroughly comprehend its own purpose. The author is not sufficiently acquainted with American thought.

The great utility of this work as a compendium remains untouched. Even if the author is not strong enough to stem the tide of an ephemeral public judgment, as in the importance he allows to Balfour's stuff, this does not in the least matter; or perhaps is a positive convenience. We may add that it is a very agreeable book to read. Its natural style never tires. Its excellent index compensates for all faults of classification. It is printed, not on that beautiful paper so much in vogue which everybody likes who detests reading, and everybody detests who likes reading, but on a laid paper on which the ink takes black, and which gives a book of 450 pages weighing only a pound and a half, cover and all. That, in itself, ought to double the sale of it.

Substitutes for the Saloon. By Raymond Calkins. An Investigation made for the Committee of Fifty under the direction of Francis G. Peabody, Elgin R. Gould, and William M. Sloane. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901. Pp. xviii, 397.

The striking point about this book is its sheer good sense. There are men who frequent saloons because they want alcohol; there are men who frequent saloons because they want company, and who drink more than they wish to and when they do not wish to, rather than be left in solitude. It is very wisely for this second class of men only that the author seeks to find efficient substitutes for the saloon. He discusses such substitutes as have already been tried—Clubs of the People, Clubs for the People, the Mission, the Settlement, the Young Men's Christian Association, Lunch Rooms and Coffee Houses, English Temperance Houses—and makes a number of suggestions for their improvement; notably in the matter of choice of location, furnishings, supply of gymnasia, and organization of amusements.

The book is so free from impractical speculation that it is almost misleading to speak of the author's "ideal," though he has an ideal, namely, to make the saloon so far as possible, by legislation and otherwise, a place for drinking simply, not for lounging, and to supply the people with places of meeting in which they will find as nearly as may be all the attractions of the saloon and none of its temptations to excess.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Albalat, Antoine. La Formation du Style par l'Assimilation des Auteurs. Paris: Armand Colin.
Allen, Grant. Colin Clout's Calendar. New ed. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Antrobus, C. L. Wildersmoor. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Bagot, Richard. Casting of Nets. John Lane.
Bankes, N. An Eton Boy's Letters. Cassell & Co.
Besant, Walter. The Story of King Alfred. D. Appleton & Co.
Clifford, Mrs. W. K. A Woman Alone. (Town and Country Library.) D. Appleton & Co.
Clow, F. R. Introduction to the Study of Commerce. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.25.
Coogler, J. G. Purely Original Verse. New and enlarged ed. Columbia (S. C.): Published by the Author. $1.
Donahue, T. L. Trolley Yarns, and Other Tales. F. Tennyson Neely Co.
Ely, R. T. An introduction to Political Economy. New ed. Eaton & Mains. $1.20.
Fletcher, W. I., and Poole, Mary. Poole's Index to Periodical Literature, Abridged Edition covering Thirty-seven Important Periodicals, 1815-99. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Gribble, Francis. Lake Geneva and its Literary Landmarks. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $4.50.
Hallworth, Joseph. Arline Valère. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Japp, A. H. Darwin. London: John Bale, Sons & Danielsson. 2s.
Jerrold, Walter. Surrey. (Dent's County Guides.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Kenyon, J. B. Poems. Eaton & Mains. $1.
Lawrence, E. G. The Lawrence System of Vocal and Physical Education. The Lawrence Pub. Co.
Manley, Frederick. The Merchant of Venice. (Laurel Classics.) Boston: C. C. Birchard & Co.
Margoliouth, D. S. Lines of Defence of the Biblical Revelation. Edwin S. Gorham. $1.50.
Morris, Charles. The Handy Dictionary of Biography. Henry T. Coates & Co.
Nery, Baron de Santa Anna. The Land of the Amazons. London: Sands & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $4.
Parker, Mary M. A Girl of Chicago. F. Tennyson Neely Co.
Paston, George. Little Memoirs of the Eighteenth Century. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Phipps, Sarah E. The Old House by the Sea. F. Tennyson Neely Co.
Richards, Laura E. Goeffrey Strong. Boston: Dana, Estes & Co.
Rynd, Evelyne E. Mrs. Green. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Silver, R. N. A Daughter of Mystery. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Stephens, R. N. Captain Ravenshaw. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.
The Chronicle Fire Tables for 1901. The Chronicle Co.
Tozer, H. F. An English Commentary on Dante's Divina Commedia. Henry Frowde. 8s. 6d.
Trench, Herbert. Deirdre Wed, and Other Poems. John Lane.

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He put out a hand to draw the shirt lower, but sprang back with a cry. Jack had turned on him, white to the lips with rage, the heavy dumb-bell lifted above his head.

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Mrs. LaGrange lay upon the low couch, her features scarcely paler than a few hours before, but now rigid in death. Upon the table beside her the supper stood untasted, while on the same table a small vial bearing the label of one of the deadliest of poisons, but empty, told the story. Underneath the vial was a slip of paper, on which was written:

"I have staked my highest card—and lost! The game is done."

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 22, 1901.

The Week.

The steel strikers succeeded on Thursday in persuading the Joliet workmen to violate their contract with their employers and throw up their job. It would be more to the point to say that the Joliet men made a loss rather than that the strikers made a gain. Mr. Bryan has spoken a true word in his paper, the *Commoner*. While supporting and justifying the strike, he says that "the Trust can afford to lose a year's dividends, but the employees cannot afford to lose a year's work." His cure for such a situation is an odd one. "The ballot-box," he says, "affords the only permanent and complete remedy." It would perhaps be ungracious or untrue to say that this means, "Vote for me and I will lead you to victory," but it certainly does mean, "Vote for my party." But what is Mr. Bryan's party now? If President Shaffer and Mr. Gompers and all the labor leaders should decide to follow Mr. Bryan's advice at the ballot-box, they would still be at a loss, without further advice, to know what ticket to drop into it when they arrived there.

Nobody should be surprised at the report that officers of the United States Steel Corporation declare that they will enter into no negotiations with the Amalgamated Association for a settlement of the strike until that organization shall have been incorporated. The natural course in reaching a settlement would be to propose the signing of a contract by the United States Steel Corporation, on the one side, and the Amalgamated Association, on the other. When such a contract had been made, it could be enforced against the Corporation in the courts, because that organization of employers has a legal standing. But so long as the Association continues the same sort of body that it has been in the past, it could break a new contract at any time in the future as recklessly as it has just broken an old one, and the other party would have no legal redress. There are plenty of English precedents for the incorporation of the Amalgamated Association. A decision has recently been rendered by the House of Lords, on an appeal from the courts, which establishes the principle that a labor union may be compelled to pay out of its funds damages for the injury it has done its employer.

When Mr. Shaffer has succeeded in ruining his Amalgamated Association and gone the way of Debs and Irons and of the other once famous strike leaders, he will be remembered respectfully because of his persistent appeals to the strikers to keep the peace. It is still too early to say whether the strike will pass off without any disturbances, but the fact that one of this magnitude has gone on as long as it has without disorder is creditable to both Mr. Shaffer and the men who have followed his advice. Nowhere has it been necessary thus far to call out the militia or even swear in large posses, and nowhere have the non-union men *en masse* been made to pay, by physical injuries, for their desire to earn their bread. That this policy is the wisest one for the strikers to pursue does not detract from the praise their good conduct will deserve if matters go on to the end as peaceably as they are now progressing. Wanton outbreaks would take from the strikers the last vestige of public opinion which may be on their side. Yet no considerations kept the Homestead strikers and Chicago rioters from trying to kill the free laborers who sought their places. In view of Mr. Shaffer's extraordinarily distorted conception of the meaning and validity of a contract, his good sense in this matter is more than might have been expected.

While public attention has been fixed upon the great steel strike, trouble has been brewing in another quarter. The price of cotton print cloths has been falling, and stocks have been accumulating until the mill-owners at Fall River have found it necessary either to reduce wages or to close the works until the surplus of production is taken off the market. They have decided to reduce the wages of their operatives 15 per cent., to take effect on the 3d of September. The secretaries of the labor unions say that the reduction will be resisted to the bitter end, and that there will be a strike, and that the 30,000 operatives will be idle if the mill-owners adhere to their declared intention. Mr. M. C. D. Borden (one of the largest producers, and one who makes print cloths and prints them also) does not agree with the other proprietors. In an interview published in the *Tribune* he says that the way to cure the evil of overproduction is to stop making goods for a while. He believes that the operatives ought to be taken into consultation and asked which policy they would prefer—reduction of wages or reduction in product. He thinks that they are reasonable beings, and that an agreement might be reached which would avoid bad feeling, and accomplish the result aimed at, which is an equilibrium of production and consumption. Deciding the question off-hand, in the way they have done, Mr. Borden thinks is indicative of a desire on the part of the mill-owners to produce a strike as the surest means of curtailing production.

No one ever suspected the present Federal Civil-Service Commission of being made up of fighting reformers. President McKinley would not knowingly run the risk of "friction" involved in appointing such to office. His way of securing "harmony" was to take an old spoilsman, like ex-Congressman Rodenberg, and ask him to execute the law which he had publicly spit upon. Yet even that little strenuous reformer unites with his colleagues in signing an annual report which is, in effect, an arraignment of President and Congress for failure to live up to the law themselves, and for winking at its violation by others. Naturally, the report comes out strong on the good that is to be said of the year's work. Judge Taft's excellent provisions for a Philippine civil service are praised, as they should be, and the fact is noted that 9,889 appointments to the classified service in this country were made on examination—the largest number ever attained in a single year. But the demoralization of the internal-revenue service; the prevalence of illegal political assessment on Federal employees; the need of at once restoring some at least of the President's "excepted" positions to the classified list whence he took them; the scandals among the place-holders named by the House of Representatives, and the importance of extending and stiffening up the law and making it something more than a dead letter—all this is set forth. The famous case of Collector Sapp of Louisville is referred to only to say that the Administration decided, "after a thorough investigation," to "ignore" the charges. That is the true McKinley attitude towards civil-service reform—one grand, comprehensive gesture, putting the whole thing aside. What so good a man as he "ignores," cannot really exist. Let us have peace, and let Platt, Quay, and Hanna have the offices.

Repudiation of Bryanism by the Democratic party goes on with increasing speed. The action of the Ohio Convention last month in adopting a platform which ignored free coinage was followed last week by a similar course on the part of the Pennsylvania and Virginia Democrats. In the former State the obvious propriety and advantage of a campaign on purely State issues renders the silence about national questions less significant, but in Virginia no such influence operated. The Democrats of this Southern State had no motive or desire to conceal their sentiments, and they

took evident pleasure in making it known that they are done with Bryanism, and rank Bryan himself with the politically dead. This is most encouraging to all who recognize the necessity of an effective opposition, and who, therefore, want to see the Democratic party regain its old strength. Bryan himself becomes steadily a more ridiculous figure, as he refuses to accept the retirement into which he is being irresistibly forced by his former followers.

The annual report of the Commissioner of Pensions shows that there were very nearly one million names on the pension roll on the 30th of June, and that the net gain during the year was 4,206. As this is the thirty-sixth year since the end of the civil war, the net increase in the number of pensioners disproves the charge that Commissioner Evans has been "unsympathetic" in his administration of the office. The number of certificates issued during the year was 109,668, being 4,000 more than were ever issued in any previous year. The report shows the greatest activity now in the discovery of new diseases among old pensioners, and in applications for increase of pensions on account of new disabilities which have developed since the former ones were discovered by the examiners and paid for by the Government. There has been much pension enthusiasm also among the veterans of the Spanish war. Their drawings for the past year were $1,175,224, which was an increase of $842,320 over the previous year. There has been a marked increase of widows' pensions. The total amount paid for pensions during the year was $138,500,000, which was less, by $6,000,000, than the appropriation made by Congress. Doubtless this discrepancy will be made the basis of a new attack upon Commissioner Evans, or of a suggestion for a law to provide that the amount of money distributed shall never be less than the amount of the estimate. This might be arranged by providing that the amount left over should be divided pro rata the following year.

It was not long ago that we were able to praise Joseph Merrill, a brave Georgia Sheriff, who fought a mob of would-be lynchers, and successfully defended a negro prisoner for whom he was responsible. On Thursday Sheriff Kyles of Tuscaloosa, Ala., showed how easy it is for a determined man to withstand the criminals who go about in mobs to hang or burn negroes, by driving off fifty of his neighbors. This he did by pointing a double-barrelled shotgun, although he was surprised by the mob and had no assistance whatever. The incident shows clearly how cowardly at heart are the men who engage in these uncivilized undertakings, and how little they desire to risk their own lives by taking those of others. Were fifty or sixty such sheriffs as Mr. Merrill or Mr. Kyles scattered over the South, we should see a sudden and most encouraging drop in the number of lynchings. It is not unfair to assume that Sheriff Kyles was familiar with the Merrill case and the warm commendation it has received from the Southern press. At any rate, such examples as these, and such plain-spoken words as those uttered by ex-Gov. Jones of Alabama on the duties of sheriffs and other law officers, are bound to have a most beneficent influence. Certainly Alabama is to be congratulated that its name has been saved from another such foul blot as that put upon it at Enterprise week before last.

Supporters of the Platt law for Cuba must be grieved at the reports which come from the Constitutional Convention in Havana. Delegates freely say that the United States never will turn over the government of the island. They ask cynically what can be the use of framing an electoral law, since the Americans will never permit an election to be held. Even if one is held, they say, the native Government chosen will not be allowed to take office. These doubts may do the President and Secretary Root and Senator Platt painful injustice. The Administration may plan to keep its promises to Cuba as faithfully as it did its pledges to Porto Rico —though, we must say, it seems to be contemplating with singular satisfaction the drift in both Cuba and the United States towards speedy annexation. But the strange thing is that the Cubans do not believe it. The Platt law, it will be remembered, was designed to allay all their fears. When the Convention finally accepted it (under military orders), there was a general chorus, "Now Cuban independence is assured; now the danger of annexation is averted." The Cubans, however, have believed less and less in the possibility of independence, and more and more in the certainty of annexation, from that day on. And it is a fact that the only faction in the island to-day seriously contending for independence—that led by Gen. Masó—puts in the forefront of its programme the repudiation of the Platt law on the ground that it is a death-blow to independent Cuba! Such it undoubtedly is, was, and was intended to be.

The entire United States, we are sure, will hear with the deepest regret of the unworthy treatment which that eminently high-minded statesman and patriot, Congressman Hull of Iowa, has experienced in Manila. As all the world knows, this beneficent civilizer and his family went to the Philippine Islands at the expense of the Government some months ago, to see that his Philippine Lumber Company was getting its share of the Government contracts and other good things to be picked up in the process of bestowing freedom upon the Filipinos. We are sorry to say that the authorities in Manila do not seem to have fully realized the honor bestowed upon them by the visit of this statesman exploiter, if we may trust the Manila *Times*, and gave him only one ticket to the official tribunal on the occasion of the inaugural exercises of the first civil Governor of the Philippines. That the other distinguished guests also received only one ticket apiece is no excuse, for there were none others so preëminently distinguished as Mr. Hull. So Mr. Hull explained to the naval officer in charge, when he demanded seats for his family, and received some close to but just outside of the stand of notables. "They put me down here among a lot of clerks, as if I were nobody," he said. "Do you know who I am? I am Congressman Hull, and Chairman of the Committee on Military Affairs." The naval officer again explained that nobody had been given preference over him; but, thinking the officer was of the army, Mr. Hull said, loud enough for all to hear, "I have made lots of officers and can unmake them. I find the army very different here to what I thought it was. This is only in line with the way I've been treated ever since I came to the Philippines." As Mr. Hull made his son (aged twenty-seven years) a major in the regular army last March, we trust the naval officer trembled properly. As for the army, we guarantee that it will be well dressed down at the next session of Congress, and serve it right, too, for not treating its betters properly.

The Canadian census of 1901, which registers a gain of 505,644, or 10.46 per cent., in the past ten years, has brought its share of surprises. While every one was prepared for the gratifying increase of population in Columbia and Manitoba, of 93.5 and 61.3 per cent., respectively, which has been largely due to the immigration policy of the present Government, many will be disappointed to find that in English Canada—Ontario, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia—the population is nearly stationary. French Canada, the Province of Quebec, on the other hand, has gained 8.9 per cent., or four times as fast as the other eastern provinces. This fact has already drawn out a demand for a recount from some of the Conservative newspapers, which charge that the figures have been falsified; but no one who knows the French Canadians, among whom early marriage and the "full quiver" are the rule, will wonder that they have outstripped their English neighbors. The significance of the increase in Quebec is slightly reduced when it is remembered that the 1890 figures for Ontario were probably

much inflated, but the general fact is indisputable, that the balance of population in old Canada is shifting in favor of Quebec and the French Canadians.

Quebec, with its fixed representation of sixty-five in the Lower House of Parliament, determines, by the simple process of dividing the population by sixty-five, the basis of representation for all the Dominion. Under the new apportionment it is likely that Ontario will lose five members, while British Columbia and Manitoba will gain three each. Allowing for the losses in the Maritime Provinces, the total number of the Commons will probably be reduced from 213 to 211. It is hard to see how the Conservatives, who may lose slightly by the reapportionment, can make political capital out of the fact. The terms of the entrance of Quebec into the Dominion were that the representation of the French province should stand at sixty-five, and this agreement will hardly be modified. In every reapportionment the other provinces must have maintained an increase in population proportionate to that of Quebec, or lose in representation. There appears to be no serious injustice in this arrangement.

It was a courageous hotel-keeper in London who on Monday refused to turn away the colored delegates to the International Ecumenical Council. To the protest of certain of his American guests he replied that he was the judge of the fitness of travellers to be received in his hotel, and that he saw no reason why his guests should object to the presence of the educated colored clergymen who sought his hospitality. And yet his action would hardly suggest comment in England or on the Continent, where Asiatics and Africans are among the most distinguished travellers. It is not to our credit that public opinion in this country would not bear out so natural and brave a decision, if it were that of an American hotel-keeper. In Europe, where negroes of wealth and cultivation are not uncommon visitors, there is no social discrimination against them. No odium or discredit attaches to their mere color. Such facts suggest that the so-called gulf between the races in this country is not a natural one, but the result of slavery and its associations, and furnish ground for the unfailing optimism of Booker T. Washington, who holds that it is open to the colored race to earn full political and social recognition. Every refusal to humor the unreasoning antipathy of the white for the black helps towards such a consummation.

To American ears the discussion as to the advisability of flogging which has been going on in the English press since Ambassador Choate set the ball rolling in an address before the London University College School, smacks of bygone days. This school has itself demonstrated the fact that many young Englishmen can be turned out without having experienced corporal punishment. Yet there are still many otherwise enlightened persons in England who uphold the virtues of the birch, just as there are some people on this side of the Atlantic who believe in hazing. The English opponents of whipping have just brought out some extremely valuable testimony in regard to its worth in the case of juvenile offenders. Thus, a Yorkshire magistrate, who made a special inquiry into the results of flogging, reported that "while on the average about 30 per cent. of juvenile offenders sentenced to ordinary imprisonment were reconvicted, of those for whom a whipping had formed part of the sentence no less than 60 per cent. were reconvicted." Several sheriffs have likewise testified that the punishment is without deterrent effect, while many persons have written vigorous protests to the London *Daily News*, which is leading the campaign against these judicial outrages. As is the case with other severe punishments, the defenders of the whip fail to realize that the practice punishes those who inflict it quite as much as those who suffer it, by brutalizing and degrading them.

In Russia and southeastern Europe the most ominous signs of retaliation against the new German tariff are exhibited. The most determined resistance has been shown by the press of Austria-Hungary. Nearly one-half of her exports go to Germany. Wheat, barley, hops, cattle, meats, butter, eggs, and timber are the chief articles in this trade, which is of such importance to the prosperity of the dual monarchy that the prospect of its curtailment has aroused great bitterness among the commercial classes at Vienna and Budapest, and threatens to sunder the bonds of the Triple Alliance. The *Pesther Lloyd* newspaper says that it would be nonsensical to frame a new commercial treaty with Germany based upon the minimum rates of the proposed measure. The existing treaty between the two countries, which was framed by Chancellor Caprivi ten years ago, is about to expire, and, unless it is renewed, the maximum rates in both countries will be put in force. Of course, Germany will lose as much as Austria-Hungary by the lapse of the treaty. The market for German manufacturers will be curtailed on the one side to the same extent as that of the Austro-Hungarian farmers on the other. Both sides will be losers, and the balance of power in Europe may be shifted in order to satisfy the selfish demands of the landowners in East Prussia.

Even more ominous than this is the menace of the growing Socialist party in Germany. The Liberal newspapers predict that an increased cost of food will cause the laboring classes to espouse the doctrines of the Social Democrats in greater numbers than before. What this may mean to the Empire no one can accurately foretell, but it points to a political disintegration or upheaval of some kind. The Berlin correspondent of the London *Economist* says of it:

> "The growth of Socialism will necessarily involve the still further weakening of the more moderate opposition parties, till finally the masses will see that the only effective opposition to the Agrarian policy of the Government is found in the Social Democratic party. Now, the policy of the Government has hitherto been to make no concessions to this party, to espouse no policies for the sake of appeasing it. Therefore, it is easy to see that grave Constitutional difficulties may arise at some future time, when the majority of the people have come to elect Socialist Deputies. What would happen with a majority of Socialists in the Reichstag, representing the interests of the masses as over against the Agrarian element, and this majority confronted with an unyielding Government? It is a situation that has undoubtedly been made too little of in the present tariff discussions."

The Government is much disturbed by the prospect. This is shown by the tone of the semi-official press, which abounds in assurances that the bill is only tentative, and that it will doubtless be much modified in the Reichstag and the Bundesrath. The prominence given in these newspapers to dispatches from foreign capitals, sharply criticising the bill, is also taken as evidence that Count von Bülow is furnishing ammunition to the enemies of the measure, and that he would be glad to have it much modified. It is for the true interest of Germany that it should be not merely modified, but killed outright. As it stands now, it is a measure to enable the landowners to plunder all other classes, but especially those who depend upon their daily wages.

Alarmist rumors from South America will be largely discounted by those who have any knowledge of that civilization in which revolution is a form of sport. It is awkward, perhaps, that in both Venezuela and Colombia the revolutionary Presidents should have revolutionary movements to put down, but the coincidence does not—local correspondents to the contrary—portend a war between the two countries. The assertion of a greater Colombia movement so far lacks evidence, and looks very like an extravagant invention of the dull season. Our interest in the whole affair is of the remotest kind. We are, to be sure, pledged to maintain the neutrality of the Isthmus; but as yet that neutrality is not seriously threatened. Meanwhile, the Government has very properly sent ships to Panama and Colon. In 1885 we fulfilled our treaty obligation on the Isthmus without difficulty; we can do so again if occasion arises.

THE STRIKERS AND THEIR CONSTITUTION.

The official style of the Amalgamated Association includes the term "Workers." It is a delightful misnomer. Work, if one may judge by the provisions of the Amalgamated's Constitution, published in last week's *Iron Age*, is the last thing that is wanted. It is the "dreadful alternative" to which the tramp told the lady of the house he should be reduced if she did not give him something. The Constitution is packed with stipulations against work. No outsider shall be allowed to work at all, and the insiders have to be mighty careful not to work too much, lest they be expelled. There is the most careful guarding against any man or mill producing more than a discreet minimum. It is all very well for the poet to advise, "Get work, get work, Be sure 'tis better than what you work to get"; the Amalgamated Association knows a trick worth two of that. Its motto is, "Do as little work as you possibly can, and less when you have got your employer in a corner."

A curious hostility to work appears in the most unexpected places in the Amalgamated's Constitution. Under Article X., for example, which treats of "strike benefits," we read in Section 8 that, if any member "shall work three or more days in one week at any job," he shall lose his strike benefit of $4 a week. The real intent of this may be, of course, merely to keep strike benefits from going where they are not needed; yet any one can see that the practical effect would be to make every striker religiously idle. But it is in busy times, when there is no strike, that the Constitution of the workers is most dead against work. Its distinct aim is to reduce work to the lowest possible terms, and then monopolize it. Suppose a worker undertakes to instruct "an unskilled workman," what will happen to him? He will be informed that "this Association cannot tolerate such proceedings," and will be promptly expelled. Similarly, if he employs any but specified helpers. One heinous offence is to "render any assistance or loan tools to any workman who persistently refuses to become a member of this Association."

Outside the Association, then, you cannot work. Work follows the Amalgamated's Constitution—but not too closely or in too great strength. "This Association will not tolerate any man holding more than one job." There you have, as it were, the very sheet-anchor of the Constitution. If any worker attempts to work up to the measure of his capacity, and so to earn more money than his less skilful fellows, he "shall be stigmatized as a 'black-sheep.'" In many other ways a stern watch is kept over him to prevent him from doing too much. If any "breakage" occurs in tools or machinery, he must not offer to pay for it; to do so would be to prove himself "unworthy of membership." And the worker must never go *ultra crepidam*. If a boiler or puddler puts in a "jam" or "bridge" of brick or fire-clay, he shall be fined $5; a similar fine shall be imposed on the audacious and disloyal man who shall "change pinions, crab, spindle, or crab box." And if the mistaken worker thinks to "better his condition," let him not imagine that he can claim his former job again. The Amalgamated's Constitution is almost as severe upon bettering one's condition as it is upon work itself.

Mills and mill-owners are also carefully taken in hand to see that the crime of working too much is not committed. Each mill "under the jurisdiction of this Association" has an assigned "limit of output," and if its reckless owner "violates" this, his mill shall at once be declared "black." Hours of starting and stopping are rigidly fixed. "After the crew has started, and for breakage or other cause they are stopped for one or more hours, they shall stop work at the end of eight hours from when they started." There is no end to the minute regulations like this, directing when work is to be "stopped" and when tools are to be "laid down." In short, as we have said, the whole Constitution is an elaborate system designed, first, to keep the amount of work done small, and then to distribute it among the favored few of the Association "in preference to all others" (Art. XVII., Sec. 11).

But further: "The object of this Association," says the first article of the Constitution, "shall be the elevation of the position of its members, the maintenance of the best interests of the Association, and to obtain, by conciliation or other means just and legal, a fair remuneration to members for their labor, and to afford mutual protection to members *against broken contracts*, obnoxious rules, unlawful discharge, or other system of injustice or oppression." The same principle of adherence to contracts is again laid down in Article XVII., which provides that "every member shall interest himself, individually and collectively, *in protecting his trade, and the business of all employers who recognize, negotiate, and are under contracts with this Association.*" It has rightly been considered that the arrangement of a definite basis for wages, hours of labor, and other features of employment, to cover a long period of time, is one of the greatest services which may be rendered by a labor union. It is a good thing for both employer and employee that a contract shall be made in which the obligations of both parties are set forth, and which both can be trusted to live up to. The workingman is thus protected against a sudden cut in wages, coming, perhaps, at the season of the year when a reduction of his income will be hardest to bear, and is relieved from the apprehension of any arbitrary action on the part of his employer. Any well-established concern which signs an agreement of this sort can be trusted to keep it, and it is of immense importance to the laborer to have such an assurance.

It is hardly less essential to the employer that he shall know what he can depend upon in the case of his workingmen. In the iron and steel trade, for example, contracts are made for the delivery of finished products months in advance. The manufacturer in turn can make contracts for money, for ore, for freight, and for other expenses than labor, so that he knows what all of the other ingredients than labor in the expense account will cost. He knows what labor costs him now, but it is no less important that he should know what it will cost for months to come in figuring the prices which he will make for delivering goods in the future. A contract with a union comprising his workingmen which will cover a considerable period of time, and which will be maintained by that union, furnishes the assurance of stability in cost of product which he needs.

Many employers who have resented not a few dictatorial demands on the part of a union like the Amalgamated Association have freely admitted the compensation which comes from knowing that their men will work for a number of months at a scale of wages which has been amicably fixed, and which will not be questioned until the time comes for considering its renewal. The wiser members of the Association realized the importance to their union of living up to every contract into which it might enter. Four years ago a controversy arose which led the more reckless element to advocate the breaking of an agreement which the Association had made. The President at the time (Garland by name) exerted his influence to check the movement at once, and with success. He insisted that the Association had never broken an agreement, and that it could not afford to adopt such a policy.

The feature of the present strike which distinguishes it from all other great strikes in the past, is the fact that it is based upon a breach of contract. Its leaders have admitted from the first that there was no chance of success unless they could secure the coöperation of men who could give it only by breaking solemn agreements with their employers. Every great "victory" which Shaffer hails from day to day—like that at Joliet or Milwaukee—involves the violation of an explicit contract that the men shall work a definite time for specified wages. Moreover, these breaches of agreement are the work, not of ignorant laborers of the lowest grade, who have but just formed a union and who have developed no sense of obligation, but of unusually intelligent workingmen, belonging to a body of long standing, which has come to boast of the fidelity

with which it lived up to any agreement into which it might enter.

It is, on the whole, the most discouraging and deplorable development in the history of labor unions which we are now witnessing. Organization of workingmen has come to be accepted by the public as inevitable and desirable. Candid people admit that there may be good results for both sides in such organization. There has been a general disposition to welcome and applaud the growth of a body like the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, whose sense of responsibility and pride of character have been so often exhibited in labor disputes. It had been commonly supposed of late years that a similar growth characterized the Amalgamated Association, and public sympathy would easily have been secured for the organization in any movement based upon a just grievance.

The worst element in the present situation is the fact that the Association has made a satisfactory settlement almost impossible. The natural basis for a resumption of relations between employers and strikers would be the signing of a contract. But of what use is it for any employer to sign a new contract with a body which has just broken an old one, and which has thus shown that it recognizes no obligations in any agreement which it may make? The Amalgamated Association aims "to afford mutual protection to members against broken contracts"—contracts, that is, broken by employers. How can it protect them against the consequences which now confront them from breaking their own contracts?

A FIGHT FOR HONESTY IN PENNSYLVANIA.

It is a long time since a State Convention of either party in Pennsylvania made an inspiring appeal to the voters. The Republican organization has been absolutely dominated by Quay; the Democratic has for years been blighted by Bryanism. Even in regard to State issues, with which free silver and similar follies have nothing to do, the Opposition has been without weight or influence, because the Democratic party was controlled by a machine which maintained an almost open alliance with that of Quay. However, it is a welcome surprise to find a State Convention in Pennsylvania framing a platform and nominating a ticket which are calculated to arouse enthusiasm, as the Democrats did in their gathering at Harrisburg on Thursday. The resolutions adopted constitute the most important part of the work, and they merit national attention. No more terrible indictment of a gang of public plunderers in control of a party organization and of a State was ever framed than that contained in this platform. With rare wisdom, the Convention rose above all considerations of partisanship, brushed aside all questions of national policy, and laid the foundation for one united effort to save the honor of the State and establish common honesty and decent administration in her public affairs.

The picture which the platform presents, fearful as it is, is not overdrawn. The truth of every one of the charges is a matter of common knowledge. It is true, and known to be true, that in Pennsylvania "every department of the State government is honeycombed with profligacy, dishonesty, and reckless disregard of Constitutional and moral obligations"; that "the sanctity of law, the obligations of official oaths, and the demands of common honesty" are there thrust aside by the insatiate greed of the Republican ring for "money, money, more money." It is true, and known to be true, that in Pennsylvania, "shamelessly and openly, the votes of legislators are bought so persistently and constantly that market values for legislators have been established by settled custom." It is true, and known to be true, that the very organization of the last Legislature was founded upon the purchase of venal legislators; that "the selection of a United States Senator [Quay] was accomplished in a carnival of corruption and bribery"; that, "in the reckless determination to punish enemies and reward subservient tools, established municipal governments were ruthlessly overturned to make places for the creatures of a corrupt machine," and that "the people of other States have turned their eyes with amazement upon the spectacle presented"—amazement that the people of Pennsylvania did not long since rise in their indignation and hurl their oppressors from place and power.

Confronted by a spectacle like this, it is not wonderful that all other considerations were brushed aside, and a call was sent out to all honest citizens to unite for the redemption of the commonwealth. There is nothing vague or doubtful about the invitation. "We make the fight," the platform declares, "not as a political organization seeking a partisan advantage, but in the interest of all Pennsylvania, and will welcome a closer union with all political organizations honestly pledged to the same purposes." This is a plain proposal for fusion with the decent element among the Republicans of the State, and one which will doubtless be accepted. The nomination of Representative Palm for State Treasurer was the proper way to bring strongly before the people the issues arising out of the late Legislative session. Mr. Palm was one of the Democratic members who were never found wanting in the fight against corruption and jobbery, and who were never viewed with suspicion.

The disposition of the vexed question regarding the contesting delegations from Philadelphia was not so clear and distinct as could be desired, but, if the plan adopted is honestly and vigorously carried out, it must inevitably involve the overthrow of the Democratic ring which has controlled the party machinery in that city, and which has been again and again convicted of corrupt affiliations with the plunderers who have flourished there under the protection of the Republican machine. The creation of a Committee of Five to reorganize the Democratic party in Philadelphia was a compromise that permitted the Convention to seat the delegation which was sent by the Philadelphia ring, but which was headed by ex-Gov. Pattison, without at the same time giving the lie to the declarations of the platform. A better course would have been to throw out the ring delegates and seat the Philadelphia delegation headed by ex-Judge Gordon, but the price which the ring paid to prevent this amounted practically to abdication. Donnelly, the ringleader, was forced to retire from the Chairmanship of the City Committee and to give place to ex-Gov. Pattison; the contention against fusion had to be abandoned; Donnelly was even compelled to withdraw from the Executive Committee of the State party organization; and, besides all this, provision was made for a reorganization of the entire Democratic machinery in the city. Except the empty honor of sitting in the Convention, it is difficult to see what was left for the Donnelly-Ryan machine.

After the proceedings at Harrisburg, it certainly ought to follow that the candidacy of District Attorney Rothermel, who was refused renomination by the Republican machine in Philadelphia, and subsequently renominated by a mass-meeting of citizens, should receive the endorsement and support of the Philadelphia Democrats. Ex-Gov. Pattison has been proceeding slowly and cautiously, but he has given unmistakable evidence of favoring this union of forces, and, with the added strength derived from the State Convention, he can hardly fail to carry out this programme. If it shall be carried out, a better day is dawning for one distracted city.

Whatever the result at the polls in November, one cause for congratulation is assured. A State Convention has at last been held in Pennsylvania which revives the memories of a more honorable time in that unfortunate commonwealth, and which warrants the hope that its redemption will ultimately be achieved.

THE EDUCATION MUDDLE IN ENGLAND.

In the Parliament just prorogued no measures were more sharply debated than the Government's two bills for educational reform. It was the single instance in which the Ministry took up

seriously a problem of internal policy the import of which transcended the session during which it was discussed. The problem of secondary education, it is fair to say, was forced upon the Ministry unexpectedly. For thirty years England had run on complacently under the Education Law passed by the Liberals in 1870. No important modification of the system then established had been made. Elective school boards maintained primary schools wherever, in the judgment of a central Board of Education, school facilities were insufficient. These board schools were virtually supported by a Government grant, and directed by the Board of Education. Besides these board schools, which, like our public schools, are non-sectarian, the Government subsidizes, at the rate of five shillings a pupil, a number of so-called voluntary schools, nearly all of which are under sectarian management. Children between the ages of 5 and 14 are almost evenly divided between these two classes of schools. In England and Wales, for example, there were in August, 1898, more than 2,000,000 children in 5,595 board schools, nearly 1,900,000 pupils in 11,815 National Society schools (under the charge of the Established Church), and a scattering of 600,000 pupils in other voluntary schools.

For secondary education England has done practically nothing. The private schools and the aristocratic "public" schools have the field to themselves. In them some 300,000 pupils, in 1898, were provided for—that is, for fifteen pupils in the primary school one continued his studies in a secondary. Various attempts to deal with this state of things in Parliament have resulted in little more than a Government inspection at the option of the schools. In Scotland, meanwhile, a special act had empowered the school boards to establish and administer the secondary schools. In Wales a special committee exercised successfully similar functions. It was the attempt of the English school boards to enlarge their scope and to provide for certain of their pupils beyond the statutory age of fifteen, that called down upon them judicial rebuke and precipitated upon an unwilling Ministry the problem of secondary education.

By the now famous Cockerton judgment, it was decided that the school boards, in maintaining certain continuation schools and night schools, in which subjects higher than those prescribed for primary schools were taught and pupils were received beyond the statutory age, had gone beyond their authority. The immediate result of the decision was to cut off the supplies of such schools, and it threatened to deprive some thousands of students of instruction.

The Board of Education had before it several possible courses: to confirm to the school boards the powers they had illegally but most naturally assumed, to place the schools whose status, under the Cockerton judgment, was impeached, in some other jurisdiction, or, finally, to launch some comprehensive project for secondary education which should include the cases immediately at issue. The easiest way out was to nullify the effect of the Cockerton judgment by legalizing, until a comprehensive measure was ready, the advance of the school boards. The most difficult was to attempt to drive a comprehensive act through a crowded and contentious session. This blunder the Ministry, trusting in its big brute majority, committed cheerfully.

Education Bill (No. 1) was an attempt to set up a new authority to deal with secondary education. Almost at random, it would appear, the City and County Councils were chosen for this important function. These overseers of highways and bridges, workhouses and asylums, race-courses and places of amusement, had never before exercised any educational function; few of them, as it appeared from an inquiry made by the London *Daily News*, wished to have anything to do with education. Their prime qualification in the eyes of the Board of Education was that they were not school boards. The bitterness of Sir John Gorst, Vice-President of the Board of Education, against the boards for which his department is answerable, would be incredible, if there were not the Parliamentary reports for it. "Are we to keep up in this House the farce that school boards are elected for educational purposes? Everybody knows that educational purposes are the very last ideas in the minds of the members of school boards. I have heard that they are elected, some on religious grounds, some on party grounds; but I have never heard of any one being elected on educational grounds." This sally of the cynical Vice-President and member from Oxford was greeted with roars of laughter; it practically killed the Education Bill.

The Liberals under Mr. Bryce rallied to form an effective Opposition, and even the Conservatives, who were under bonds to support the bill, resented the attitude of an administrative officer who flouted openly the only publicly constituted educational body in England. It was soon seen that the bill could not be passed, and it was withdrawn in favor of a short bill (No. 2), which turned over to the discretion of the City and County Councils the schools affected by the Cockerton judgment, with the understanding that a comprehensive bill would be passed at the next session of Parliament. By a liberal application of the closure, this bill passed with a greatly reduced majority.

The debates have brought out clearly certain inherent defects in the attitude of the present Government towards education. Nothing has been more clearly shown than that a large number of the Conservatives regard education for the masses with complete indifference or with profound misgiving. The feeling is still prevalent in England that there is grave danger of educating people beyond their proper stations. Quite as distinctly marked, and expressed frankly enough by Lord Hugh Cecil, was the fear that in the extension of powers to the school boards the interests of the Established Church might suffer. Education, in the view of the Conservatives, should be as churchly as possible. It is this half-heartedness, this lack of constructive ideals, this confusion of an educational with an ecclesiastical problem that justifies, in the case of the Conservatives, those "doubts as to their competence to deal with education at all" which the Conservative *Times* says their friends feel, as well as their foes. For the partial measure which has been forced through, it is hard to foresee anything but further mischance. There is a field for that party which will raise England educationally to the rank of the other civilized nations, and the Liberals, now in rather hopeless Opposition, should some day find in the problem of secondary education the great issue they so sorely need.

CHAMBERLAIN AND KRUGER.

It was in 1886 that the late Joseph Cowen, M. P., was pointing out to a newly elected member the notabilities of the House of Commons. Mr. Chamberlain was speaking at the time, and of him the veteran Mr. Cowen said: "Mark that man. He is the shallowest and most complacent politician in the House of Commons. If he ever comes into power, he will do some mortal harm to the State." In the years that have passed over the old Birmingham Radical's head, he has certainly shown that he is something more than a shallow man. His extraordinary ability, both as a debater with a fatal eye for the joint in his antagonist's harness, and a supple and ready wrist to thrust at it, and as a driving man of business, even his bitterest enemies concede. He is one of the men who "do things." His Conservative colleagues all dislike him, some of them hate him, but, as one of them said the other day, "After all, if you want anything done by this Government, Chamberlain is the man to do it."

It is a fair question, however, if Mr. Cowen's prophecy has not been fulfilled, and if Mr. Chamberlain, with all his adroit talent and executive force, has not come near doing a mortal harm to England through the Boer war. It has been his war from the beginning. Another man in the Colonial Office would not have goaded the Boers into their woful ultimatum. Lord Salisbury is, of course, technically implicated. He should have kept his hand on the negotiations. That

he did not, lends point to the witticism which was current before he finally left the Foreign Office. "How," it was asked, "does Lord Salisbury manage to combine the heavy duties of Prime Minister and Foreign Secretary?" The answer was: "By impartially neglecting both." But whether by his neglect or Chamberlain's usurping push, the Boer war was the latter's affair from the first day until now. Its frightful cost—to date at least $200,000,000—its terrible loss of life, its uncovering of the military weakness of England, its lowering of British prestige in the eyes of the whole world, its devastation of South Africa, with its kindling of inextinguishable race hatred—all may be laid at the door of Joseph Chamberlain.

And what is the military situation to-day, as Parliament is prorogued, leaving everything in the hands of the Ministry? Confessedly, most unsatisfactory. Even official optimism cannot put a good face on it. Mr. Balfour admitted on Thursday that there is more serious trouble in Cape Colony than in the Transvaal or Orange River. But it was the "insult" of a Boer invasion of Cape Colony that the might of Britain was rallied to avenge nearly two years ago. To-day the Boers are still there, and the local Dutch are rising on all hands to join them. This is humiliation and reproach enough. To add to it, Mr. Chamberlain had to recall the same day his definite promise that 70,000 troops would be brought home in September. Now it is only a vague hope that they may come. So far from Kitchener's work being done, it is announced that he is to stay indefinitely. Only a fortnight ago, the South African military correspondent of the Jingo *Daily Mail* bluntly declared that the situation, all told, was fully as disheartening as when Lord Roberts took his departure.

With sober Englishmen thus acknowledging their straits, turn to the Boer view as lately given by President Kruger. The Paris *Figaro* of August 3 published a long and authorized interview with him at The Hague. Everything was broken about the recently bereaved old man except his spirit. That remains indomitable, and his confidence serene. His hope was that the English would at last tire of a war of oppression; as for the burghers, they would never tire of fighting for their liberty. Their children were already fighting; their grandchildren would fight, if necessary. This might be set down as bombast if the deeds of the Boers were not before us. As for arms and supplies, Kruger affirmed that they had never been lacking yet and would not fail. "Whenever," he said with a grim smile, "we capture a convoy intended to supply 500 Englishmen, that means supplies for 5,000 Boers." The old man was asked if he would not accept an English protectorate with local self-government. It would be impossible, he replied. Then he added with homely humor: "What is a protectorate? You seize a man, put a rope around his neck and fasten it to a nail in the wall. Then you say to him, 'Walk, your legs are not bound. Your arms are not tied, so work!' No, no. We want no rope around our necks."

On one point of military and international law, Kruger showed himself better informed than Chamberlain. He was asked what would be the effect of an offer of amnesty to the Boers. He promptly replied: "We need no amnesty; we are belligerents." Yet the recent English proclamation, threatening to deport the Boer officers unless they surrender by September 15, denies them their belligerent rights. It is, therefore, as Mr. Bryce pointed out in the House last week, contrary to the laws of war. Mr. Chamberlain's defence is, of course, the assumption that the Boer forces are no longer anything but banditti. He took great comfort (more than Americans can) in citing Gen. MacArthuur's similar proclamation in the Philippines. But that was proved by time, as the English proclamation in South Africa will no doubt also turn out, only an empty threat, harmless to those against whom it was aimed, and merely humiliating to those who stooped to make it.

Amnesty to the rebellious Dutch in Cape Colony and Natal is another matter. Great Britain can legally hang them all if it chooses—and if it can catch them. Kruger, for his part, affirms that the Boers will never accept terms of peace which do not include pardon for their race-brothers who took arms to aid them. But Chamberlain stoutly refuses amnesty to rebels. This was one of the points in which he overruled Gen. Kitchener in that officer's peace negotiations with Gen. Botha. Yet there is high English precedent, to say nothing of reason and true statesmanship, for offering the amplest amnesty to the Dutch in rebellion. The Canadian rebellion of 1837 was brought to a happy conclusion only on such terms. It was the wisdom of Lord Durham which found that road to peace in Canada; and his example has actually been urged upon the British Government by the Ministry of Cape Colony. It justly said that the Cape rebellion was of a milder type than that in Canada, the latter having been attended by "dreadful murders and outrages." But it all made no impression on the haughty Chamberlain. He was bound to make treason odious; and so he preferred to prolong an odious war which, if not a "mortal harm" to England, is yet the one event of the past hundred years which makes her friends most grieve and her enemies loudest exult.

MME. DE MAINTENON AS AN EDUCATOR

PARIS, August 8, 1901.

Under the catching title of 'Les Précurseurs du Féminisme,' M. Louis Chabaud has published an amusing, though somewhat superficial, volume on Mme. de Maintenon, Mme. de Genlis, and Mme. Campan. Feminism is just now all the fashion; an exact definition of it would probably be difficult to make, and would be made in a very different way by different people. It is, for many, an attempt to open to women all the careers now open only to men, and in consequence to give to the two sexes the same education and the same amount of liberty. In his book, M. Chabaud considers the question of education. Mme. de Maintenon, Mme. de Genlis, and Mme. Campan all three devoted much time and attention to the education of women, and their views, though somewhat dissimilar, deserve to be studied. It was, however, a surprise to me that Mme. de Maintenon should be considered and studied as a feminist. She belongs to history much less as an educator than as the inspirer, the confidante, and finally the wife of Louis XIV.; if she was not really a queen, she had more influence and power than the generality of queens ever had.

Fénelon wrote a book, 'L'Éducation des Femmes,' which is a very modest programme of feminine education.

"Teach a girl," he says, "to read and write correctly; it is shameful, but very common, to see women of intelligence and politeness unable to enunciate well what they read; they fail, also, and more discreditably, in orthography. Teach them at least to keep their lines straight in writing. It would be well, also, that a girl should know the grammar of her native language."

For centuries, the education of women was exclusively confided to nuns, who were sometimes ignorant, and who were at any rate more preoccupied with the religious than with the social part of their mission.

Molière had all the public on his side when he ridiculed the "Femmes Savantes." Well-instructed women (and there were some) were brilliant exceptions, such as Mademoiselle de Scudéry, Ninon de Lenclos, Madame de Sévigné, Madame de Grignan, Madame de Lafayette. M. Lecœur, in a book on 'Education in the 17th Century,' says justly:

"Girls were either educated in their families, where they learned nothing, or in convents, where they learned little. It was not at the Ursulines that Madame de Maintenon learned Latin, Italian, and Spanish. Her master was Scarron. Madame de Sévigné, who also knew Italian, had lessons from the Abbé de Coulanges, from Chapelain and Ménage. Madame de Lafayette had also Ménage for instructor."

The biography of Madame de Maintenon has been so often written, and by such competent writers, that there is nothing to add to it, though there are still some dark corners in her life, especially for the period of infancy and youth, when she lived almost on charity. We will here deal with her only as an educator. She was chosen by Madame de Montespan as governess of the young Duke du Maine, being then Madame Scarron. Saint-Simon tells us, in his Memoirs, that Louis XIV., who often paid visits to his natural children, did not like her at first; he tells us also how he became used to her, and finally liked her so much that he made her Marchioness de Maintenon. We will at once show her, not in the character of a governess, but as the initiator of a complete system of education. She had prepared herself for a long time for the work which she accomplished as "institutrice de la maison royale de Saint-Louis" (such are the

words which we find in her "acte de décès"). She first interested Louiv XIV. in some schools at Montmorency, Rueil, and Noisy, but decided him in the end to form a large educational establishment in the little village of Saint-Cyr close to Versailles. A house was built by Mansard, at a great expense.

The principal affair was to give the new establishment (which had been provided with a large income by the King) its "Constitutions." They were written by Madame de Maintenon, and by Madame de Brinon, who was to be the Superior of the House, under the eyes of the King. The King wished the pupils to wear a special uniform, which was to be modest and serious, but not severe like the uniform of the nuns. A royal edict established at Saint-Cyr 36 dames and 250 demoiselles, who were to be nominated by the King, on condition that four quarters of nobility could be proved on the paternal side. The education of the demoiselles was traced in all its details by Madame de Maintenon. They got up at six o'clock, heard mass at eight, breakfasted at nine, dined at eleven; one of them read aloud during the repast. There was a recess after dinner, and there were lessons till supper-time, at six. There were no corporal punishments. The young ladies learned ancient and modern history, geography, music, drawing. Their style was formed by French composition, their memory by recitations, their pronunciation by systematic reading.

For thirty years Saint-Cyr became the constant preoccupation of Madame de Maintenon. It did not escape the danger of the theological discussions of the time, into which Madame de Maintenon was drawn by her interest in Madame Guyon and her affection for Fénelon. She was seduced for a time by what passes under the name of Quietism. This doctrine of pure love made great ravages at Saint-Cyr; but when Madame Guyon's book, the 'Maximes des Saints,' was condemned by Bossuet, by the King, and afterwards by Rome, Fénelon had to submit. Bossuet took the trouble to go himself to Saint-Cyr, to give lectures on Quietism, and to discuss the doctrine which he had been the first to denounce. Madame de Maintenon for some time stood up for Fénelon, but had to yield to the King's feelings. "She had," says M. Lavallée, in his 'Madame de Maintenon et la Maison Royale de Saint-Cyr,' "the only quarrel with him which they had during thirty years of marriage."

Madame de Brinon, the first Superior of Saint-Cyr, accustomed her pupils to recite scenes from tragedies which she composed herself. Madame de Maintenon proposed to substitute for these some of Racine's tragedies, "Iphigénie," "Andromaque." The young ladies played with great intelligence and success, so much so that Madame de Maintenon wrote to Racine: "Our young girls played 'Andromaque' yesterday, and played it so well that they will never play it again, nor any of your tragedies." She asked Racine, however, to compose, exclusively for Saint-Cyr, a piece in which the passion of love would not be prominent, and on some pious subject, with an admixture of choruses which the demoiselles could sing. Racine consented to do so, and we owe the admirable play of "Esther" to this desire of Madame de Maintenon's. The first representation took place on the 26th of January, 1689, in presence of the King, the Prince de Condé, and certain court personages. The King was so pleased that he asked for more. Madame de Sévigné was among the happy persons invited. She says that, after the performance, the King asked her if she had been satisfied; she answered: "Sire, I have been charmed; what I feel cannot be expressed." The King said: "Racine has much *esprit*." She said: "Sire, he has a great deal of it, but in truth these young persons also have much of it."

These performances opened the door of Saint-Cyr a little too wide, and, after a time, it was resolved that the demoiselles should play no more in public. It was the beginning of a reform which ended after a while in the transformation of Saint-Cyr into a regular religious community, by the imposition of perpetual vows on the dames, whose number was augmented from sixty to eighty. Madame de Maintenon, in her letters and instructions, constantly reminded them that they had one well-defined mission, which was the education of the demoiselles. She wished the latter to be educated, not with a view to a contemplative life, but to marriage. "Many religious women," she writes, "dare not pronounce the name of marriage. St. Paul was not so delicate." She returns constantly to the subject of marriage and its duties. These, for instance, are the counsels which she gives to one of the pupils at Saint-Cyr, Mademoiselle d'Osmond, who had just married the Marquis of Navrincourt:

"You have now, my dear daughter, only two things before you, to serve God and to content your husband. . . . If he is jealous, shut yourself up and see nobody; if, on the contrary, he wishes you to live in the great world, do so, though remaining as reserved as modesty demands. . . . Avoid bad company—there is nothing more dangerous. Like the presence of your husband; conceal nothing from him; in short, my dear daughter, be a good Christian, a good wife, a good mother."

In the latter part of her life Mme. de Maintenon, fatigued by the servitude of the court, found an asylum and consolation in the retreat at Saint-Cyr, "*Vive* Saint-Cyr!" she said, "notwithstanding its defects. I am better there than in any place in the world." She sometimes arrived as early as six o'clock in the morning, helped to dress the youngest pupils, spoke to all, encouraged them, and took the part of a teacher.

Louis XIV. fell very ill in August, 1715. Madame de Maintenon took care of him, night and day, during his last illness. He once said to her: "What is to become of you? You have nothing." She begged him not to think of her. The King called the Duc d'Orléans and said to him: "My nephew, I recommend to you Madame de Maintenon. You know my feelings towards her. She always gave me good advice, and I repent not having followed it. Do what she asks of you; she will not abuse the privilege." She did not abuse it, for, whatever may have been her faults, she was disinterested. She retired to Saint-Cyr after the death of the King, and said: "I will now live only for God and for my children." She herself died on the 15th of April, 1719, having spent the last years of her life in absolute retirement. She was buried in the chapel of Saint-Cyr. She had bitter enemies; a thousand pamphlets were written against her in Holland. Saint-Simon, the Princess Palatine, the mother of the Regent, speak of her with the greatest severity. Her early years exhibit her in a very unfavorable light. We must, however, place to her credit the foundation of the Institute of Saint-Cyr; we may say, also, as was once said, that she prevented Louis XIV. from becoming Louis XV.

Correspondence.

THE SUPPRESSION OF WIND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To those of us who believe in the natural conservatism and good judgment of the American workingman, it is a great satisfaction to observe that, during the deliberations held last Sunday in South Chicago on the question whether to join the strike or not, the steel-workers rigorously excluded all "orators." The windy gasbag, the tinsel rhetorician, the howling dervish of political campaigns, the cross-of-gold blatherskite, were all ruthlessly excluded—with the result that the men arrived at the eminently sensible conclusion that a contract was a contract, and that, as the other side had lived up to the contract thus far, it was their duty to do the same. In other words, the meeting was a deliberative assembly.

It will be a happy day when our politicians learn—from our workingmen—to exclude from supposedly deliberative assemblies, like Presidential nominating conventions, for instance, the professional, loud-mouthed, silver-tongued rhetorician, and to relegate him where he belongs—to the country schoolhouse and the United States Congress.

E. L. C. M.

Chicago, August 12, 1901.

MALAHACK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Can any of your readers tell me in what parts of the United States the verb *malahack* is in use? The other day, in the village of Weld, Franklin County, Maine, a local critic of things in general came into the country store and delivered himself somewhat as follows:

"You oughter see Si Jones. He's begun peddlin' meat, and he's havin' a hard time. Got some good enough meat, too. Bought a bull calf, weighed 106 pounds dressed; tried to buy it myself a fortnight ago. But he don't know how to cut up a critter, and he's jes' malahacked it all to pieces. Anybody want any particular chunk, and he'll cut right in regardless. Ye can't sell meat if ye don't know no better than malahack it in that way. He's malahacked that stuff till it looks as if the dogs had chawed it, and nobody 'll buy it."

H. L.

Weld, Me., August 13, 1901.

Notes.

Forthcoming books from D. Appleton & Co. are 'The Eternal City,' by Hall Caine; 'Shacklett,' a story of American politics, by Walter Barr; 'Student Life and Customs,' by Prof. Henry D. Sheldon; 'An Ideal School,' by Preston W. Search; 'A Commercial Geography,' by Cyrus C. Adams; 'The Story of Books,' by Gertrude B. Rawlings; and 'Other Worlds and their Possibilities,' by Garrett P. Serviss.

A new novel by George W. Cable, 'The

Cavalier'; 'The Ruling Passion: Tales of Nature and Human Nature,' by Henry van Dyke; 'Before the Play,' four short comedies by Evangeline Wilbour Blashfield and Edwin Howland Blashfield; and 'Government in State and Nation,' by Prof. J. A. James and A. H. Sanford, are on the fall list of Charles Scribner's Sons.

For October the Century Company promises 'Circumstance,' a novel by Dr. S. Weir Mitchell; 'Mistress Joy,' joint product of Grace McGowan Cooke and Annie Booth McKinney; and 'Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage-Patch,' by Alice Caldwell Hegan—the last two books being by Southern authors. Dr. William Mason's 'Memoirs of a Musical Life,' and 'Women and the Law,' by Prof. George James Bayles, are other announcements from the same source.

G. P. Putnam's Sons' September list will embrace 'The Old English Bible, and Other Essays,' by Francis Aidan Gasquet; 'The Passing and the Permanent in Religion,' by Minot J. Savage, D.D.; 'Peter Abélard,' a biography, by Joseph McCabe; 'The Mental Functions of the Brain,' by Bernard Hollander, M.D.; 'The Science of Penology,' by Henry M. Boies; 'South Africa and the Transvaal War,' volume six, by Louis Creswicke; 'Asia and Europe,' by Meredith Townsend; 'Wales,' by O. M. Edwards; 'In Our County: Stories of Old Virginia,' by Marion Harland; 'Johnnie Courteau, and Other Poems,' by William Henry Drummond, author of 'The Habitant'; 'Sonnets and Songs,' by Mary M. Adams; 'The Stars,' by Simon Newcomb; and 'The American Armory and Blue Book,' edited by John Matthews.

Fall announcements of Henry Holt & Co. are 'The Story of the Nation's Politics,' by Viola A. Conklin; a translation of Seignobos' 'History of the Roman People,' edited by William Fairley, Ph.D.; an 'Italian and English Dictionary,' by Prof. Hjalmar Edgren, assisted by Giuseppe Bico and John L. Gerig; Goethe's Poems, edited by Prof. Julius Goebel of Leland Stanford University; 'Prose Selections from Walter Pater,' by Prof. E. E. Hale, jr.; and 'Flora of the Northern States and Canada,' by Prof. N. L. Britton.

Another volume of poems, 'In the Realms of Gold,' by Lorenzo Soso, will soon be published by Elder & Shepard, San Francisco.

Much new matter will be found in the cheaper edition of the Countess Martinengo-Cesaresco's 'Italian Characters in the Epoch of Unification,' in preparation by T. Fisher Unwin, London.

The romantic revival of late years should have paved the way for a fresh issue of the novels of William Harrison Ainsworth, which had their greatest vogue more than half a century ago. Perhaps there would be a clear gain in the discipline of English style if these works should supersede with the mob of readers our current historic romances. But against this must be offset the moral effect of such of Mr. Ainsworth's work as bears the Tyburn stamp. For better, for worse, he has been promoted to a "Victorian Edition" (Philadelphia: George Barrie & Son); but as this is for subscribers only, the main consideration is, after all, of the apparel in which the series is clothed. The four volumes now before us, 'Jack Sheppard,' 'The Constable of the Tower,' 'Crichton,' and 'Rookwood,' present a very comely appearance in blue cloth with white labels. Print and paper are excellent. The "history" of each is honored with a genuine portrait, and the story with etchings by numerous artists, mostly French. The designs vary considerably in merit, but the best, as in 'Jack Sheppard,' are quite in keeping with the general air of the publication. No doubt the series will make its way into private libraries, to be read more or less.

A showy book, 'Lake Geneva and its Literary Landmarks,' takingly illustrated with portraits, has for author Francis Gribble (London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.). His preface professes an intent to write "an informal, anecdotal history" not of the lake, but of the city, "with especial reference" to eminent men of letters, residents or sojourners there. This confusion of title and object characterizes the whole performance. In the jumble, anecdote gets the lion's share, and literature the leavings. Mme. de Warens no less than Mme. de Staël is allowed two chapters, though the frail lady is not a literary landmark at all. She is lugged in as a curtain-raiser to Rousseau, whose works are scarcely in question except to invalidate the authenticity of the 'Confessions,' and who is dismissed in terms which reveal Mr. Gribble's intellectual calibre and something more: "Jean Jacques was probably a liar, and certainly a cad—a sentimental cad, which is the most exasperating kind; he kissed and told, and there is also a strong presumption that he boasted of kisses that he did not get. As a man, in short, he may be summed up as an inconsistent Diogenes playing to the gallery with a zest that almost deceived himself, but never quite able to shake off the traditions of the flunkey, or the regret that he had not been cast for the rôle of a Lothario."

We noticed recently Prof. W. J. Courthope's 'Life in Poetry: Law in Taste,' being the lectures delivered during his tenure of the Oxford professorship of poetry; now his successor, Mr. A. C. Bradley, has taken up the torch in an inaugural lecture upon 'Poetry for Poetry's Sake' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde). This is an admirable little tract which should be in the hands of readers who, while they are zealous to read poetry poetically, do not dislike an occasional fructifying analysis of the field of their delight. Mr. Bradley treats his theme in a remarkably fresh and unhackneyed fashion; and in his peculiar description of a poem as "the succession of experiences—sounds, images, thoughts, emotions—through which we pass when we are reading as poetically as we can," he adopts a point of view which cannot be other than suggestive to the reader. His illustrations of the idealizing faculty of the creative imagination and of the inextricable blending of substance and form are exceptionally well chosen; and his continual insistence that poetry is poetry and not something else, is timely. Although the lecture is printed almost precisely as it was delivered two months ago, it is conspicuous for "charm and lucid order and labor of the file."

Ireland's best foot has certainly been put forward in 'Ireland, Industrial and Agricultural,' a handbook for the Irish pavilion of the Glasgow Exhibition, published by Ponsonby, Dublin. It is brought out not by any Irish authority, but by one of the many Government boards instituted for the benefit of Ireland without being dependent upon or responsible to Irish public opinion. It is an admirable compilation, doing credit to the new Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction; a beautifully printed large octavo volume of nearly 300 pages, profusely illustrated, and furnished with numerous maps and plans, but crippled in its usefulness by the want of an index. It consists of a series of essays by men masters of their subjects; and any person desirous of making himself fully acquainted with the industrial resources of Ireland should possess a copy. Under the guise of explanations of the geology of the island, we are introduced to many of its scenic beauties. In the essays on lace, the illustrations are peculiarly rich; and, in contradistinction to these gossamer emanations from the fingers of peasant girls, we have, in a concluding discourse on Belfast shipbuilding, illustrations of the *Oceanic* and *Celtic*. The book is one of permanent value, and is sold at a price which shows it has a Government Treasury behind it.

The second edition of Dr. F. W. Hewitt's 'Anæsthetics' (Macmillan) is a philosophical and practical treatise upon the modes of operation as well as of administration of the general anæsthetics. It includes pretty nearly all of the existing knowledge on that subject that is worth having. The author awards a high place to nitrous oxide, and, with every reason to support him, gives ether precedence over chloroform in general surgery except where portability, as in the field, or high atmospheric temperature, as in the tropics, reverses the order. He adheres to the dectrine that chloroform is more seriously a cardiac than a respiratory depressant, which, notwithstanding the conclusion of the Hyderabad Commission, is true. Both the physiology of anæsthesia, and, as based upon it, the sequence of the various agents for causing and maintaining insensibility, are clearly set forth, and the possible complications, with their proper treatment, are distinctly explained. In short, this is a well-written professional book of the highest grade, that may be accepted as authority on its important special subject. There is no notice of the transitory primary analgesia that is believed to occur before the stage of excitement in ether administration; and no warning of the serious medico-legal complications that may arise from subjective conditions when ether is given to women in the absence of competent witnesses. A nationalist would observe that the American Evans is mentioned as "an English dentist" in Paris, and the late Dr. Battey of Georgia becomes Batty.

We need say nothing except in praise of the splendid 'Text-Book of Physiology' edited in two volumes by E. A. Schafer, LL.D., F.R.S. (Macmillan). It is in no sense a popular presentation of modern physiology, but, as a record of the skill, intelligence, and patience in research shown by the physiologists of the world, it is a worthy successor to the six-volume text-book of Hermann, which so long held its position as a treasure-house of information for students and teachers. The present work is of composite authorship, as indeed was necessary, since no writer of to-day can profess to be an authority on all the great subdivisions of physiology; but the writers seem to have been so carefully chosen and have done their work so well that one is not conscious of serious lapses, either as regards style or mode of handling, as one passes from chapter to chapter. The close-

ly printed pages, more than two thousand in number, are occupied rather with stating and balancing views of the many authors reported than of proving those advanced by the writers themselves, and for this reason the citation even of conclusions is impossible in a review within our limit of space. The first volume deals mainly, as the preface states, "with the chemical constitution and chemical processes of the animal body, and with those physical and chemical phenomena which are connected with the production and elaboration of the secretions and other fluids of the body. The articles in the second volume include the mechanics of the circulation and respiration, and of special muscular movements; the general physiology of muscle and nerve; the special senses; and the functions of the central nervous system." So extensive has the literature of these subjects grown that certain others, such as generation and reproduction, and the general physiology of the cell, have been crowded out, or rather have been omitted as belonging more properly in specialized works. The indices are especially full and valuable; 108 pages of fine print are devoted to the index of subjects alone, while the author index is equally voluminous.

Three quarto volumes of conspicuous utility have just issued from the Library of Congress. One is Mr. A. P. C. Griffin's 'Union List of Periodicals, Transactions, and Allied Publications Currently Received in the Principal Libraries of the District of Columbia.' This is, strictly speaking, a provisional or check list, and is to be perfected hereafter. Meantime, the broad margins, the one-side impression, and the letter paper permit of additions or corrections with pen and ink. The fifteen libraries taken cognizance of are all Government, including the Congressional Library itself and the Smithsonian Institution. The wealth of periodicals is surprising. Mr. Griffin has judiciously, we think, adopted a system of alphabetizing conformable to the first significant word in a title, so that *Evening Post*, for example, is entered under E. A different system has been employed, also, we think, judiciously, by Mr. Allan B. Slauson in his 'Check List of American Newspapers in the Library of Congress.' Here the arrangement is geographical and the sub-arrangement regards the essential and familiar name, putting *Evening Post* under P. The succeeding general index disarms all criticism by placing the same paper under both E and P. We have finally 'A Calendar of Washington MSS. in the Library of Congress,' compiled chronologically under the direction of Herbert Friedenwald, with an index forming nearly half the volume, yet purposely exclusive of names occurring in manuscripts that have been printed and are easily accessible, though briefly calendared here.

Out of Black John Street in Rotterdam—memorial in its name of a local hero who slaughtered many enemies in the Spanish fury of 1573—issues a little handbook of sixty-four pages, giving the final results of the June elections in the Netherlands, which determine Dutch policy for the next four years. The Liberal Government has been overthrown, and the allied Calvinists (Anti-Revolutionaries) and Catholics have won. The new Second Chamber—the real ruler of the kingdom—consists of one hundred members, of whom the united Clericals have 49 seats and the Liberals 27. Of a possible total of 610,198 votes, only 388,653 were polled. In many of the Roman Catholic districts, in the south, there being no opposition, no true elections were held. The superior zeal, vigilance, and self-sacrifice of the churchmen have won the day, for no vacations, indolence, or preoccupations interfered with their superb organization; and the extent of their victory has as much surprised themselves as it has disappointed those who separated Church and State. Of the other parties, the Christian-Historic holds 2 seats, the Social-Democrats 7, the Free-Anti-revolutionaries 7, and the Free Democrats 8. The victors maintain the theory of "the State subservient to the Church," professing that in the Netherlands the State grew out of the Church. That Ultramontane adherents of the Pope and strenuous upholders of the theology of Calvin and of Dordrecht can agree, when the division of the spoils is the order of the day, is improbable.

The new edition of the 'Index of Prohibited Books,' published by the Vatican Press, regarded from a literary point of view, is certainly an improvement on its predecessors, and shows that the new editor, Thomas Esser, the Secretary of the Index Congregation, has strictly obeyed the rule laid down for this revision in the "Constitution of January 24, 1897," *Officiorum ac Munerum*. A lot of old rubbish in the shape of forgotten anti-Catholic works has been omitted, and in their place a rather full list of modern writers is given. From the literature of the last ten years alone, 82 authors with 131 writings are pilloried. This favor, however, is very unevenly distributed, there being in the class named sixty Italian, forty-seven French, sixteen Spanish and Portuguese, with only four English and four German works. Strange bedfellows are found when Strauss's 'Life of Christ' is placed side by side with Reuss's edition of the Scriptures and Sabatier's 'Francis of Assisi,' while Wellhausen is not on the list at all, and, still more strangely, not even Hase's 'Polemics.'

The *National Geographic Magazine* for August contains an account of a journey from Tiflis to Mt. Ararat by Esther L. Hovey, who writes pleasantly of her experiences, though with too many trivial details. The other contents are Dr. T. Williams's story of the growth of the relations of Southwestern Asia with Europe, and Mr. W. J. McGee's general description of Asia as the cradle of humanity. This is noteworthy chiefly for the confident stress which he lays upon the discovery of *Pithecanthropus erectus*.

The principal articles in the *Annales de Géographie* for July are upon the origin of the valleys of the Western Alps, and on the physical features of Morocco in explanation of an accompanying hypsometrical chart. A region in Tunis is described with references to its climate, rainfall, vegetation, and recent history, and there is a notice of the latest investigations of E. Richter, Nordenskjöld, and Prof. W. M. Davis, on the relation of fiords, Alpine valleys and lakes to glacial erosion. Attention is directed to the rapid growth of Jibutil, on the French Somali coast. An insignificant village in 1893, it is now a town of 15,000 inhabitants, 1,500 of whom are Europeans, with two hotels and a hospital. Its advantages as a port are shown by the increasing number of steamers which call at it, including those of the new Russian line from Odessa to the Persian Gulf. It has cable communication with France, and telegraph and telephone lines to Harrar and Adis Abbeba, the capital of Abyssinia, while a railway to these places is being built.

The last literary labors of Herman Grimm were devoted to a task which he had thrice before attempted and given up: a life of Raphael. The small part (one chapter and a single page of another) completed when death overtook him, is published in the current number of the *Rundschau*. Following it is a postscript of the editor, who had for nearly half a century enjoyed an almost daily intercourse with the great writer. It was as a writer of the first rank, as Dr. Rodenberg here emphatically repeats, rather than as a scholar or a professor, that Grimm has exerted an important and lasting influence, and it is significant that his earliest known publication is a translation of Emerson's 'Goethe the Author.' Later in life he acknowledged the pride he felt in belonging to the author's profession.

In an article in the *Tribuna*, the well-known littérateur Ugo Ojetti draws attention to the sad fate that seemingly is in store for the great Italian libraries, because the Government has considered it necessary to cut down the appropriations. Special attention is called to the Biblioteca Vittorio Emmanuele in Rome, which formerly had an income of 100,000 lire, but, during the past two years, has received only 56,000, and in addition has a debt of 30,000. One of the consequences is the refusal of the Italian book-dealers to furnish more works to the library, as some of their bills have been unpaid for years. Its lacunæ are becoming more and more embarrassing, especially in the periodical departments. Neither the preceding incumbents of the Cultus Ministry, Bacelli and Gallo, nor the present Nasi, have been able to do anything in the matter. On the other hand, some of the libraries under foreign control in Rome are models of their kind. Especially is this true of the collection of the Imperial German Archæological Institute, on the Capitol, which is under the management of the Pompeiian specialist August Mau, and is practically complete in its line.

—In our review of Fithian's Journal we committed two errors of fact, to which attention has been courteously drawn by the editor and another correspondent. The grave in the University grounds is not that of the young lady mentioned by Fithian, but of another bearing the same surname, a resident of the same city, Philadelphia, and apparently of similar age, who also died after a protracted illness, but in 1794 instead of 1774. The confirmation of an earlier impression which we attempted, failed, by an unaccountable oversight, in the essentials of Christian name and date. The editor is also correct in the name of John Champe Carter, which we surmised should be Edward. As has been pointed out, this Captain Carter, whose mother was Miss Sarah Champe, was a first cousin of Col. Carter of Nomini, and held a command in Col. Harrison's Virginia and Maryland Regiment of Artillery. As the book stands, it contains no error of fact, so far as we know.

—'Bird Watching,' by Edmund Selous (London: Dent; New York: Macmillan), is a study of the habits of certain British birds.

One hardly knows whether to prize more its treasure of original observations, recorded with photographic accuracy of detail, or its suggestive philosophical conclusions, which not only lay a foundation for the psychology of birds, but trace the genesis of habits through successive stages of evolution, and even attempt to explain the origin of species. These theories are offered conservatively, and will stimulate ornithologists to pursue neglected paths. Not every one can agree with the author that the spontaneous movement of flocks of birds is due to thought-transference, and that the primal cause of a mother-bird's feigning injury to protect her young is found in epilepsy. Mr. Selous treats chiefly of family life, many of his subjects being the little-known sea birds. He describes the strained antics of rivals during courtship, the mutual amenities of married birds, and their devotion to their young. The interest of the book, however, is not merely scientific. The author's personality is original, and his style has literary charm. He is a book-lover with a crowd of book memories, that associate themselves pleasantly or whimsically with what he sees. He has an eye and an ear sensitive to beauty, and intersperses with his scientific photographs little sketches full of grace and spirit. Birds have for him a human interest, and he deplores the point of view from which such creatures, "All throbbin' full o' gifts an' graces," are seen only as "specimens." The book is free from scientific technicalities, but it is not likely to become popular natural history, partly for the reasons that the details are multitudinous, and that the element of human interest is not all-pervading. Leisurely readers, however, may find, like Mr. Selous, that bird-watching is "an island of consolation" amid a sea of troubles.

—The more or less faded celebrities whom Mr. George Paston endeavors to revive in 'Little Memoirs of the Eighteenth Century' (Dutton) are three ladies of rank and fashion, one of humbler station but better fame, a playwright, a bookseller, and a lover. These meet on the common ground of having written about themselves. James Lackington (who is in luck just now, being celebrated by Mr. Marston also) is admitted to represent trade; the others had "advantages." Mrs. Grant of Laggan is remembered on both sides the sea for her books, and Richard Cumberland had a place, such as it was, in the literature of his day. If not a wit, he was the cause of wit in others, as when Scott mentioned his "comedies at which we have cried, and tragedies at which we have laughed," and Horace Walpole called his revised "Timon of Athens" "marvellously well done, for he has caught the manners and diction of the original so exactly that I think it is full as bad a play as it was before he corrected it." John Tweddell (1769-99), of whom much was expected, produced little beyond interminable letters to Isabel Gunning: most of them are fortunately lost. Of the court ladies, by far the most memorable is Elizabeth Berkeley, Countess of Craven and Margravine of Anspach, whose wanderings and adventures are here recalled. The charm which this emancipated woman exercised so long and so widely, deserted her when she touched a pen; her memoirs, according to Mr. Paston, are as dull as unveracious. Her colossal self-esteem, he says, would have kept her happy had her career been less successful. Yet its commencement was most unpromising; being puny and weak, she "was left neglected on a chair by her mother's bedside," where a visiting aunt almost sat down upon her. Mr. Paston is a pleasant writer and a skilled compiler, who frankly caters to gossip-lovers, and has the patience to toil through obsolete volumes of egotism for such scraps as may suit a modern taste. One of his best anecdotes comes through Lady Craven from an aged Polish lady, who knew Marlborough at The Hague: "He was so stingy that . . . his black silk stockings . . . were darned with white thread." Another was preserved by Cumberland of Lord Sackville: "He had a habit of standing up in sermon-time to review the congregation and awe the idlers into decorum," *à la* Sir Roger de Coverley; and once, "to encourage a very young preacher," he cried out, "Well done, Harry!"

—Dr. Alfred Hodder's 'Adversaries of the Sceptic' (London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan) is an extremely brilliant and incisive criticism of some widely prevalent views of Professor Royce and Mr. Bradley. Dr. Hodder poses as a philosophical skeptic, and is a valiant champion of the moment of experience, the "specious present," beyond which nothing is certain, either in metaphysics, logic, or ethics. In the glare of his paradoxes his adversaries certainly appear in an uninviting light, but whether he himself succeeds in substituting any tenable construction is not so clear. Before this could be admitted, it might be necessary to call upon Dr. Hodder—under penalty of having all his indignant appeals for logical purity disallowed—to construct a new logic, which he would accept as cogent in place of that to which he will grant only "psychological cogency," and to consider more carefully than he has done whether the flaws in the "illogic" of postulation which he denounces, might not be cured by a more complete adoption of this very principle. If in these respects he himself provokes skepticism, he should ascribe this doubt in part to the fact that he has not unfrequently shown greater anxiety to display his own cleverness than to advance the solution of his problem; in part to his neglect to provide a final summary of his argument and of the resulting situation. In spite, however, of these reservations, Dr. Hodder's book may be recommended to all who have a taste for dialectical discussions and excellence of style, as one of the most stimulating and enjoyable that have appealed to the philosophic public in recent years.

—A new and enlarged edition of Professor Sohm's 'Institutes' has been issued by the Clarendon Press (New York: H. Frowde). In the nine years since the publication of Mr. Ledlie's first English version, five editions of this work have appeared in Germany. From the latest of these Mr. Ledlie has made the present translation, and Professor Grueber of Munich, formerly of Oxford, has again revised the book and written an introduction. This second edition differs considerably from the former. Under the new Civil Code of the German Empire, which came into force on January 1, 1900, Roman private law, which had been the common law of Germany ever since the famous Ordinance of 1495, has become in German practice a thing of the past. A study of Roman law as such, will, therefore, in future occupy only an introductory place in German legal instruction. Professor Sohm aims at furnishing all the knowledge required by the student under the new system; hence several of the changes that he has made. He has added an excellent chapter on the fate of the Roman law since the completion of the Corpus Juris, thus bringing down to date the admirable historical sketch of that law which now fills about one-sixth of the volume. Since the last English edition some notes have also been added, and portions of the text have been entirely rewritten in the light of recent research. The book is a valuable contribution to the English literature of the subject, because it gives the marrow of the best authorities, and combines a history of the development of Roman law with its presentation as a complete and full-grown system. The short introduction by Professor Grueber explains the relation of the Civil Law to the new German Code, but unfortunately omits the interesting discussion, which he gave in 1892, of the influence of Vacarius, Bracton, and others in importing Roman law into England. Illustrative Latin texts are again introduced in such a way as not to interfere with the flow of the narrative, and the clearness and beauty of the style are a feature of this edition, as of the earlier.

—An important original work from another Oxford pen, which has just appeared at the same press, is Mr. A. H. J. Greenidge's treatise on 'Legal Procedure of Cicero's Time.' He is the first English writer to deal fully with this important topic. The book is, therefore, sure to be welcomed, not only by scientific workers in Roman law, but by the many classical students who must need an adequate key to the legal allusions with which Cicero abounds. Such allusions are not, indeed, always to questions of procedure, and often concern substantive law. But a full exposition of the mode of asserting rights necessarily involves much elucidation of the nature of the rights asserted, and in the four orations of Cicero which it is hopeless to understand without a legal commentary, the questions of procedure are practically the only stumbling-blocks. These orations are separately dealt with in an appendix. It is a pity that the list there given of writers who have discussed these speeches is by no means complete, and especially that no notice is taken of the very recent work in that particular line of Prof. Emilio Costa of Bologna. The policy of the author throughout is to refer almost exclusively to Cicero, and very sparingly to the modern civilians, a course which the dictates of space may perhaps have imposed. But in the case of Criminal Procedure, which occupies the latter division of the work, it is to be regretted that the references to Mommsen's recent and monumental 'Strafrecht' could not have been more copious. For instance, the "vital question" (p. 380) whether special *quaestiones* ever excluded appeals to the people is passed without an allusion to Mommsen's peculiar explanation. The whole book, however, both in style and in matter, reflects great credit on the Oxford School of Civil Law. Despite the opinion of the late Mr. E. J. Phelps that the Roman differs fundamentally from the English law—a statement true only in a constitutional sense—and notwithstanding the "immensity of ignorance" which Maine's arguments of fifty

years back have but partially dispelled, the English study of Roman jurisprudence is visibly progressing. So original and thorough a book is a striking mark of that progress.

—The education of the Eastern peoples is a question of the first importance whose difficulties are just beginning to be recognized. Till recently missionaries and teachers have worked on the principle that all men were substantially alike, and therefore should be taught the same truths by similar methods the world over. The fallacy of this principle has been demonstrated by the experience of the English in India. The three Indian universities, founded in 1857, have apparently been conducted on the same general lines as the English universities, with the result that "the university training which culminates in a Calcutta degree seems elaborately devised to emphasize and exaggerate the natural weaknesses of the Bengali intellect and character." Lord Curzon, the first of the Viceroys to do so, has called attention to this practical failure, in some striking speeches in which he has urged a radical reform of the whole system. It is found that, just as the Chinese learn by heart the ethics of Confucius, the Brahman the Vedas, the Arab the Koran, so the Indian Babu simply memorizes the fundamental facts and truths underlying Western education "without even attempting to give any intelligent study to their meaning." His learning is but a tool which he uses to make a living, and has not become a part of his intellectual and moral nature. The proposed reform of the educational system will no doubt be greatly aided by the ethnographical survey of India about to be undertaken by the Government. Its results will be helpful far beyond the boundaries of the peninsula, for in the number and variety of its races it is, as it were, a miniature world. A noted Indian official once stated that a traveller in going from Bombay to Calcutta passes through more peoples, and more difference in language, customs, and religious beliefs, than one who goes from Constantinople to London. The bringing out by means of the survey of the racial characteristics of each people, their habits of thought, their superstitions, aspirations, and the truths and facts of nature which most influence them, will prove of inestimable value to the intelligent teacher or missionary who labors among them or similar peoples.

RECENT VERSE.

For an arch-champion of conventional civilization Mr. Meredith has a surprising amount of wildness in his veins. The first of the three poems that make up 'A Reading of Life' (Scribners) is all in praise of Artemis, the Huntress, who is the spirit visible of untamed living and the incarnation of the delights of outlawry. The splendid vigor and picturesqueness of Mr. Meredith's description of life in the open, of the joys of exquisite savagery, are such as our younger generation of praisers of mere vagabondage and pseudo-savagery have hardly attained to.

"Through the water eye of night,
Midway between eve and dawn,
See the chase, the rout, the flight
In deep forest; oread, faun,
Goat-foot, antlers laid on neck;
Ravenous all the line for speed.
See yon wavy sparkle beck
Sign of the Virgin Lady's lead.
Down her course a serpent star
Coils and shatters at her heels;
Peals the horn exulting, peals
Plaintive, is it near or far.

Pride of flesh from bondage free,
Reaping vigor of its waste,
Marks her servitors, and she
Sanctifies the unembraced."

Nor have the singers of lawless love any poems to offer in which the ecstasy of passion is more superbly celebrated than in Mr. Meredith's "With the Persuader," his second 'Reading of Life.' Mr. Meredith certainly knows the art of keeping what is quintessential in savagery; he has not let civilization get the better of him. Yet, unlike our modern shrill bourgeois rebels, he is, after all, never faithless to civilization, or a renegade to the arts and sciences. A certain fierce joy in the reckless self-assertion of the chase—whatever the covey—that is our heritage from the beast, a priceless heritage, the inexhaustible source of the diversified energy that does the work of the world. But the recklessness of the self-assertion must be tamed; and, even in his hymn to Passion, Mr. Meredith makes it clear that Beauty's Queen, in spite of the delicious madness of which she knows the secret, is nevertheless the Goddess of the Garden, not of the Forest; she—the Persuader—is the earliest of the powers that civilize man. "Beauty draws him with a single hair" out of the Forest of Arden toward the regions of domesticity and permanent rights of property. In the third 'Reading of Life,' the "Test of Manhood," Mr. Meredith traces imaginatively man's progress from within hearing distance of "the primal brute" to life as we know it—"this thing we see"—which, on the whole, he seems optimistically to regard as "salvation."

Noteworthy throughout is the transfigured Naturalism of Mr. Meredith's mood, his reconciliation of wildness and worldly wisdom. He has come to terms with the Nature of the evolutionists. We hear nothing of Nature "red in tooth and claw," though the poet does not for a moment blink Nature's "savage riddles" or "iron laws." Yet surely man is, after all, her best-beloved:

"But is he rightly manful in her eyes,
A splendid bloodless knight to gain the skies,
A blood-hot son of Earth by all her signs,
Desireing and desireable he shines;
As peaches, that have caught the sun's uprise
And kissed warm gold till noonday, even as vines.
Earth fills him with her juices, without fear
That she will cast him drunken down the steeps.
All woman is she to this man most dear;
He sows for bread, and she in spirit reaps:
She conscient, she sensitive, in him;
With him enwound, his brave ambition hers:
By him humaner made."

In such passages as these Mr. Meredith is as loyal to the Nature of the evolutionists as Wordsworth was to the transmogrified Nature of the transcendental idealists. And what makes Mr. Meredith as a poet so immensely worth while to many readers is the fact that he never conquers through a lie, or wins his transfiguring glamour through a romantic fallacy.

Mr. Lysaght, in his 'Poems of the Unknown Way' (Macmillan), has perhaps been rather too obvious and downright in declaring his loyalty to science and the actual. Part I. of his book is given to Romance, and Part II. to Repentance. Part I. is the record of a quest after novel sensations in the South Seas in Stevenson's wake. Part II. is a "Ritual"—a Positivistic confession of faith. The raptures of Part I. are hardly reckless enough to need the vast deal of moralizing vouchsafed in Part II.; the bread is in excess of the sack. Many of the poems of Part II. read like Positivistic sermons from Fleur-de-lis Court turned into hexameters. Yet, on the whole, Mr. Lysaght's verse has much charm and shows no little power. Even in the midst of the Comtean droning one comes upon such genuinely lyric passages as the following:

"O green earth! little heart of warm life! little wanderer
In the vast spaces unknown and eternal and fathomless!
O little sunlighted wanderer in the wide wilderness!
Thou art our home! We look round and consider our dwelling-place;
Ponder the pictures of life and mutation, and wakefulness,
Gathered in one little world, the strange tidings of destiny
Told by an hour of time. Of thy dust we are fashioned,
Nursed in thy shelter, and no other home may we look upon."

The poems of Part I., "The Unknown Shore," are full of rich color-effects, mysterious perspectives over vast waterways, and in general of finely imaginative interpretations of "the ocean's azure hieroglyph" and "the old sweetness of the earth."

Sir Lewis Morris's latest volume, 'Harvest Tide' (T. Y. Crowell & Co.), offers to his admirers much that they will characteristically admire; nor can even the unbelieving outsider wholly resist the good feeling that pervades the poems, their courtly graciousness of manner, and their single-hearted interest in the things that are best worth while. The poem that comes nearest to distinction of style—perhaps it echoes Christina Rossetti—is

FROM DAWN TO EVE.

The swift dawn groweth,
The frail flower bloweth,
Solemn Eve brings her shades,
The sweet blossom fades;
This is the secret of the ancient Earth,
This is the primal mystery of birth.

Full noon rides on high
Through the shadowless sky,
Black clouds gather round,
Fanged with fire, big with sound;
This is the tale of Life, portentous, strange,
Chequered with pain, the sport of Time and Change.

The fountain upspringeth,
The strong pinion wingeth,
The weak waters sink down,
And the tired bird has flown;
This is in brief the tale of the breathing of breath,
This is the sum of man's story from Birth unto Death.

All the foregoing poets take their subjects from real life or the regions of accepted theory. Not so Mr. W. B. Yeats, in 'The Shadowy Waters' (Dodd, Mead & Co.), and the author of 'The Soul of Osiris,' whose name is given as Aleister Crowley. Both are contemners of the commonplace, wilful and audacious dreamers. Mr. Yeats has certainly learned the trick of the fourth dimension. Very easily and surely and with no flourish of conjuring phrases, he dissolves the world of literal fact, puts an end to the tyranny of those every-day objects and forms of experience which our practical needs have taught us one and all to shape for ourselves with eye and ear, relieves us from the obsession of the commonplace, and makes us free of a new heaven and a new earth where, after all, we seem at once to be breathing native air:

"How shall I name you, immortal, mild, proud shadows?
I only know that all we know comes from you,
And that you come from Eden on flying feet.
Is Eden far away, or do you hide
From human thought, as hares and mice and coneys
That run before the reaping-hook and lie
In the last ridge of the barley. Do our woods
And winds and ponds cover more quiet woods,
More shining winds, more star-glimmering ponds?

"Is Eden out of time and out of space?
And do you gather about us when pale light
Shining on water and fallen among leaves,
And winds blowing from flowers, and whirr of feathers
And the green quiet, have uplifted the heart?"

These lines are part of the proem. The story that follows tells of the fates of Forgael, the harper, and the captive Queen Dectora—the scene of the drama being the deck of a galley in some remote sea-region. Forgael, the visionary, is seeking an unknown good—a more than mortal love—in "the holy woods" beyond "the streams where the world ends," where

> "Love is made
> Imperishable fire under the boughs
> Of chrysoberyl and beryl and chrysolite,
> And chrysoprase and ruby and sardonyx."

His sailors bring before him Dectora, whom they have captured from a passing galley, and she, waking at length from the enchanted sleep that had fallen on her as she listened, at first unwillingly, to Forgael's harping, welcomes him with unsealed eyes:

> "I know you now, beseeching hands and eyes.
> I have been waiting you. A moment since
> My foster-mother sang in an old rhyme
> That my true-love would come in a ship of pearl
> Under a silken sail and silver yard,
> And bring me where the children of Aengus wind
> In happy dances, under a windy moon."

But Forgael will not turn from his mystic quest:—

> "The love of all under the light of the sun
> Is but brief longing, and deceiving hope,
> And bodily tenderness."

Then Dectora, after much sweet, womanly pleading for the human and the earthly, chooses to go with Forgael, though it be toward death; she cuts the rope that binds them to the other galley, and they two alone drift away over the "shadowy waters":

> "(*She kneels beside him and puts her arms about him.*)
> "Bend lower, O King,
> O flower of the branch, O bird among the leaves,
> O silver fish that my two hands have taken
> Out of a running stream, O morning star
> Trembling in the blue heavens like a white fawn
> Upon the misty border of the wood,—
> Bend lower, that I may cover you with my hair,
> For we will gaze upon this world no longer.
> (*The harp begins to murmur of itself.*)
>
> FORGAEL.
>
> The harp-strings have begun to cry out to the eagles."

This is one way into Dreamland. Aleister Crowley, in 'The Soul of Osiris' (London: Kegan Paul), reveals what seems to him an even more excellent way. He calls his volume with its four books "a History"—the history, evidently, of a very modern spirit as it has passed from the rule of the bodily senses and Baudelaire to the most exalted moods of mysticism. "Man's approach to God is regulated by the strictest laws, and follows a true mathematical curve"—these words from Mr. Thorold Rogers's Introduction to the 'Dialogue of St. Catherine' might well serve as a motto for 'The Soul of Osiris'; and the rationale of the transformation might be summed up in these other words of Mr. Rogers's:

> "The desire for ecstasy is at the very root and heart of our nature. . . . Human life is informed at every stage by this desire for ecstasy, of self-escape into something higher. Mysticism alone affords to those favored beings who are competent in brain and will for its ardors a true and lasting realization of this desire. Neither the sensual nor the sentimental life can do so, for nature or society constantly throws us by illnesses or laws on the hither or farther side of its perfect realization."

'The Soul of Osiris' begins with a Prologue, "Obsession," addressed to Charles Baudelaire. Book I., "The Court of the Profane," is given over to the more or less symbolical portrayal of a life of surrender to the senses. Book II., "The Gate of the Sanctuary," portrays the struggle between the senses and the spirit. Book III., "The Holy Place," describes the soul's earliest moments of triumph. Book IV., 'The Holy of Holies," is the imaginative record of typical phases of mystical ecstasy. The depth and volume and the passionate intensity of the feeling in many of these poems are unmistakable, as are also the frequent richness and visionary splendor of the imagery and the aptness and transfiguring power of the rhythms. But equally clear is the fact that the usual faults of the mystical imagination are already hurting the poet's work. We all know what happened to the transcendently beautiful lyrical genius of Blake. Aleister Crowley should keep a copy of the 'Prophetic Books' next the whipcord scourge in his anchorite's cell. Already the world that he bodies forth in his verse is too often merely a clotted mass of wilful emotional symbols.

That this need not be so, such stanzas as the following from "Jezebel" prove beyond cavil:

> "A lion's mane, a leopard's skin
> Across my dusty shoulders thrown;
> A swart, fierce face, with eyes where sin
> Lurks like a serpent by a stone.
> A man driven forth by lust to seek
> Rest from himself on Carmel's peak.
>
> "A prophet with wild hair behind,
> Streaming in fiery clusters! Yea,
> Tangled with vehemence of the wind,
> And knotted with the tears that slay:
> And all my face parched up and dried,
> And all my body crucified.
>
> "Ofttimes the Spirit of the Lord
> Descends and floods me with his breath;
> My words are fashioned as a sword,
> My voice is like the voice of death.
> The thunder of the Spirit's wings
> Brings terror to the hearts of kings."

This is plastic enough, and so is the entire long narrative poem of which it is a part—plastic and immensely dramatic. Other poems show the same qualities. Of the mystical ardor that finds often beautiful and often wearisomely vague and wordy expression in the later poems, the following stanzas may stand as representative:

> "O guardian of the pallid hours of night!
> O tireless watcher of the smitten noon!
> O sworded with the majesty of light,
> O girded with the glory of the moon!
> Angel of absolute splendor! Link of mine
> Old weary spirit with the All-Divine!
>
> "Ship that shalt carry me by many winds
> Driven on the limitless ocean! Mighty sword
> By which I force that barrier of the mind's
> Miscomprehension of its own true lord!
> Listen, and answer, and behold my brow
> Fiery with hope! Bend down and touch it now!
>
> "Press the twin dawn of thy desirous lips
> In the swart masses of my hair; bend close,
> And shroud all earth in masterless eclipse,
> While my heart's murmur through thy being flows,
> To carry up the prayer, as incense teems
> Skyward, to those immeasurable streams!"

No one who reads such poems as these, and in addition the strangely visionary "Nameless Quest," the sonnet to Allan Macgregor, and "The Rosicrucian," can doubt that this poet is authentic and will reveal to the world much new beauty, unless his eye be dizzied and his brain distraught by the raptures of Mysticism.

Two other volumes of English verse are in their way interesting. Mr. Arthur E. J. Legge, though often the victim of the conventional phrase and the overworn epithet, pipes now and then a delightful stave. Witness in his 'Town and Country Poems' (London: David Nutt) his

> SKYLARK IN FOG.
>
> Imprisoned soul, look up. The shrill, tumultuous sound
> Whirling, aspiring
> Strangely through these dark folds wherein all eyes are bound,
> Thy hope is firing.
>
> Darkened as ours, the sight of such brave songster halts,
> With no discerning
> Of that transparent dome for whose illumined vaults
> Veiled hearts are yearning.
>
> He, poet, fool, who leaves the path of cautious birds,
> Lost in the dun light,
> Chasing a phantom thought through the vague mist of words,
> Soars for the sunlight.

Mr. George Francis Savage-Armstrong, evidently a facile craftsman, offers the public in his 'Ballads of Down' (Longmans) a stocky volume of 359 pages. The worst that can be said of him is that he often writes like a belated Southey or a Burns *manqué*. On the other hand, some of his poems show considerable power of a rather conventional sort. Landor's well-known lines,

> "We go; and 'Is he gone?'
> Is all his best friends say."

appear in an interesting peasant version in the stanzas called

> DEATH AND LIFE.
>
> "Puir Wully is deed!"—"O, is he?"—
> "Ay, cau'd in his coffin he's leein'!"—
> "Jist noo A em muckle tae busy
> Tae trouble me heed aboot deein';
> There's han's tae be got fur the reapin';
> We're gaun tae the wark in the murn;
> An' A'm thinkin' the rain 'ill come dreepin',
> The-night, an' destroyin' the curn."

Mr. Sheridan Ford is presumably an American domiciled in Paris. At any rate, he knows his French salons and studios, and he has had the rather happy idea of ticketing off contemporary artists in a series of epigrams ('The Art of Folly'; Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.). At times, he phrases very prettily and wickedly, as where he speaks Byronically of the subjects of the paintings in the official Salon as "Butchered to make a bourgeois holiday"; or describes Monticelli as "A blithe contortionist in color-rhyme"; or says of Bastien-Lepage:

> "Far-ruling Bastien won a brittle fame
> By modern methods and a kodak aim.
> . . . . . .
> Countless disciples awful failures breed,
> And a bad Bastien 's very bad indeed."

Unluckily, Mr. Ford seems to have no sure ear for the concert pitch of satirical verse:

> "Claude Monet uses with essential ease
> The basic method of the Japanese."

Possibly; but Mr. Ford should not fancy that, in telling us this, he is writing poetry. He should give his days and nights to Alexander Pope, and learn the art of tightening up every line of satire till it vibrates.

That Mr. Madison Cawein has a temperament, the most grudging critic must concede. He has, too, an eye, an ear, a vocabulary, and even an imagination, albeit a fussy one. This is a very decent poetical outfit. What seems best in his present volume, 'Weeds by the Wall' (Louisville: J. P. Morton & Co.), are his vivid impressionistic sketches of certain rather extravagant or fantastic aspects of nature. "Drouth" is one of his most successful sketches of this sort, but too long to quote. The following stanzas from "Sunset and Storm" represent him, perhaps not unfairly:

> "Deep with divine tautology,
> The sunset's mighty mystery
> Again has traced the scroll-like West
> With hieroglyphs of burning gold:
> Forever new, forever old,
> Its miracle is manifest.
>
> Time lays the scroll away. And now,
> Above the hills a giant brow
> Night lifts of cloud; and from her arm,
> Barbaric black, upon the world,
> With thunder, wind, and fire, is hurled
> Her awful argument of storm."

Mr. Cawein's pet vice is quaintness both of mood and of speech, and this quaintness, together with his trick of swooning pictur-

esquely over trifles, seems likely to insure him vogue in the magazines. He may well be on his guard against the pathetic fallacy, against overworking the word "some," and in general against maltreating the President's English. To speak of the winds as *brooming* this or that, of *rivered* blue, and of *languaging* a mystery, is little short of playing ducks and drakes with Webster.

Many of the characteristics of Mr. Moody's 'Masque of Judgment' reappear in his new volume of miscellaneous Poems (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). There is often the same luxuriant symbolism, the same richness of imagery, the same fine sense of the value of rhythm and tone-color. There is in many of the poems the same almost extravagant sensuousness, redeemed, nevertheless, by a sincere and at times even exalted delight in the things of the spirit. Nature, too, in this new volume is often as daringly unreal as in the 'Masque'—as mystically overcast with shadow or suffused with visionary loveliness:

"Hark, where the deep feels round its thousand shores
To find remembered respite, and far drawn
Through weed-strewn shelves and crannies of the coast
The myriad silence yearns to myriad speech."

. . . . . .

"Once at a simple turning of the way
I met God walking; and although the dawn
Was large behind Him, and the morning stars
Circled and sang about his face as birds
About the fieldward morning cottager,
My coward heart said faintly, 'Let us haste!
Day grows and it is far to market-town.' "

Such passages as these recall the 'Masque' very closely in idiom and movement. No less interesting, and on some accounts even more pleasant to note, are the points in which the new poems differ from the earlier volume. There is certainly great gain in directness of human sympathy and in the power to find beauty in the commonplace, or to interpret feelings that are in widest commonalty spread. Doubtless, Mr. Moody is still experimenting here; neither his sense of poetic values nor his methods are sure. He sometimes overinterprets, forces the note, grows strident, verges on a fit of the nerves—as, for example, in the "Troubling of the Waters," where, to put it brutally, he seems gunning among the poor and lowly for poetic game. The "Menagerie," too, suggestive and far-reaching as is its motive, and deliciously humorous as are some of the verses and stanzas, is unmistakably amateurish; the wabbling of the imaginary speaker's language from godlike eloquence to gutter *argot* is greater than even the fumes of his much bad whiskey can account for. In "The Brute," on the other hand, Mr. Moody goes straight, from start to finish. It is a superbly successful defence of that age of machinery which lackadaisical votaries of archaic beauty have so often inveighed against. First, the Brute—the machine incarnate—duly makes his boast of his wreckage of human life and of Nature; then "a still and pleasant voice" takes the word away from him, recites with much finely imaginative detail all the good that the Brute is even now doing in spite of himself, and prophesies that "he must work men out salvation ere they send him back to hell":

"All the desert that he made
He must treble bless with shade,
In primal wastes set precious seed of rapture and of pain;
All the strongholds that he built
For the powers of greed and guilt—
He must strew their bastions down the sea and choke their towers with silt;
He must make the temples clean for the gods to come again,
And lift the lordly cities under skies without a stain."

So the prophetic voice runs on, unriddling the future of the Brute, till finally it makes the happy forecast that

"at the last day,
They will whistle him away,
Lay a hand upon his muzzle in the face of God, and say,
'Honor, Lord, the Thing we tamed!
Let him not be scourged or blamed.' "

So the Brute

"comes to his own,
'Twixt the Lion and the Eagle, by the armpost of the Throne."

This is all extremely good, and the entire poem is admirable alike in insight and in technique; the tone and the idiom and the imaginative color are just what they should be and are perfectly maintained.

In this same class of poems that interpret themes taken direct from daily life, are the poems on the war in the Philippines. Too often such poems are mere rhymed rhetoric; Mr. Moody's are not; their rich symbolism marks them as works of creative imagination. In these and in the very remarkable poem "The Daguerreotype"—a poem too personal and sacred in its subject to endure random criticism—Mr. Moody probably reaches his highest level. One last word may be said as to the echoes in his verse; surely he should be on his guard here. "The Daguerreotype" unmistakably suggests Mr. Francis Thompson; so does "The Bracelet of Grass," which, indeed, in its first stanza reproduces with hardly a change of vibration the lyrical movement of Mr. Thompson's "Dream-Tryst." "Harmonics" in its sestette is Rossetti exact; a "Grey Day" has the imaginative mood and color of Rossetti's "Even So," and "Faded Pictures" is in Browning's dialect from first to last. It may be gladly conceded, however, that, with one exception, these are Mr. Moody's slighter poems, and that he seems to be continually growing surer and more independent, both in the play of his imagination and in the movement of his rhythms.

Probably the best known of Dr. Weir Mitchell's poems in the new volume of 'Selections' (Macmillan) is the dramatic narrative, "François Villon"; and justly so. For, in spite of the charm of his occasional verse and the beauty of some of his lyrics, Dr. Mitchell's imagination seems at its best when dealing with life in its full scope, with life wrought out in deeds, with action and incident and character and the play and counterplay of human wills. "François Villon" is remarkable for its union of qualities not easily reconciled. As a narrative it is forthright and swift; its external details are rich and picturesque; its incidents are highly dramatic, and the final situation is one of great power and pathos; and yet, in spite of all this dash and display, the characterization is close, subtle, and complete. The poem tells the supposititious details of the death of François Villon—the spokesman being the Seigneur de Luce, a debonairly reprobate French noble. De Luce had bought rhymes from the "poet-thief," Villon, and had won with them a certain fantastic fair lady, Isabeau, and had married her. She soon finds out that the rhymes were Villon's, and grows scornful of her lord. At length, on a moonlight evening, De Luce comes on a man under her window:

" And suddenly a hand of mastery swept
The zittern, and—a whining love-song leapt.
Ah! but too well knew I the song he sang;
I smiled to think it was his last. It rang
Mad chimes within my head. 'Now then,' I cried,
'A dog-life for a love-life!' Quick aside
My poet cast his zittern, drew his sword,
Tried as he stood his footing on the sward,
And laughed—he ever laughed—and laughing said,
'Before we cut two throats and one is dead,
And talk gets quite one-sided, let me speak.' "

Then follows a gay tirade, full of bravado, whim, and wit, and full also of Villon's audacious pride in his genius as a poet. First he vindicates the fair Isabeau; he has never even looked on her face, though true it is that his singing of the rose has made him "rose-hungry." Then he gives rein to his mad whim and his pride as a poet:

" 'But if you live or I, where'er she bide,
One François Villon walketh by her side.
Kiss her! Your kiss? It will be I who kiss.
Yea, every dream of love your life shall miss
I shall be dreaming ever!'

. . . . . .

"The rapier clash
Went wild a minute; then a woman's cry
Broke from the hedge behind him, and near by
Some moonlit whiteness gleamed. He turned, and I,
By heaven! 'twas none too soon, I drove my sword
Clean through the peasant dog, from point to guard,
And held her as I watched him. Better men
A many have I killed, but this man!—Then
He staggered, reeling, clutched at empty air
And at his breast, and pitching here and there
Fell, shuddered, and was dead.

"By Mary's grace,
The woman kneeling kissed the dead dog's face."

To throw all the stress, as this summary does, on the final situation, distorts the narrative badly; the subtle interblending of humor and pathos and wild fantastic idealism in Villon's character that gives much of its charm to the poem, and that all comes to the reader half contemptuously through the cynical, well-bred, swaggering speech of De Luce, almost disappears. But even this summary must in some measure demonstrate Dr. Mitchell's power of swift, suggestive, and dramatic narration and of close characterization.

Of Dr. Mitchell's lyrics, the most beautiful is doubtless the "Ode on a Lycian Tomb," which stands first among the 'Selections.' It is exquisitely tender in mood and melody, summoning up a series of images and pictures all touched with a chastened and pathetic light that is yet not sad or dim, and all defined with a sureness of plastic outline and a certainty of phrase that Dr. Mitchell by no means invariably attains in his lyrics:

" Ah me! in death asleep; how pitiful,
If in that timeless time the soul should wake,
To wander heart-blind where no years may dull
Remembrance, with a heart forbid to break.—
Dove of my home, that fled life's stranded ark,
The sea of death is shelterless and dark.

" Cold mourner set in stone so long ago,
Too much my thoughts have dwelt with thee apart.
Again my grief is young: full well I know
The pang reborn, that mocked my feeble art
With that too human wail in pain expressed,
The parent cry above the empty nest!

" 'Come back,' I cried. 'I may not come again.
Not islandless is this uncharted sea;
Here is no death, nor any creature's pain,
Nor any terror of what is to be.
'Tis but to trust one pilot; soon are seen
The sunlit peaks of thought and peace serene.' "

Of his other lyrics, the most memorable are "The Mother," "Evening," and "A Prayer." "The Mother" is a remarkably courageous vindication of sorrow and tragic suffering by one whose profession must have made him close witness of much that is most inexplicably horrible in human fate. "Evening" is a lyric of prospective leave-taking of life, possibly suggested by Tennyson's "Crossing the Bar"—simpler and less ornate than the latter, and not so sure in its workmanship, if more direct in its sincerity of phrase. Very impressive, also, through its exalted sincerity and through its severe simplicity of diction—a severity

and a simplicity that certainly have in them much of grandeur—is the poem called

A PRAYER.

Almighty God! eternal source
Of every arm we dare to wield,
Be Thine the thanks, as Thine the force,
On reeling deck or stricken field;
The thunder of the battle hour
Is but the whisper of Thy power.

Thine is our wisdom, Thine our might;
Oh, give us, more than strength and skill,
The calmness born of sense of right,
The steadfast heart, the quiet will
To keep the awful tryst with death,
To know Thee in the cannon's breath.

. . . . . .

O Lord of love! be Thine the grace
To teach, amid the wrath of war,
Sweet pity for a humbled race.
Some thought of those in lands afar
Where sad-eyed women vainly yearn
For those who never shall return.

Great Master of earth's mighty school,
Whose children are of every land,
Inform with love our alien rule,
And stay us with Thy warning hand
If, tempted by imperial greed,
We, in Thy watchful eyes, exceed;

That in the days to come, O Lord,
When we ourselves have passed away,
And all are gone who drew the sword,
The children of our breed may say,
These were our sires, who, doubly great,
Could strike, yet spare the fallen state.

The charm and the grace of Dr. Mitchell's lighter verse must remain unrepresented in this notice. But from what has been said the reader may form something like a just notion of Dr. Mitchell's versatility, and of the range and the distinction of the poetry included in his volume of Selections.

A Modern Composition and Rhetoric (Brief Course), containing the Principles of Correct English for Schools. By Lewis Worthington Smith and James E. Thomas. Boston: Sanborn & Co.

Practical Composition and Rhetoric. By William Edward Mead and Wilbur Fisk Gordy. Boston: Sibley & Ducker.

English Composition and Literature. By W. F. Webster. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Working Principles of Rhetoric, Examined in their Literary Relations, and Illustrated with Examples. By John Franklin Genung. Boston: Ginn & Co.

If the multiplication of text-books of Rhetoric is to persist, the day cannot be distant when each instructor of the art shall have his own manual; indeed, in a subject of study where the personality of the teacher is of such paramount importance, much might be said in favor of such a consummation. At any rate, so long as the conditions of rhetorical instruction, the temper of classes, and the equipment of masters remain so diverse, the greater the variety of respectable text-books the better. One may be unable to see much advance in the essentials of rhetorical theory since Quintilian; he may doubt, too, whether the average young person of to-day writes as well as a young person of fifty years ago, with the English classics for his models and Blair for his master, would have written; but, notwithstanding this, the outlook is hopeful. Every attentive student of education knows that, within the last decade, the frequentation of rhetorical courses has rapidly increased, and that within the last half-decade the practical teaching of English composition has improved in quality remarkably. There has been a good deal of pedagogic highfalutin commingled with a notable advance in enthusiasm and wise economy of means. All this can be seen in the present output of text-books.

The "brief course" in rhetoric covered in the volume by Smith and Thomas is adapted to a place in the curricula of high schools and academies. In the hands of a teacher of rather more than average cultivation, enthusiasm, and skill, it should prove effective. The intensive study of principles is carried on by it with moderation, and the arrangement for practical exercises in composition seems excellent, so far as one can judge without actually trying the scheme with a class. If we were to specify a fault it would be the choice of illustrative extracts. The English classics are but sparingly quoted. Conan Doyle and Richard Harding Davis, and the editorial writers of the *Dial* and the *Independent* are well enough in their way—it is true that in them the rhetorical principles lie near the surface easily to be seen of youth; but, despite that, and perhaps because of that, we cannot think them the best models.

This is the peculiar merit of the book by Mead and Gordy. The examples and extracts are of the best, unusually apt and pregnant, and chosen from a remarkably wide range of English and foreign classics. The development of the subject is admirably clear and logical, and the scheme for practical exercises is exhaustive. We can conceive that the book as a whole might not arouse quenchless ardor in the student, but, if taught conscientiously, it should afford a solid grounding in composition; and that is the main matter.

Webster's 'English Composition and Literature' is conceived and written on a rather novel line. In theory it is excellent, and in certain special conditions is likely to approve itself in practice. As the title suggests, it calls for a course of parallel and reciprocal studies in literature and composition. There is not much of the usual minute analysis of rhetorical combinations and permutations. The course, as the author remarks prefatorily, "has been so arranged that narration shall be taught by Hawthorne and Irving, description by Ruskin and Stevenson, exposition by Macaulay and Newman, and argument by Webster and Burke." This is truly an exceptional rhetorical faculty, and the details of the course are so carefully worked out that this prefatory promise is actually performed. Hence, for the considerable remnant of every class to which the gods have granted some touch of imagination and taste, this particular text-book should be a blessing. It should help them to attain the expressiveness of the picturesque and telling phrase, and the grace of the deftly turned, rhythmical sentence. Unluckily, however, every teacher of composition knows that for the majority of each class the only grace attainable is the grace of clarity, the tolerably clear expression of sufficiently orderly and concrete thought; and this only at the expense of infinite anxiety and pains on his part. The book, in short, is a good one, and we are prepared to believe that, with a fortunately bright and appreciative class, it might be used with astonishingly satisfactory results; but we fear that with the general run of students it would not prove so serviceable as the more formal and conventional Rhetoric.

For most college graduates of the last fifteen years, Genung has been a name to conjure with; now we have the familiar 'Practical Elements of Rhetoric' revised, enlarged, and ripened into 'The Working Principles of Rhetoric.' This is a thick volume of some seven hundred pages, containing material for the intensive study of both the generalities and the niceties of rhetoric. Space will not suffer us to present an outline of the book, or to criticise the details of the treatment. It must suffice to say that it seems admirably suited to serve as the ground for extended collegiate courses in rhetoric conducted according to the so-called laboratory method. It is at once comprehensive and minute, shirking no difficulty, and admitting no hasty hypothesis. The method and manner of the formal part strike the critical reader as unusually well considered and fructifying; but we would especially commend a timely chapter upon "The Approaches to Invention," in which such perennially important matters as "The Response to Occasion," "The Verifying Spirit," "Habits of Meditation," "Habits of Seeking Clearness, Order, and Independent Conclusions," and "Creative Reading," are discussed with insight and originality.

Baghdad during the Abbasid Caliphate, from Contemporary Arabic and Persian Sources. By G. Le Strange. With 8 Plans. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. Pp. xxxii, 382.

Among the great cities of history which were founded by the will and foresight of one man, Baghdad holds an honorable place. Among the cities of the lands of romance it stands alone. When al-Mansur nourished his mighty dream of binding to one imperial city all the peoples of Islam, east and west, north and south, and, with the city, to the fortunes of his house, he could have had little thought that it, the darling creation of his genius, would, in the process of years and through the drums and tramplings of many conquests, sink to be the obscure capital of a remote province in a kingdom, a merest section of the Muslim world, ruled by uncouth barbarians from beyond the Wall of Gog and Magog. Still less could he, a man of the crassest common sense, have dreamed that his new capital, so laboriously built of solidest brick and guarded and adorned by iron gates, the plunderings of Persia, would come to be supreme over all faery lands, the home, again, of Babylonian enchantments. Yet so its fates have run. The soldiers and statesmen of Baghdad, from the first strenuous Abbasids down through generations of degeneracy, have gone and their memories have followed them. Her grammarians and men of science, her theologians and lawyers, have passed as names written in sand. The massive round Burg of Mansur himself and the Cathedral Mosque where for more than six centuries the Faithful worshipped, have vanished and left not a trace behind. Time has not spared the palaces and gardens where Haroun Alraschid and the Barmecides revelled and drank deep. Of the City of the Caliphs only the tombs of two or three saints, saved from oblivion and the gnawings of time by the pious care of the tradition of the people, have survived. The modern Baghdad is a new city, as far from the old as modern from imperial Rome. But, for all that, its line has gone out through all the earth, and it is a name to conjure with in every written tongue. There are few children whose days have not been glorified by its golden prime, and to whom Haroun and Mesrour are not the most real figures in all the East. Ha-

roun and his city have left names which, if they do not point morals in the graceless 'Nights,' at least adorn their tales.

And the names are almost all that remains, for East or for West. In the East, the 'Nights' work no such dreamy magic as with us, yet the populace still remembers Haroun, and their proverb still asks, "Is he the fifth of the sons of al-Abbas?" But about his city no one asks, and it is only remembered when the rumor goes round that some Pasha is in disgrace and has been sent to honorable retirement as Governor of Baghdad. For Turk and Egyptian and Persian it is an uncomfortable *ultima Thule*, the very back of beyond itself.

There has been, in truth, more than ordinary pathos in the destinies of this "Mother of the World." Sieged and taken again and again by Turk and Persian, Arab and Mongol, only some two times has it withstood its assailants, and then more by craft and luck than by innate strength. It was a city of spreading gardens and houses, not of towered walls. And so its history has been full of haps, and the glories of its palmy days, of which we mostly think, were short beside its years of decline and mourning. In the East there are few now that do it reverence, and the great work of its historian and topographer, al-Khatib, still lies unprinted in our libraries. Cairo, its younger sister by more than two centuries, and, curiously enough, the foster-mother of the 'Nights,' has not forgotten her chronicler and describer, al-Maqrizi, and his great *Khitat* has been printed at Bulaq. Her children, too, have not forgotten her. The topographer has found a successor in this generation in Ali Basha Mubarak, who does for Cairo much what Sir Walter Besant has done for London, and history was carried well into the last century by al-Jabarti. But of notices of Baghdad, except for stray articles in geographical lexicons and more or less trustworthy tales of travellers, little had struggled into print and its plan was an unread mystery. Menke, in his great 'Hand-atlas für die Geschichte des Mittelalters und der neuern Zeit' (p. 43), frankly confesses that the accessible texts, and especially Yaqut, translated for him by Wüstenfeld, do not yield materials enough for a map; and even so careful an Arabist as Spitta managed, in his life of al-Ash'ari (p. 115), to bury him at once in the extreme north and extreme south of the city.

It was left then for Mr. Guy Le Strange, already known as a student of the Arabic geographers, to solve this problem. Following a suggestion of Sir Henry Rawlinson, he attacked it on the side of the canalization of the Euphrates and Tigris, undoubtedly the weightiest moment in the arrangement of the city, and in 1895 he published from the unique MS. in the British Museum the fundamental text of Ibn Serapion, who wrote about A. D. 900 on the canals of Baghdad. The essential *Vorarbeit* he has now followed up by the present volume, which puts us at last in the position of being able to understand and control the often obscure and perplexed statements of the Arabic historians. The value of the book, it may safely be said, will grow steadily with its use. Every Arabist the track of whose work crosses Baghdad will have to keep it beside him, and its margins should grow rich with his garnered annotations. It will furnish, too, such a test of the historicity of dubious statements as has hitherto been lacking to us. It may even be possible to ascertain whether there is in 'The 1,001 Nights' any such genuine Baghdad stratum with verifiable local allusions as undoubtedly exists for Cairo. For example (though the conjecture is very hazardous), is there any possible connection between the Road of the Painter in the Quarter of Karkh (p. 77) and the painter, as-Sandalani, who lived in that quarter, according to the story of Ibrahim and Jamila (*Nights*, 952-959)?

Others, too, besides the professed student of Arabic, will find this book of interest and profit. Scattered among its details of topography there occur notices of the highest value for the history of civilization as Baghdad had a part in it. Here and there, the canals and palaces and public buildings drop out of view, and we see the people at work —that vast, silent basis for all society. If Mr. Le Strange would put together a volume of translations from the Arabic geographers and travellers bearing on Baghdad, as he has done for Palestine, it would form an excellent supplement, from this point of view, to the present book, and give the non-Arabist a more living impression of Baghdad than could anything else.

Naturally, in the case of a book like the present, there could be much criticism of details, but for that this is not a fitting place. Mr. Le Strange has carried through admirably a difficult and laborious task, and has earned our gratitude and respect. It is highly improbable that the broad lines of his results will ever be altered. Nothing could be clearer than the eight maps and plans with which he has illustrated them, and his elaborate index is a model of its kind. The volume of translations of published and unpublished texts bearing on his subject is all that we can now ask of him.

The Englishman in China during the Victorian Era. By Alexander Michie. 2 vols., 8vo. London: William Blackwood & Sons.

Around the name of the late Sir Rutherford Alcock, Mr. Alexander Michie, himself unquestionably one of the keenest observers and ablest students of affairs in the Far East, has grouped the events of that "cycle of Cathay" now completed by the Boxers. As British consul under the first treaty which opened the Chinese seaports, other than Canton, to trade, and when a British consul needed, above all, power of initiative, Alcock made his mark at once. The "Model Settlement" at Shanghai and the foreign inspectorate of the imperial customs owed their beginnings to him. To executive qualities of a high order, he added a philosophic grasp of problems and a power of clear exposition. Born in the same year with Gladstone, he predeceased that statesman by only six months. His books and literary articles on Far Eastern matters, from 'The Capital of the Tycoon,' in 1862, to his 'Handbook of North Borneo,' of recent publication, helped powerfully to inform and educate English-speaking people. Inheriting a taste for art from his father, he appreciated keenly the æsthetic products of the Japanese, and was the virtual promoter and organizer of the first Japan exhibit at the London World's Fair of 1862.

As surgeon of the "British legion" in the Iberian peninsula, 1832-1837, and afterwards medical lecturer in London, his career as healer of men's bodies was closed in 1844 by an attack of rheumatic fever, a legacy from the siege of St. Sebastian, which partially paralyzed his arms and hands. While thus "on his beam ends," the appointment to China came. There, as in Japan, his methods of diplomacy were essentially military. He believed in "a solid substratum of force" always. He served twenty-seven years in the East, in both China and Japan, converting treaty stipulations on paper to practical realities, and then in England, from 1872, as President of the Royal Geographical Society and in other offices, rounded out a useful life.

Vastly more than a biography, however, are Mr. Michie's two portly volumes, rich in text and historic illustration. In terse and nervous English he reviews the mutual action of Chinese and foreigners during sixty years. Volume II. is virtually his summary of the history of Japan, Korea, and the Chinese Empire since 1859, at least in their foreign relations. Reciprocity, as he quotes from Confucius, is the word expressing his desire and attitude of mind. He is an apostle of stalwart commercialism, a Briton, to whom an American, a Russian, or a Frenchman is an anomaly, and he favors neither missionaries of religion nor "the shallow moralism of the pulpit," while his knowledge of Korea and Japan, derived almost wholly from British authors, is quite one-sided. There is a tendency also to consider "our [British] interests" as the chief end of man—as represented by his circle of readers. China is "England's milch cow." Nevertheless, if not wholly fair in judgment, he strives nobly to be so. His knowledge of the Chinese and their problems is so profound and practical, his insight into the many-sided situation in 1901 is so clear, his pictures of the living actors in the drama so arresting, that we do not hesitate to pronounce this the master-book on Chinese Asia and its international politics. Apart from its free criticism of British policy and the laying open, as by a scalpel, of the motives of the selfish eagles gathering round the expected carcase, Mr. Michie shows clearly that want of seriousness, a delay that is nothing less than felonious, and the mandarin's desire to "save the face" of everything by evading or avoiding the facts and hiding the truth, are at the bottom of China's troubles.

Voyage Archéologique au Safâ et dans le Djebel ed-Drûz. Par René Dussaud et Frédéric Macler. Avec l'itinéraire, 17 planches et 12 figures. Paris: Ernest Leroux. 1901. Pp. 228 + 17 double plates.

In spite of the labors of several scholars, our knowledge and understanding of the *graffiti* of the Safa were for long uncertain and unsatisfactory. The contents—they are nearly all of the simple form, BIL-STUMPSHISMARK—and the execution in flying scratches defied equally the copier and the decipherer. So they had to wait twenty years from their first discovery by Cyril Graham in 1857, through a necessary period of wonderful and eccentric conjectures, before Halévy found the key to their mysteries. They now show themselves as commonplace indeed, and of the most wearisome reiteration, containing little but names, and these seldom even of theophorous interest. Their value, in fact, lies almost entirely in their alphabet. In that respect they are a plain link between the

Hebrew-Phœnician-Aramaic characters and the South Arabian. Further, they show that the development ran from north to south, and not vice-versa. Especially in the added light of the Lihyanic inscriptions we see clearly how the passage of the Phœnician alphabet to that of South Arabia can be explained only by a series of changes, relics of which are stranded in Safaitic and Lihyanic. This of itself marks an important enough stage in the history of the alphabet, and it is only part of the normal irony of palæography that such a development should have depended for its record on the stray scratchings of Bedawin, half-herdsmen, half-husbandmen, who sheltered from their wilder brethren of the desert behind the friendly fringe of Roman garrisons.

The Safa where those inscriptions are found is a chaos of volcanic peaks, lava slopes, and fertile valleys some fifty miles southeast of Damascus. It was visited in the spring of 1899 by MM. Dussaud and Macler, pupils, evidently well trained, of Hartwig Derenbourg, and their results have now been published in eminently satisfactory form. These results may be shortly described as follows. We have the inscriptions themselves, which defy mostly both camera and squeeze-paper, in copies as certain as the conditions admit. Of course, there remains, and always will remain, a gleaning for him who comes after. These are equipped with a commentary, supplementing but by no means superseding that of Halévy. There is also a careful marshalling of the evidence which makes them palæographically so important, and a most probable hypothesis as to the time and circumstances of their origin. The only point on which we must take issue is the translation of the *l* which stands at the beginning of each inscription by *par*. For a Semite it can mean nothing else than *á*, "belonging to"; an Arabic grammarian would say it was *lil-milk*, "to indicate possession." "Cut by A. B." could be rendered in Semitic only by "A. B. cut this," or "This is a cutting belonging to A. B." The part of the book on the Jebel ed-Druz deals mostly with Greek inscriptions. It has not the same interest and importance as the rest.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alge, S., Hamburger, S., Rippmann, Walter, and Buell, W. H. Newson's First German Book. Newson & Co. 60 cents.
Bleloch, W. The New South Africa: Its Value and Development. Doubleday, Page & Co. $3.
Bücher, Carl. Industrial Evolution. H. Holt & Co.
Eliot, George. Personal Edition of her Works, Vols. 1 and 2. Doubleday, Page & Co.
Friedenwald, Herbert. A Calendar of Washington Manuscripts in the Library of Congress. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Górky, Máxim. Fomá Gordyéeff. Scribners. $1.
Griffin, A. P. C. A Union List of Periodicals, Transactions, and Allied Publications Currently Received in the Principal Libraries of the District of Columbia. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Harrison, Eveleen. Emergency Roll: A Few Simple Rules to be Followed in Case of Accident, While Awaiting the Arrival of a Doctor. Clarence L. Kain.
Historical Romances of William Harrison Ainsworth. 4 vols. (Victorian Edition.) Philadelphia: George Barrie & Son.
Ilott, Charles. The Book of Asparagus. (Vol. 1. Handbooks of Practical Gardening.) John Lane.
Kirk, Eleanor. The Christ of the Red Planet. The Publishers' Printing Co.
Kron, R. German Daily Life. Newson & Co. 75 cents.
Larned, J. N. History for Ready Reference. Vol. vi. Springfield (Mass.): The C. A. Nichols Co.
Markwick, W. F., and Smith, W. A. The World and its People, Book X.; The South American Republics. Silver, Burdett & Co. 60 cents.
Moss, Fletcher. Pilgrimages in Cheshire and Shropshire. Didsbury (England): Published by the Author.
Niebuhr, Carl. The Tell el-Amarna Period. London: David Nutt. 1s.
Peattie, Elia W. The Beleaguered Forest. D. Appleton & Co.
Remington Brothers' Newspaper Manual, 1901. Remington Bros. Newspaper Advertising. $5.
Rippmann, Walter, and Buell, W. H. French Daily Life. Newson & Co. 75 cents.
Slauson, A. B. A Check List of American Newspapers in the Library of Congress. Washington: Government Printing-Office.
Smith, E. A. The History of the Confederate Treasury. Harrisburg: Published by the Author.
The Holy Bible. Newly Edited by the American Revision Committee. Thomas Nelson & Sons. $1.50.
Tschudi, Clara. Elizabeth, Empress of Austria and Queen of Hungary. E. P. Dutton & Co.

Some Recent Foreign Language Books

EDGREN AND BURNET'S FRENCH AND ENGLISH DICTIONARY. With Pronunciation, Etymologies, etc. By Hjalmar Edgren, Recently Professor in University of Nebraska, and Percy B. Burnet of the Chicago High Schools. 1252 pp. 8vo, $2.50, *Retail*.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 29, 1901.

The Week.

In the Virginia Republican Convention on Wednesday week a Presidential boom was started for Mark Hanna, and the suggestion of his name by one of the speakers was followed by loud "applause." It is easy to understand how this applause was procured. At the present time nobody is booming candidates for the Presidency in 1904 spontaneously. All such movements are evidently "put-up jobs," and in the case of Hanna are undoubtedly paid for by somebody. Nobody is likely to compete with him in getting applause in Southern State Conventions in that way. He can easily secure influence in any and all States which the Republican party has no chance of carrying at the polls. Yet these States have just as many votes in the National Convention, in proportion to their population, as those which cast their electoral votes for the Republican ticket. Therefore, Mr. Hanna may turn out to be a formidable candidate for the nomination, although few persons of character and responsibility now consider him such. It is not impossible that he may come to the Convention in 1904 with all the Southern delegates "in his breeches pocket." This would imply that "the money power" was interested for Hanna, since the men who engineer the Southern delegations do not usually stir around for nothing. The men who have the good of the Republican party at heart had best keep an eye on this Southern demonstration for Hanna.

Accounts of the Pennsylvania Republican Convention which met at Harrisburg on August 21 agree that it was probably the briefest known in the whole history of the party in that State. This is quite credible, the only wonder being that the Quayites took the trouble to hold a convention at all. As it was, neither Quay nor any of his head henchmen found it necessary to attend. They forwarded the platform and the programme of nominations, and left the dupes and minor conspirators to "do the rest." They did the rest in just one hour and thirty minutes. The platform which was forwarded by the absent Quayites and adopted by the Convention was evidently drawn by a humorist. He was at his best when he conceived the notion of congratulating the Republicans of Pennsylvania "that there is no longer any division in the Republican party" of the State. The Quay henchmen at Harrisburg swallowed this without choking, as well as a later declaration that the Republicans are "amused rather than concerned" over the recent indictment of the Quay administration by the Democratic State Convention. It is interesting to note, by the way, that amusement rather than concern has taken the form among the Philadelphia machine Republicans of something very much resembling a panic. Notice has been sent to the division leaders, nearly all of whom are office-holders, that they will not be permitted to hold their places if they do not carry their divisions, and the information is said to have spread consternation among them. But let this pass; it does not affect the cheerfulness of the Pennsylvania Republican humorist. He points out that the real cause of disturbance in that Commonwealth is not Quayism, as some have supposed, but the newspapers. They make charges against the Quayites in control of the State. This is horrible. The platform hints that something ought to be done to silence the newspapers, and, if Quay is to continue his rule in Pennsylvania, we should think something of this sort would have to be done.

A telegram to the Associated Press from Cleveland, O., gives the outline of a proposed Trust to embrace all the shipbuilding plants in the United States, and to have its general offices in Cleveland. "As soon as the organization is completed," says the dispatch, "which will be before the opening of 1902, a commercial battle for the conquest of the world will begin." Rumors of the proposed combination have been in the air for a long time, and they have always been connected with the Hanna-Payne Ship-Subsidy Bill. Probably the commercial battle for the conquest of the world is to be preceded by a political battle for the conquest of the United States Treasury. A victory in the latter case would go far towards insuring victory in the former. It would be only a question of the amount of the subsidy. Whatever sums the Government contributes to the cost of running the ships will enable the ships receiving the same to "compete," and there is no reason why the commercial battle thus foreshadowed should not result in a victory, unless foreign Governments should contribute money to their own ships to the same extent. In the latter case we should enjoy a rare spectacle, something unique in the world's history, that of half a dozen civilized countries collecting taxes to enable a few men in each to carry passengers and freight on the ocean for less than cost, or perhaps free of cost. If subsidies are really for the public good, they are as good for England and Germany as for us. But if England and Germany and other countries should pay subsidies to the same extent as ourselves, our shipowners would get no advantage.

The failure of the Amalgamated Association to influence on Sunday the South Chicago workmen to a reconsideration of their refusal to strike is a severe blow to the strike managers. Coupled with the somewhat hazy announcement that the Amalgamated leaders are willing to consider terms of settlement, to be formulated by certain mediators, it indicates that the strike is likely to go to pieces in a very short time. Ever since the refusal of the South Chicago lodges to repudiate their contracts with the mill-owners, it has been seen that these lodges formed the key to the situation, and consequently every form of pressure was brought to bear upon them. Reports that they were about to yield had been freely circulated, and, though these were completely refuted by the document issued a fortnight ago by the men themselves, the gathering of strike agitators on Sunday at South Chicago showed that the hope of turning the men from their decision had not been lost. How miserably disappointed this hope must have been is clear from the telegraphic report that only eight of the steel-workers themselves were present at the meeting, and that but one recruit was gained for the Amalgamated. Whatever may be the proposals to be offered the mill-owners by the new mediators, it is not likely that they will be accepted by men whose victory is in sight, unless they amount substantially to a cession of all the issues at stake.

Another Southern sheriff—North, of St. Clair County, Ala.—has become distinguished by doing his duty to save a criminal in his hands from execution by a mob. A negro had been guilty of "the usual crime" upon a young white girl, but he had been promptly arrested, tried, convicted, and sentenced to be hanged within a month. There was consequently assurance that justice was to be done in the case by the constituted authorities, and no excuse whatever for any interference by outsiders. Yet hundreds of people gathered and attempted to take the prisoner from the sheriff. He refused to surrender his charge, and when the mob resorted to violence, the sheriff and his deputies fired upon them, wounding three men, one of them fatally, and then removed the negro to a place of safety. This is in clear response to the protest against lynch law recently made by ex-Gov. Jones in the Constitutional Convention of Alabama, and, like the action of Sheriff Kyles of Tuscaloosa, in the same State, week before last, it indicates that officials are coming to recognize their duty in this matter.

Mr. John Barrett has at last got an office, and thus saved the Administration from the reproach of being ungrateful to a man who had eaten his own words in its service with the graceful abandon of Ancient Pistol. Mr. Barrett, it will be remembered, as ex-Minister of the United States in Siam, had got into friendly relations with the Filipinos, for whose character and capacity he repeatedly expressed the highest admiration. Shortly before the clash at Manila, he came out in a solemn warning to our Government. It was pursuing a dangerous course in the Philippines. The American authorities in the archipelago did not understand the natives, and were walking straight towards a collision of which it would take a hundred years to efface the bitter memories, and so on. But the Hon. John Barrett took all this back promptly, and went stumping and magazining for McKinley with the greatest enthusiasm. His "friends" at once began mentioning him for various offices, from Minister down to Consul, but he has had to serve by standing and waiting until now. Finally, the Administration has recognized him as a brother fashioned "holler" for word-swallowing, and has appointed him Commissioner-General for Asia and Australia in behalf of the St. Louis Exposition of 1903. Thus does the office seek the man.

The troubles of that great and good man, Congressman Hull of Iowa, have not ceased with his departure from Manila. It now appears that while Mr. Hull has been showing all the world that he is no mere political "drone" by feathering his nest in "our new possessions," his rivals at home have taken the opportunity to undermine his prestige, with a view to ousting him from Congress. These disturbers of Mr. Hull's peace of mind have actually had the impudence to pretend an indignation at his industry in the Philippines. As if his ability to capture the best contracts and timber lands to be had in the islands were not conclusive evidence of his unsurpassed fitness as a law-giver, a beneficent civilizer, and an Expansionist! How good a business man Mr. Hull is may be seen from the Manila account of his company's rise to greatness. According to his partner, Dr. Vawter, it already has concessions in many places, a whole island of its own, sawmills, and lumber lands galore. Steamers and elephants are to be its next purchases. As Dr. Vawter well puts it, "You see, the combination is very strong, has good men backing it, and a good purpose." We regret extremely that the Manila *New American* found the remarks of the Treasurer of the company, which were "too frank," unprintable in view of "the present crisis in Benguet." We are sure, however, that the voters of Mr. Hull's district will approve of the "good purpose" of the company in its aim to fill Mr. Hull's pockets, and that they will return him to Congress. As a horrible example of the unblushing and conscienceless exploiter in a high position, who uses his office and the nauseating cant of Imperialism and Expansion to forward his private ends, the country needs him, and needs him badly.

By a recent decision of United States Judge Estee, all Chinamen born in Hawaii are declared to be citizens of the United States. No immediate rush of Chinese immigrants to this country can result from this decision, for there are in all only some 21,600 Chinese in Hawaii, according to the latest census, few of whom, presumably, were born in the islands. But if the Chinese colony flourishes and increases, our new stepping-stone to the riches of the East will also serve as a stepping-stone for such Orientals as wish to come here. To extend the decision to the Philippines would be an effective way of driving a coach-and-four through the Chinese Exclusion Act. Probably the courts will find a way around this new embarrassment of the Expansion policy. Before the Chinese Exclusion Act is attacked in any such indirect way, it is to be hoped that some general immigration law will have replaced that ungenerous and impolitic measure.

The July report of the Chief Sanitary Officer, Major Gorgas, shows that Havana is now a healthier city than Pittsburgh or Washington or New York. In referring to the excessive death-rate of New York for July, Major Gorgas observes that a large number of deaths was due to heat-stroke. He adds quietly, reversing the ordinary notion of the tropics, "Havana, not being subject to such excessive heat, does not suffer from this cause." It is, however, the success of our army surgeons in almost extirpating the infection of yellow fever in Cuba which has given them a world-wide reputation, and which ranks high among the beneficent sanitary triumphs of the age. The July record was the best ever known in Havana and its suburbs—only four cases, and but one death. In 1897 the deaths from yellow fever in the same month were 168. The difference seems to justify Major Gorgas in believing that all the local centres of contagion have been eliminated. Every case of fever occurring this year was introduced from without. With the new light on mosquitoes as the vehicle of the yellow-fever germ—and this distinct contribution to knowledge made by our army surgeons is attracting the attention of scientists in all countries—and with the subsequent intelligent efforts to exterminate the infected insects and destroy the larvæ and drain their breeding-places, the prospect is that Havana will soon be as free from its old scourge as Kingston is. It is a great victory for science and humanity.

The establishment of a promising public-school system is another fact which must be reckoned for righteousness unto American control in Cuba, and unto the army officers who, oddly enough, have been set to do this civilian work. Lieut. Hanna, who is acting as Commissioner of Public Schools, has just published his first annual report, and the statistics show a very remarkable and gratifying success in laying the foundation at least of a system of public schools. Practically nothing of the kind was known under Spanish rule. Neglect of public education was one of the standing grievances of the Cubans against Spain. The work was all to do when our army began the American occupancy in January, 1899. At that date, it is doubtful if there was a single public school in Cuba. At present, Lieut. Hanna reports a total of 3,567, with 3,608 teachers, and a total enrolment of 172,273 scholars. The amount appropriated for teachers' salaries is $686,000—a sum which shows that, as the Commissioner remarks, Cuban teachers are paid from 20 to 80 per cent. more than those of the same grade in the United States. We fear that this is but one of the many instances of the lavish and unwise use made of the island revenues.

After the recent important decision of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, that the searching of passengers' baggage by the customs officers is optional and not obligatory, the present absurd, vexatious, and inquisitorial methods of the examiners are left quite without excuse. According to the new interpretation of the law, search need be made only when the customs officials have reason to suspect smuggling. There is no other customs service in the civilized world where the officials are not trusted to discriminate between genuine travellers and smugglers. The examination through Europe, where tariff walls are as thick as our own, is, in the case of personal baggage, a mere form, and this it should always be. An effective service does not waste itself in collecting the last cent the law allows, nor in annoying the general run of travellers. If common sense presided at the local examinations, the force of examiners could be largely reduced, the work could still be done more quickly, and certain not unprofitable visits of customs officials to the business offices of recently landed Americans would cease. Under the new decision Secretary Gage has no reason, except that of conciliating the most extreme protectionists, for continuing the present cumbrous and expensive system.

After a week of "scare heads" from South America, the Colombian-Venezuelan imbroglio appears in its true light as nothing more than a combination of revolutionary movements, neither of which is, internationally speaking, of any great seriousness. There is every reason to believe that the Colombian Government is able to maintain the neutrality of the Isthmus without the assistance which under treaty we are bound, when necessary, to render. What is gratifying about the whole matter is the complete indifference with which the American public has let pass an opportunity for a bellicose flourish. We all know the ways of South American republics, and are glad to keep out of their family quarrels. Even a little ignorant waving of "the Doctrine" has been properly rebuked by the Administration press. Yet these same nasty-tempered republics (such is our word for them now) were, within the memory of all, our dearest allies and friends. The absence of European interference makes all the difference. It is a pity that the French and German papers which fear that we shall do something rash in South America, cannot see how good we can be when no worthy opportunity for "tail-twisting" presents itself.

That the German Agrarians have fortitude enough to bear the misfortunes of others—and to profit thereby—is shown in a recent incident. As a reprisal for the new German rates on agricultural products, the Russian Finance Minister threatened to stop the annual migration of some 150,000 Russian farm laborers to the fields of East Prussia. To this the Agrarian press simply replied that the industrial depression was so great in the western provinces of Prussia that the discharged workmen were generally returning to the fields, so that there will be no lack of farm labor this year. When it is remembered that the tariff which has been proposed will mean the shutting down of more mills and the discharging of more workmen, the almost grotesque selfishness of the Agrarians appears with startling clearness. To raise artificially the price of agricultural products, and by the same process cheapen the price of farm labor—this is the thrifty plan of the land-owners. How long the industrial classes will bear this position between the upper and nether millstones is another question. The Government may yet feel that, of all political alliances, one with the party of ignorance and selfishness is the most hazardous and costly.

The announcement that the directors of the Austro-Hungarian Bank have decided to begin the introduction of gold coin by a small issue of 20-kronen gold pieces (worth about $4.05 each) indicates the completion of a movement that has occupied the attention of Austrian financiers for about ten years. The first serious preparations for putting the currency on a specie basis were made in 1892 and were protracted until 1898. In 1898 the gold that had been acquired by the state was paid to the Austro-Hungarian Bank, and a large volume of state notes were refunded into bank currency, while an issue of subsidiary silver was also made. All that then remained was to determine the circumstances under which the coins could be pushed into actual circulation, instead of being held in the vaults. The first issues now to be made will be merely experimental, in order to accustom the population to the use of gold. Such an idea as this seems bizarre in a country like the United States. When the greenbacks were made redeemable in 1879, no such precaution was adopted, but they were freely redeemed upon demand. As soon as it appeared that the notes were really equal to par, no one longer preferred gold, and the tendency to hoarding disappeared. In Austria, however, the conditions are entirely different. How unfamiliar is the use of banks and banking methods may be understood when it is remembered that fully two-thirds of all checks drawn in Austria are payable to the drawers themselves. It has so far been almost impossible to induce the business public of Austria to abandon the custom of keeping available cash in private strong-boxes. In the present condition of Austrian exchange the public must accustom itself to the use of gold in ordinary business and to the redepositing of it in banks. Otherwise, the success of the new reform will be endangered. It is hopeful to note that the older customs are slowly being modified, and that of late there has been an increased use of credit devices. This result is largely the work of the Austrian postal savings-bank and its network of 5,000 branches.

Further progress in public sentiment favorable to the gold standard may be traced in the movement now making such headway in Switzerland for separating that country from its associates in the Latin Union. Switzerland has always been careful to limit her issues of silver as rigidly as possible, and the amount to be redeemed by her in case a separation should be effected would be well within her control. The immediate stimulus to action is found in the steady maintenance of a course of exchange highly unfavorable to Switzerland, and necessitating considerable sacrifice on the part of Swiss business men who have debts to pay in France and Belgium. The situation is aggravated by some results of the present banking organization of the country. Notes are issued by thirty-four authorized banks, which are required to keep on hand a reserve of not less than 40 per cent. of the amount of their outstanding circulation, and this reserve must be exclusively devoted to redemptions. The outcome of these regulations is a struggle to hold coin, and, in view of the probable introduction of the gold standard, to make redemptions in silver rather than in gold. Thus, when merchants seek to obtain coin by presenting notes instead of purchasing bills, they put the banks to the necessity of purchasing coin in France for the purpose of restoring their depleted reserves. While some relief may be obtained from improvements in the banking system and from favorable changes in the balance of trade, a more thoroughgoing remedy will be the introduction of the gold standard. Such a standard may easily be obtained when once Switzerland shall be separated from the Latin Union. The action of Austria, with which country Switzerland has large dealings, will further stimulate the tendency to secession.

Every day brings its fresh "settlement at last" in China, but the impression is deepening among serious men, both in this country and in Europe, that no solid and durable settlement is probable. The simple truth is that the Chinese, from their point of view, have had the best of their set-to with Western civilization. The foreign troops were not going to withdraw except on certain conditions, but, one by one, those conditions have been abandoned. Bishop Graves of Shanghai expresses in last week's *Churchman* the dissatisfaction of American missionaries on the spot with the way things have gone, and with the outlook, which he thinks cloudy. The punitive expeditions simply left famine and anarchy behind them. In the province of Chi-li there is now "such a state of misery and confusion" that one who has recently seen it, and who "does not speak carelessly," describes it as simply "hell on earth." There is no real sign, Bishop Graves believes, of an intention by the Chinese Government to reform. What it sees clearly now is that the foreigners can be bought off with an indemnity, and, once it gets them out of the country, it will be free to do again as it likes. The good Bishop thinks the troops ought to stay until they have compelled the establishment of a "good government." If they have got such a thing in their knapsacks, most of them would do well to carry it off home with them, where it certainly is in as much demand as in China. And as their stay in Chinese territory has, on the testimony of the missionaries themselves, produced a hell on earth, it would seem to the distant observer that they might as well go and let the Chinese try their hand at governing. They couldn't do worse than the foreign invaders, and, if they ruined the land, it would at least remain their own.

THE LYNCHING HORROR.

The occurrences at Pierce City, Mo., during the first three days of last week, merit the attention of the whole country. On Sunday afternoon a young white woman, who had attended church in the town and started alone for her home in the country, was found by her brother, who had lingered behind, lying dead, with her throat cut, near a railroad culvert, with evidence that she had had a terrible struggle with some person who had assailed her. A copper-colored negro had been sitting on the bridge a short time before the tragedy occurred. Great excitement prevailed, and a mob was soon organized which decided that a negro named Godley was the guilty man, and on Monday night he was put to death.

Thus far there had been nothing to distinguish this lynching from the frequent cases where a mob of white men takes vengeance on a black man for "the usual crime." But as time passed, the excitement which had raged in the town spread throughout the surrounding country, and by Tuesday morning crowds of men had poured into Pierce City, which is near the junction of four railroads, by trains from all directions. The grandfather of Godley had been put to death at about the same time with him. On Tuesday morning the mob cremated Peter Hampton, an aged negro, in his home, set the torch to the houses of five blacks, and, with the aid of State militia rifles stolen from the local company's arsenal, drove thirty negro families from their homes, many of them hiding in the surrounding woods. The excitement died down about noon, and the mob dispersed, "more from lack of negroes upon whom to wreak their hatred than from any other cause." By the time that something like order had been restored, the conclusion was general that the negro who had been lynched was not the guilty man; another against whom suspicion was aroused came so near being lynched as to incriminate a third, in order to save his own life; two others who were also suspected were caught in places some distance away.

The significance of all this appears only when one inquires where Pierce City is, and what sort of people inhabit the region. It is in the southwestern corner of Lawrence County, which is in the southwestern corner of Missouri, and is separated by only one county from Arkansas on the south and Kansas and Indian Territory on the west. The section is inhabited almost exclusively by whites, Lawrence County in 1890 having only 364 blacks out of a population of 26,225; the adjoining county of Newton, 681 out of 22,098; Jasper, 913 out of 50,484; Barry, 97 out of 22,943; and McDonald but 3 out of 11,273. The voters of this section are divided almost evenly between the two parties; Lawrence having gone for McKinley last year by 239 plurality, and Barry, McDonald, and Newton for Bryan by pluralities ranging from 204 to 331, while Jasper, the most populous, gave McKinley 8,751 votes and Bryan 9,660. Pierce City has churches, schools, and all the other characteristics of a progressive town in a civilized country.

These facts clearly show that the latest outbreak of lynch law on a great scale is without any of those excuses which are sometimes plausibly made in behalf of white people living in the "black belt" of the South. The colored population of the town, as of all that section of the State, is but a trifling percentage of the whole number of people. It is impossible that the whites should live in the dread of the blacks which undoubtedly exists in regions where the blacks outnumber them ten or twelve times. The administration of justice is, of course, absolutely controlled by the whites, and there cannot be the slightest difficulty from race causes about the proper punishment by the courts of any colored offender. If the people had waited until the real criminal of Sunday week had been caught and his guilt had been shown, there could have been no question about his conviction. The only reason alleged for the action of the mob in its wholesale operations was that "the citizens of Pierce City say that, as negroes have committed several crimes in the last ten years, none shall live there in the future; the same feeling already existing at Monett, four miles east of Pierce City, and the end of the 'Frisco passenger division."

The Pierce City occurrences show that there is developing a spirit of cruelty, a craze for vengeance, which is most alarming. Every day brings some fresh report which illustrates the same tendency. In Grayson County, Texas, a white woman was murdered on Saturday week. A negro was suspected of the crime—whether justly or not, does not appear; he was captured by a mob of 300 whites, and was burned on the following Tuesday night. The dispatch which tells the story contains a passage that shows how the passion for torture, which we used to consider characteristic of the savage, is now exhibited by the superior race without any sense of shame:

> "The negro was taken to a tree, and swung in the air. Wood and fodder were piled beneath his body and a hot fire was made. *Then it was suggested that the man ought not to die too quickly, and he was let down to the ground, while a party went to Dexter, about two miles distant, to procure coal oil.* This was thrown on the flames and the work completed."

On Sunday last the scene shifted to Winchester, Tenn., where a negro murderer was burnt with coal oil in the presence of no fewer than 6,000 persons. There were some in this mob who did have the courage to protest, among them the local District Attorney, but the crowd would not listen to his appeals or to those of other men of standing in the community. For this example of moral courage in opposing the will of the mob we must at least be thankful. But what is to become of a community of whites which puts blacks to death on mere suspicion, and drives whole families from their homes because many crimes have been committed by persons belonging to their race during the past ten years? What have we left of civilization when hundreds of men, having in their power an alleged criminal, will not even put him to death promptly, but deliberately prolong the most ingenious tortures? We commend to all Southerners the magnificent utterance of a Mississippi clergyman, the Rev. Quincy Ewing, to be found in Sunday's *Sun*.

> "While we are waiting," he concludes, "for a Legislature to be elected decent enough to pass some law in restraint of lynching, there is one very practical thing that the respectable people of this county, and of every other county in the State, can do to keep this blot upon our civilization from getting any bigger or blacker than it is. Law and order leagues should be formed in every county of men willing, if need be, to give up their lives in defence of the fair name of their State, sworn to stand together and see to it, as far as lies within their power, that in their several counties there shall be no hangings of their fellow-men, black, or white, or yellow, or brown, who have not been duly indicted, duly tried before judge and jury, with counsel to defend them, duly convicted, and sentenced to death."

"ATTACKING" THE SUPREME COURT.

Congressman Littlefield's trenchant review of the insular cases, read before the American Bar Association at Denver on Thursday, was denounced by one excitable lawyer present as "an attack upon the Supreme Court of the United States." The incident is reported to have made a "sensation," though Mr. Littlefield was warmly applauded, and confessedly carried a large majority of the Association with him. All that he did was to apply a logical scalpel to the confused and conflicting opinions of the Court; to point out its hesitancies and limping argument; and to conclude from his whole examination that "the incongruity of the results and the variety of inconsistent views expressed by the different members of the Court are without a parallel in our judicial history."

Is that to attack the Supreme Court? Did Congressman Littlefield really come short of that regard for the decisions of our highest judicial tribunal which is incumbent upon him as a lawyer and a citizen? We do not think it can be maintained for an instant. There is just one thing which we owe the Supreme Court as such—that is, immediate and cheerful acceptance of its judgments. They declare the law, for the time being, and we must obey the law. But this is a very different thing from asserting that the Court is a

sacrosanct and infallible body, about which no good American will speak except with bated breath. We are not bound, either in law or in morals, to have more respect for the personnel of the Supreme Court than it is entitled to by its real weight of character and strength of mind; and about its reasoning we are at perfect liberty to reason. To deny this is to fall into a confusion of thought. The whole duty of an American citizen in the premises was laid down by the learned "Mr. Dooley" in *his* comments on the insular cases. He put into the mouth of Justice Brown the words, "Mind now, what I say goes." That is all there is in it. The judgment of the Supreme Court "goes" in law and government; but to pretend that it is beyond scrutiny, above debate, and as fixed and irreviewable as a law of the Medes and Persians which altereth not, is to affirm a doctrine of political slavery and of legal imbecility.

Why should we be more tender of the Court than the Court is of itself? The judges are under no illusion about each other. When the new Law Courts were opened in London, the judges drew up an address to the Queen, in which they had a phrase about being "conscious of our own weakness." Witty Lord Bowen proposed to amend, so as to make it read, "conscious as we are of each other's weaknesses." This kind of consciousness was, at any rate, what the judges at Washington had. Justice White bluntly told Justice Brown that his law was bad and his reasoning unintelligible. Chief-Justice Fuller tried his caustic pen upon Justice Brown as well as upon Attorney-General Griggs. As for Justice Harland, he came out in a solemn and almost tearful protest against the position of the majority. Was this contempt of Court? If so, it was contempt of Court by the Court. If the decisions of the Supreme Court are sacredly to be removed from all criticisms, let Messieurs the Judges begin.

It is late in the day to tell Americans that they must not let their minds play freely upon the politico-legal decisions of the Supreme Court. How can the Court be made to reverse itself, as it so often has done, except by discussion and reargument? It reversed itself in the legal-tender cases, and so it did in the income-tax cases. Will any man assert that the judges yielded, in those instances, to aught but what they thought the force of reason? But how are you to find out the force of reason except by freely reasoning? If it was lawful and proper to discuss the income-tax cases, and bring them to a rehearing and reversal, so is it to do likewise with the insular cases. In this there is no attack upon the Supreme Court; it is only common sense and American practice that are attacked by those who deny our right to speak of the Supreme Court in anything but whispered humbleness.

Congressman Littlefield is not a man afraid to stand alone, but he has plenty of good company both in his views and in his fearlessness in uttering them. Judge Simeon E. Baldwin of the Supreme Court of Connecticut, who is also lecturer on law in Yale University, has, in the last number of the *Yale Review*, an article on the insular cases, which is, according to this new-fangled doctrine, a flagrant "attack" upon the Supreme Court. He calls its disposal of the cases before it "lame and halting," and agrees with Mr. Littlefield in holding that, while there was a "judgment" of the Court, there was no "opinion," since "no one concurred in the opinion" which Justice Brown gave when announcing the judgment of the Court. Judge Baldwin flatly declares that, anyhow, the judgment "could not be rendered without either overruling or explaining away one of the leading cases decided by the Supreme Court in the time of Chief Justice Marshall." And this Judge of the Supreme Court of Connecticut, referring to the supposed "fundamental rights" of American citizenship, says that now they "are such, and such only, as the few men who chance to occupy the bench of the court of last resort may see fit to recognize. There is no appeal from their decision, and that decision rests on no written law. It seems probable that the liberties of the millions of new inhabitants now brought under the power of the United States will not be left to a protection so indefinite and insecure."

No one can hold a higher view than we do of the place of the Supreme Court in the American political system; nor can any one be prompter than we in submitting, and counselling unhesitating submission, to its interpretations of the law of the land. But no American is required to abdicate his reason before this or any other agency of government. Freely to think and freely to utter our thoughts not only is of the essence of liberty, but is the only way by which the Supreme Court itself can be made, in the long run, the bulwark of liberty. A prime requisite in a judge, according to Bacon's notion, is to be "advised"; and there is no better way of making an American judge advised than by permitting, nay, by welcoming, the freest and fullest discussion, by competent and impartial men, of any decision that is given from any bench.

MORALS, AT HOME AND ABROAD.

An interesting discussion as to the public morals of Frenchmen and Americans has recently been started, which has a timely relation to one aspect of the Pan-American Exposition at Buffalo. Jules Cambon, the French Ambassador to the United States, made a trip home, not long ago, and he was so much impressed by what he saw in the Paris streets, during the summer season, that he felt constrained to make an earnest protest against what seemed to him bad tendencies. He complained of the marked increase in the absinthe habit, and of the growing quantity of indecent pictures and cartoons to be seen in the public thoroughfares. Such a deliverance from a Frenchman of M. Cambon's standing could not fail to command attention. Parisians could laugh off any "strait-laced Puritan" from England or America, who should profess to be shocked by the sights in their streets, but the Ambassador of France to the United States is a man of the world, who could not bring such an indictment against his countrymen unless there were evils, and very real ones. Another prominent Frenchman promptly confirmed the justice of M. Cambon's censure. Senator Bérenger, who is at the head of the Society for the Prevention of License in the Streets, admitted that the police have of late put hardly any restrictions upon the exposure, in the central parts of Paris, of engravings and cards which offend decency.

What gives this matter international importance is the statement by Senator Bérenger that the evil in question is always at its worst during the summer months, and that its unusual prevalence at this season is because it "springs up especially to meet the average foreigner's conception of the gay capital." This French legislator says that thousands of foreigners go to Paris every year for a short vacation, "naïvely intent on having a good time, and declaring their intention so loudly that the city takes on a particular hue for their benefit." This view has been emphatically sustained by the pastor of a French Protestant church in Paris, who asserts that Anglo-Saxon visitors are the foreigners most to blame in this matter, and Americans the worst offenders of all. He says that the keepers of kiosks where quantities of "lurid photographs" are sold tell him that Americans are their best customers, purchasing handfuls of vicious papers and cards, which they distribute widely in their own country.

Striking testimony to the truth of all this has just been furnished by a member of the United States Congress. Representative Gillett of the Springfield (Mass.) district, a man of high standing and proved independence, has been travelling for some weeks, with Speaker Henderson of Iowa, in England and on the Continent. In a recent letter to the Springfield *Republican*, written some time before the Cambon-Bérenger discussion, Mr. Gillett virtually confessed the truth of what the French Senator and the pastor of the French Protestant church say about the attitude of Americans in Paris. He remarked that the shops, the hotels, and, above all, the class of amusements which we call "Frenchy," and which Americans flock

to Paris to see, seemed to him "artificial and made to order to meet the taste of American visitors." He frankly allowed that "it's no credit to us what they think our taste is," and bluntly declared that he had been "thoroughly disgusted to see not only American men, but ladies, too, trying to be amused by sights which they would think both stupid and low at home." He added that it seemed to him as though "quite a proportion of the Parisians were engaged in exhibiting as their natural life and recreations a pretence of high spirits and risky abandon which was all affected, a constant bore to the participants, and only interesting and endurable to strangers as long as they are deceived into believing it is the custom of the country."

There is thus virtual agreement on the part of the French legislator, the American Congressman, and the French clergyman that foreign visitors, and particularly American tourists, are giving Paris a worse reputation than it deserves—in fact, making the city by their presence worse in the summer months than it is during the rest of the year. The clergyman quoted clears the resident American colony of blame, pronouncing it exemplary, but he thinks it "impossible to deny that visiting Yankees do Paris far more harm than Paris does them." Senator Bérenger holds the outsiders to equal responsibility. "If Paris is to grow better in this respect," he says, "surely the foreign visitors must coöperate."

It is difficult to answer such an indictment. The most effective way of meeting any evil is to bring a healthy public sentiment to bear upon those responsible for it. But in this case the offenders are a host of people, representing all parts of the country, not one of whom can be held individually to account by the press. There is one thing, however, which American newspapers can do, and that is to insist that any great fair in this country shall be free from all ground for criticism in such matters. If we organize expositions which we consider worthy of patronage by foreigners, and then allow in them practices which make a visiting Frenchman think that Americans have low tastes, we have no right to complain if the Parisians conclude that our people want to gratify such tastes when they go abroad. The Midway has become a recognized feature of the modern exposition, and it has its proper province. People get tired of inspecting exhibits, and they want recreation. It is quite right that a portion of the grounds should be set apart for amusing shows of various sorts. There is only one essential condition—that everything must be decent. It is an outrage for the nation or for a city to lend its support to any great enterprise, like the World's Fair at Chicago in 1893 or the Pan-American Exposition at Buffalo this year, and then permit the presentation of spectacles which offend good taste and even public decency.

The Chicago Exposition sinned in this respect, and the managers of the Buffalo Fair have imitated the bad example. Creditable as is the scheme of this great show, and magnificent as is the electrical display every evening, there are some features of the Midway which should never have been permitted—bull-fights, for example, even if they be "fakes"; Oriental dances, which are advertised as offensive; slot picture-machines which show by their placards that they should be suppressed. It has been the one blot upon an exposition which otherwise reflected the greatest credit upon those who conceived it, that a few concessionaires on the Midway should have been allowed to offend decent people until criticism forced the authorities last week to stop what they should never have permitted. If we cannot regulate American travellers in Paris, we can at least keep our own great expositions clean throughout for the inspection of foreigners. The promoters of the fairs which are to be held in the early future at Charleston and St. Louis should take this lesson to heart at the start.

THE POLICE "SYSTEM."

Every fair-minded man must suspend judgment in the case of the three policemen arrested on Tuesday week. The evidence against them, so far as it has been made public, certainly comes short of being legally conclusive, however overwhelming it may be morally. We presume that the District Attorney has in reserve corroborative testimony that will be produced on the trial—if the Tammany lawyers are not able indefinitely to stave off the trial of these men, as well as that of Capt. Diamond. But no court proceedings are necessary, no further examinations of witnesses, in order to make perfectly clear the "system" under which the police are made a Tammany instrument of blackmail and tribute-gathering. The whole thing was uncovered to the light of day by the testimony which Capt. Flood reluctantly gave as to the nature of the activities of Wardman Glennon.

Who is this man? He is known to the force as one of Devery's "pets," one of his "right-hand men." His court record is no secret. He was indicted six or seven years ago, but disappeared before trial, and his bail-bond was forfeited. Thus it was a man, as the Assistant District Attorney put it to Capt. Flood, "previously accused of felony by a court of competent jurisdiction," who was given special privileges on the police force of this city! And what were the duties of this extraordinary "plain-clothes man" of the Tenderloin precinct? Apparently only those of a chartered and roving representative of Devery's, to do whatever he liked. No orders were ever given him by his nominal chief. He never made any written reports. It was evidently his function to go about seeking whom he might devour, and, in the intervals of hob-nobbing with Devery, live a life of elegant leisure.

Probably Capt. Flood is not to be held directly accountable for such a scandal in his command. The thing seems to have been taken out of his hands. He found Glennon in the precinct when he went there, and "made no change in his way of working." The inference is obvious that Glennon was there in the service and at the orders of a higher power. Capt. Flood chose his other wardmen, gave them orders regularly, and received written reports from them. Glennon was the exception. He was free to go or come, and no questions asked. How he employed his time the sworn testimony of Whitney indicates only too plainly. He was apparently kept in the precinct as the gamblers' ally, the paid protector of vice, and the general representative of Tammany, to stand in, for a money consideration, with the criminal and vicious classes.

This, then, is the Tammany police system seen in actual operation. What goes on in Capt. Flood's precinct doubtless g es on in all others where there are pickings fat enough to make it worth while. The powers "higher up" have their chosen and trusty agents all over the city, for the purpose of using the police, not to repress and punish crime, but to levy the price of peace upon it, and to extort bribes and hush-money from the degraded beings who prey upon society. Thus we have Tammany inverting the whole civic order. Those who should protect the city are its scourge, and the violators of the law have only to strike hands with its sworn upholders in order to secure immunity.

In Mazzini's time there was a class in the south of Italy known as the "watched-over" (*attendibili*). They were not ascertained to be positively criminal, but they were violently suspect. That is the state to which Tammany collusion and corruption have now reduced the police force of this great city. Employed to watch over us, we have to watch over them. Even the honest men on the force—and we still believe, with Mr. Riis, that they outnumber the scoundrels—have to suffer from the universal ill-repute into which our police administration has fallen. The Tammany smirch is upon good and bad alike; it touches nothing to which it does not impart something of its own foulness. Corruption descends from "higher up" to the ordinary patrolman. No one can doubt for a moment that an honest and efficient Commissioner, something other than the elderly and timorous figure-head we now have, with the aid of a

Deputy who would spend his time in doing something besides railing at reformers and defying decent opinion, could make of the police force a very different body, even without extensive changes in its personnel.

Tammany, however, has no desire for an effective and incorruptible police. That is the last thing it wants. "Thou hatest to be reformed," said the Psalmist (Prayer-book version), as if with his eye on the police authorities of this city, who, after all that has been revealed, brazenly declare at headquarters that nothing really will be done; that none of their men can be convicted; that if the jury does find any of the accused officers guilty, clever lawyers and complaisant judges will keep them out of prison. So they settle back in their chairs and ask the old impudent question, "Well, what are you going to do about it?" The answer is very simple. We are going to keep right on exposing Tammany complicity with crime. We are going to send the guilty men to jail if we can, but, in any case, we are going to hold them and their more guilty superiors up to the indignant gaze of the citizens of New York. And then we are going to call upon the self-respect, the honesty, the self-interest, the decency, the sense of pride, and the sense of shame of this great metropolis, to vote out of office the disreputable crew that is so huge a danger and so burning a disgrace. If we do not succeed in doing this in November, we shall have to do it at the next opportunity, unless we wish to see New York become as Sodom and Gomorrah. But we mean to do it in November.

OUR BALANCE OF TRADE.

The American balance of trade is becoming more and more the object of attention among the financiers and publicists of the Old World. Professor Suess of Vienna has turned his thoughts upon this subject, and his views are deemed of sufficient importance to be cabled to the Associated Press. Professor Suess made a serious error, a few years since, in predicting, upon geological grounds, a decline in the world's production of gold, and his opinion was welcomed, five or six years ago, as a great help to the silver party in both Europe and America. Almost immediately after this opinion was expressed, the gold production of three continents began to increase in the remarkable manner that we all know of. Notwithstanding this miscalculation in geology, Professor Suess holds his high standing as an economist and publicist, and his views on the American trade balance will attract attention on both sides of the water. He says that our balance has reached an unparalleled figure, and that it is a serious question whether the present political units of Central Europe are strong enough to make head against it, taking into account the difference in physical conditions. By balance of trade is meant the surplus of exports over imports of goods, which leaves a balance to be settled by the importation of gold or of American securities held abroad, or of foreign securities taken as investments by our own people.

Views similar to those of Professor Suess, but expressed at greater length, are those of Professor Baron von Waltershausen of the University of Strassburg, in the *Manufacturer* of Philadelphia, published August 15. This is the most careful and lucid exposition of the American trade balance and its probable consequences that we have seen from any European source. The United States, he says, now holds the leading place as an exporting country. As compared with the German Empire, she has gained 80 per cent. in exports in five years, while Germany has gained only 50 per cent. This gain, he predicts, will continue to increase; and he holds, contrary to the opinion of most writers, that there will be no decline in our exports of cereals and cotton, but that these will increase also. As regards manufactures, the superiority of the United States, so far as it is due to cheapness of raw materials, is incontestable, and will make itself felt more and more as the Americans learn to economize the materials. At the present time there is too much waste of raw materials, but, on the other hand, there is less waste of labor than in Europe. The inventive faculty, which seeks to replace man power by machine power, is ceaselessly, preternaturally active in the United States. Experiments are going on all the time, and although some adventurers lose their money in this way, and are crushed in the crowd, nobody is intimidated. There is a steady and marvellous advance all the time.

Trusts and combinations, the Professor thinks, have added to the power of the nation to compete in foreign markets. They do this by selling for lower prices abroad than at home. How can this kind of competition be met by Europe? Professor Waltershausen suggests that Germany, Austria, France, and Russia put a differential duty on articles of American production in proportion to the lower price at which they are sold for export compared with the prices at home. This would be in effect the same as our differential duty against bounty-fed sugar. The American bounty in the case of steel products, for example, is paid in the shape of a protective tariff, but it is a bounty just the same. This is a rather "'cute" discovery on the part of the learned Professor, but we fancy that we have not heard the last of it. As for the Trust generally, the Professor calls it "a sphinx which propounds severe enigmas to politicians and economists, and which, peradventure, may hurl the much-praised democracy into the abyss." Undoubtedly, all governments have their future abysses. That of Germany at present seems to be Socialism. Ours may be the Trust, or the vague thing called the "money power."

Professor Waltershausen recognizes the fact that protection cannot protect an exporting country. "If the European industrial countries," he says, "could retain undisturbed possession of the outside markets, they could make up for the loss of the United States market by increasing their sales to the world markets; but in all quarters of the globe the sales of American manufactures make strong progress." This tendency, being uncontrollable, must have the result of changing the forms of industry. Europe must make more and more of those articles of luxury, such as art works, fine wines, delicacies, and high-grade dress goods and ornaments, which a country growing rapidly in wealth will be willing to receive in exchange for the goods they export. But eventually the Americans will make these finer articles for themselves also, as they are already doing to some extent. Professor Waltershausen's horoscope for the future of German industry is gloomy. Germany, he thinks, will begin to run in debt for American goods, and then she will begin to decline. The results of such indebtedness "will show themselves in (1) less ability to stand taxation; (2) growth of unproductive indebtedness; (3) possibly the necessity of resorting to a paper currency; (4) the emigration of manufacturers and skilled operatives; (5) the transplanting of our factories to foreign countries; (6) want of employment for labor; (7) stagnation of social reform; (8) finally, weakness of the national military strength." Yet he has no better remedy to suggest than that all European countries should beware of treaties of reciprocity with the United States. A European Zollverein against us he considers impracticable; but European countries may help themselves to some extent, he thinks, by giving the cold shoulder to American trade and the warm one to each other.

CRISPI.

ROMOLA, August 13, 1901.

The last, not the least, of the makers of Italy has left us; and if we cannot but rejoice that the prolonged agony, the lingering days of torture, are ended, none the less does an aching void remain in the place occupied till yesterday by the strong, steadfast, vivacious figure of Don Ciccio, our faithful friend throughout nearly half a century. Death does not cast for us a sentimental glamour around the man or the statesman; we feel no desire to palliate his faults or to deny his errors now that he is dead, any more than we did when his stanch, enthusiastic, thoroughly honest champion, W. J. Stillman, who preceded him on his last journey by so few months, challenged our right to judge this

"greatest of all Italians in modern times." Yet, even in the days when Italy brought forth giants—Mazzini, Garibaldi, Cattaneo, Cavour—Francesco Crispi appeared a notable figure; undistinguished on battle-fields, where the Medicis, Bixios, Sacchis, Sirtoris, Nicoteras, and Pisacanes carried all before them, but holding an eminent place in the councils of the conspirators; ever ready to go and to do, to be the light-bearer and the path-preparer, without the slightest appearance of self-assertion, of vanity or of ambition. Only when, one by one, his chiefs had passed away, and, after Garibaldi's death, the eighties and early nineties swept away all his compeers, did he appear, to himself and his worshippers, a colossus among the pigmies of later degenerate days.

Silent the old King's "Commando io"; silent, too, the voice of Garibaldi, never raised to order, because his eye enforced obedience; dead, too, Bertani, "his Majesty," as Crispi himself dubbed him, who kept his "subjects" well in hand; dead, too, Alberto Mario, who, in the columns of the *Lega*, "admonished" pretenders, laughed down the aspirants to dictatorship. Dead also Nicola Fabrizi, the Puritan saint, the next to Mazzini among the Apostles of Unity, a sort of second father to Crispi, who rarely chafed under his reproof, and generally accepted his advice, knowing how Nicola loved him, and remembering that, foremost among Continental Italians, he had been the earliest and most enthusiastic lover of and believer in Sicily and the Sicilians. Then, between his descent from power (1891) and return to power (1894), died Nicotera, the "Young Italy" conspirator at the age of fourteen, wounded at Rome in 1849, left for dead on the bloody field of Sapri; the saviour of all his surviving accomplices; immured in a dungeon well in Favignana till 1860; soldier, officer, and general in 1866-7; again conspirator with Mazzini in 1869-70; the first member of the party of action called to the helm by Victor Emanuel in 1876. This, Mazzini's *leoncino*, kept his past friend, present rival, in check, gave a Roland for his Oliver to the very last—gave him, also, frank and friendly council as his last New Year's greeting in 1894. He, too, died in July of that year; and Crispi remained alone, and friendless save for one whose warnings he heeded not, surrounded by satellites and sycophants, and genuinely admired and applauded by poets and grateful patriots who had "not known the Josephs."

Had Crispi died at the close of his second ministry, 1886-91, he would have passed to posterity as an ideal Italian conspirator militant; unitarian stanch and true; one of the Thousand, vice-dictator of the Southern campaign; reforming statesman, who, in his five bright years of power, moulded into laws the aspirations, redeemed the pledges, and fulfilled the promises of the party of action before it came to power. But inherent tendencies and conducive circumstances had rendered his constitution peculiarly susceptible to the then incipient, now universal, malady of what is euphemistically called imperialism—in Italian, *megalomania*. It invaded his system, took possession of his brain; but fate, kinder to the Latin than to the Anglo-Celtic races in the Old World and the New, restricted this malady to the man and his immediate circle; the chief scapegoat, Oreste Baratieri, heroically silent, passed away only one week since—died and gave no sign. But the people of Italy—unlike their English brethren, who, untaxed, uncompelled to military service, possessing the vote and the power to coerce their one-time masters, hailed the "imperial" filibusters and have kept, and still keep, them in power—the people of Italy, taxed to starvation point, with every other son a conscript, still suffering grievously from yet unsuppressed oppressors, protested as one man against the squandering of billions and the wasting of thousands of strong young lives for the transformation of the first son of the king-elect into an emperor of the dark regions, with Crispi as his *alter ego*. And the protest, in its unmistakable fierceness—its ferocious intensity—prevailed. The dream of empire faded, and the dreamer fell—never again to rise, maker or marrer of his country's fate.

Crispi's biographer is, we trust, yet unborn. The dying and incoming generation have not, and cannot acquire, all the materials necessary for the task; royal, private, and well-guarded state archives still preserve jealously many a secret indispensable to history, while loves and hates permeate the atmosphere too densely for the bare shadow of impartiality to prevail. Writing in this secluded nest among the pine woods skirting the valleys of the Elsa and the Pesa, with no telegraph and with a post (when it arrives) brought over the hills by diligence, we have not now, just six-and-thirty hours since he breathed his last, a single paper save the one announcing the bare fact of Crispi's decease. But during the last three weeks he has been "with us always"; nay, so painful grew the suspense that a fortnight since we took carriage up to Montespertoli hoping to get at the truth from Sonnino, Crispi's most faithful henchman, and there lord of the soil. He was absent, but we telegraphed and received answer from Donna Lina that left no hope of recovery; and, being occupied on some reminiscences which may never see the light, certain letters and documents set aside for the task took us back to the old days when attempts and disasters united us in a common hope.

Though Crispi's Italian career commenced in 1858-9, precisely when we first made his acquaintance in London, whither he came from Paris—an undesirable residence for Italians after Orsini's attempt—he had a fair continuous record as Sicilian representative and conspirator throughout fifteen previous years. His foes among the pigmy crew who accuse him of deserting the republican party may do well to remember that he was among the first and most enthusiastic supporters of the Prince of Genoa, Victor Emanuel's second son, as candidate for the Sicilian crown in 1848, and among Sicilian Deputies he was almost the only one to proclaim the necessity of Italian unity. An unpublished letter of the poet-patriot Dall' Ongaro in 1850 gives insight into the aims and hopes of the dispersed exiles after the fall of Rome and Venice, the restorations in Sicily and Tuscany, the return of the Austrians to Lombardy in 1849. It is addressed to Francesco Crispi-Genova (like many Sicilians, Crispi added his mother's to his father's name), in Turin:

"Fratello, here is a letter from Ricciardi, from De Boni, a few lines from Mazzini and from Carlo Cattaneo, which sum up their political views; so you can now spread all your sails. The fact that all these men agree on the essential point, must convince you and all who are of good faith that there is but one path that can lead Italy to salvation. Ricciardi, who for so many years has been the apostle of national unity, writes to the Sicilians and to all other Italians to detach from the sacred tricolor all signs of dissension [*i. e.*, all municipal emblems, and of course the white cross of Savoy]; Cattaneo repeats Tasso's cry, 'Italy and Rome!' Of Mazzini and De Boni I add nothing; our programme is known to all and we have written it in blood. With liberty we shall gain independence; for the war of princes we shall substitute that of the people fortified by experience and by past disasters. After Piedmont's two armistices, after the heroic deeds of Rome and Venice, to trust again in kings, not to seek in republican faith the true saviour of Italy, would be either madness or treachery. Let us unite, then, in this noble apostolate, and prepare ourselves for events which may surprise us from one day to another, and summon us to fight the supreme battle.

"During the conflict, a strong power, a dictator must decree the concordant forces of all the insurgent provinces. Once the sacred soil of Italy freed from the foreigner, the victorious people will send their representatives to the capital, and there will be decided the form of government which free Italy will choose for herself. The minority must bow its head to the sovereign national will. This is our programme; it imposes neither a king nor a republic, but accepts the fiat of all men of good faith. Who refuses it, denies universal suffrage and the sovereignty of the people. Health and fraternity.—Your brother, Dall' Ongaro."

We do not find Crispi's answer, but, from several of his letters sequestrated by the police and still extant in the archives of Palermo, we see that he kept up correspondence with the patriots, encouraging them to persevere, but to abstain from all revolutionary attempts,

"because while, before 1848, the despots had no idea of the latent resolve of the oppressed to throw off the yoke, they are now on the lookout, are prepared and all-powerful; any failure would be ruinous. Arm yourselves with patience; prepare and send me a list of the numbers and strongholds of the enemy, also of the numbers, capacity, and intentions of our associates. When the peoples of Europe reawaken, Sicily must appear in the vanguard."

During 1850, '51, '52, Crispi coöperated with Mazzini in preparing for future action. Expelled from Turin after the failure of the 6th of February in Milan, he took refuge in Malta, edited papers, and conspired till he was expelled from the island, and, after a daring transit through Sicily, spent four years in London and Paris; in 1858, edited, with Alberto Mario, the Mazzinian paper *Pensiero ed Azione*. In 1859 he signed the declaration of the party of action refusing to participate in the Franco-Sardinian war, taking a pledge to work and fight for United Italy with, without, or against the King of Piedmont, and then and there, at great risk and fearful odds, went through Sicily alone in disguise, transporting arms, teaching the conspirators to manufacture bombs, then escaped by the skin of his teeth, promising to return and head the insurrection fixed for the 4th of October. He went to central Italy, which, with Tuscany, had proclaimed Victor Emanuel, and found Nicola Fabrizi and other magnates full of hopes for the southern provinces. Here is a letter of his to Mazzini, given to me by the latter when he returned to Switzerland. In cipher for the most part, it is dated Turin, December 29:

"Dearest Brother Mine: I have thine of

the 29th of November. I wrote a long letter to Nicola [Fabrizi] on the 22d inst. Our household affairs prosper. Rattazzi maintains his promise, and will soon give us a thousand muskets or carbines. For what concerns the organization of Garibaldi's men [Garibaldi was then president of the society "La Nazione Armata" suppressed by Cavour in the twinkling of an eye on his return to power], all necessary measures are taken, and the concert of the individuals designated insured. Fanti, it seems, is hostile, but, with Garibaldi present in Turin, I hope we shall be able to arrange everything. The worst of it is that many here wish to await the issue of the congress; to which I am opposed as injurious to the interests of the country. Palermo demands the promised arms.

"Thy CICCIO."

Both Crispi and Rosalino Pilo address fervent epistles to the Sicilians, stinging them with reproaches for their silence and inactivity, which for Italy "signified their contentment with their lot, their subjection to the Bourbon yoke." Rosalino offers to go at once, promises that Garibaldi and Sirtori will follow, and sends them the blessing "of him who lives only for Italy and awaits their decision." But Rattazzi fell, and Cavour, who towards Mazzini and his followers manifested constant, undeviating hatred, would none of him, objected strongly to any interference with the kingdom of Sicily, and, had the King permitted, would have arrested Garibaldi in person as soon as he had scent of the Sicilian expedition. While it is untrue that it was Crispi who decided Garibaldi to head that daring attempt—Bertani, Bixio, and, above all, the return of the pilot who had steered Rosalino's frail bark into Messina and come back to report the success of the revolution, being the chief actors and factors thereof—it is certain that, once landed at Marsala, Crispi, after Garibaldi, was the man of the situation.

At Marsala he proclaimed Victor Emanuel King of Italy and Garibaldi Dictator; then journeyed from commune to commune, inducing the syndics to follow suit. And at Palermo we found Don Ciccio, the radiant, cordial friend of yore. There was nothing pretentious or overbearing about him in those days; he had refused the lucrative and exalted position offered him by Garibaldi, intent only on armament, on the organization of the provinces, on keeping down the separatists and Federalists with firm hand. If he opposed Cavour, who insisted on the immediate annexation of the island, and compelled Garibaldi to expel Cavour's agents, it was to keep the island as a basis for Garibaldi's passage across the straits; and in this he succeeded, and then and there won the proud, loving hearts of the Sicilians, who adored him in life, even when his hand pressed on them most cruelly, and who are now welcoming him to his last home in their hearts and in their "city of initiatives." In Naples, where the Cavourians had forced on the instantaneous annexation by plébiscite, Crispi, who would have had the question decided as in Tuscany and the central provinces, by local assemblies elected by universal suffrage, won, by his calm pertinacity, the esteem of all, of Carlo Cattaneo especially. During the debates held by Mazzini in Nicotera's house in Naples as to the future conduct of the party of action, Crispi did not advocate the entrance of its members into Parliament. "Remember," he said, "if we take the oath, we are bound by it; if I do enter, I shall never resign." Mario, Saffi, Nicotera, were the stanchest opponents, but all save Mario yielded, with Crispi, to Mazzini's appeal to go into the House and force the Government to liberate Venice and take possession of Rome.

Crispi was elected unanimously in various colleges of Sicily. He accepted that of Castelvetrano, but the vice-dictator of the two Sicilies was so absolutely poor that his electors subscribed for his maintenance in turn, till his renown as advocate enabled him to maintain himself with decorum, but never in luxury. True to his pledge, when Garibaldi, Cairoli, Bertani, all the members of the Left resigned at the close of 1863, owing to the atrocities committed by Cavour's lieutenants in Sicily and Naples, Crispi remained in the breach; and one by one, Saffi alone excepted, the deserters returned to their posts. Crispi's speeches in the old Parliament are all memorable. He did not take part in the attempts of 1862, but, after Aspromonte, was the exposer of the vulpine double-face policy of the Ministry, the scathing denouncer of their servility to the French Emperor. Throughout three years no cloud had shadowed his friendship with Mazzini. It was Crispi who discovered the author of the forged letters published in the Moderate papers as Mazzini's; Crispi who proved that Greco, the pretended would-be murderer of Napoleon, with Mazzini and James Stansfeld for accomplices, was a spy in the pay of the Piedmontese Government. Yet it was in that same year (1864) that the close, fast bonds of friendship were severed never again to be reunited. And so unjustly!

Crispi was opposed to the September convention, because to him the transfer of the capital to Florence signified the renunciation of Rome, capital of one Italy. "You oppose because you are a 'republican,'" said Mordini, a seceder from the Left to the Centre. "No," exclaimed Crispi; "the Monarchy unites, a republic would divide Italy." Mazzini wrote words that had better have been left unsaid; Crispi replied with true but very bitter ones. Another outburst from Mazzini; then came Crispi's poisoned arrow taunting Mazzini "with serving princes while remaining a republican"—a quite unfair distortion of Mazzini's advice to Charles Albert, "to create Italy one and become King thereof"; or to Victor Emanuel, "Unify Italy, then become Dictator, President, or King for ever." Never again did they clasp hands or write or meet. It was the only instance in which Mazzini remained inexorable. He wrote a prophecy of Crispi's future which was all too faithfully fulfilled. We were living in Florence, and constantly seeing Don Ciccio, who had admirably and successfully defended Mario, brought to trial for his letter refusing to represent the college of Modena in Sicily because "I should loathe to take the oath to the King who shed the blood of Garibaldi on the sacred road to Rome." Never have I seen him or any other man so profoundly, so grievously distressed—anxious for a reassuring hope that the breach might yet be healed. But not even after Mentana, when Crispi and Mazzini were at one on the utter hopelessness of the attempt, nor even in 1870, when, for the first and only time, Crispi threatened to resign with all the Left unless the order to march on Rome should be given to the troops, could personal friends or political allies prevail. Yet Crispi remained from first to last a loyal, true Mazzinian, faithful to the fundamental doctrine, "Unity before all"; faithful, also, as so few of his followers were, to Mazzini's religious faith in one omniscient God, the *man* Christ Jesus, and in immortality.

When the Left came to power, in 1876, and Crispi was chosen Speaker of the Chamber, his impartiality, ability, and serenity were admired by friends and foes. During those years we met almost daily, as, at his request, I was making an inventory of his invaluable documents, which, with Bertani's, were to form the nucleus of revolutionary archives. "You may copy and use any of them," he wrote; "of course, avoiding anything that may injure the dead or hurt the feelings of the living." Brief and brilliant was his first Ministry, during which Victor Emanuel died. The Pope died; the conclave was held in such free and orderly style as to convince Europe that the subjection of the Church by the State was a barefaced fiction. Then the speech of Humbert the First was a masterpiece, and it was an evil day for Italy when the false accusation of bigamy compelled Crispi to retire. What hopes were reawakened when, after the death of Depretis, in 1886, Crispi was again summoned to the helm. All the reforms demanded by the Liberals and that had been promised in their name were effected—sanitary reform, reform of the charitable institutions, provincial and communal reform, the abolition of the infamous Contagious-Diseases Act—when, by a sudden and, we believe, unpremeditated coalition of factions that could not be called parties, he was hurled from power, and for the next three years Italy was in a state of anarchy and Sicily in actual revolt.

It was a cruel fate that summoned Crispi to the rescue, nor have we space or heart to follow his career—with not a friend to aid, and cowardly foes to hinder, between 1894 and 1896. Our correspondence ceased after one long letter on the state of Sicily, which we had just visited, remained unanswered; nor was that correspondence renewed until two months since, when it reopened anent the famous documents he possessed relating to the revolutionary years of 1848-9. "They are at the service of whosoever will undertake to continue Cattaneo's 'Archivio Storico Triennale,'" he answered. And we had half decided to go South once more when news of his increasing weakness and ill health came. And now all is over. We shall never feel the strong hand-clasp again, nor review old times, both bad and good. Italy seems to us a cemetery; we feel ourselves watching the procession wending to the bay that bears the "last of the Old Guard" to the land of his birth and of his glorious and triumphant work for Sicily and for Italy. We do not think the evil that he did will survive his death. We do believe that the good effected by him and his peerless peers will survive them all.

J. W. M.

Correspondence.

SIR PETER PETT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Andrew Marvell's "Last Instruc-

tions to a Painter" there occurs the following passage, satirizing the attempts of all parties to throw the blame for the Dutch victories of 1667—the burning of English ships in the Thames, etc., etc.—upon the devoted and yet comparatively innocent head of the Commissioner for the Navy, Sir Peter Pett:

"After this loss, to relish discontent,
Some one must be accused by Parliament.
All our miscarriages on Pett must fall,
His name alone seems fit to answer all.
Whose counsel first did this mad war beget?
Who all commands sold through the navy? Pett.
Who would not follow when the Dutch were beat?
Who treated out the time at Bergen? Pett.
Who the Dutch fleet with storms disabled met?
And, rifling prizes, them neglected? Pett.
Who with false news prevented the Gazette?
The fleet divided? Writ for Rupert? Pett.
Who all our seamen cheated of their debt,
And all our prizes who did swallow? Pett.
Who did advise no navy out to set?
And who the forts left unprepared? Pett.
Who to supply with powder did forget
Languard, Sheerness, Gravesend, and Upnor? Pett.
Who all our ships exposed in Chatham net?
Who should it be but the fanatic Pett?
Pett, the sea-architect in making ships,
Was the first cause of all these naval slips;
Had he not built, none of these faults had been;
If no creation, there had been no sin;
But his great crime, *one boat more he sent*,
That lost our fleet and did our flight prevent."

Most of the allusions here are plain enough and the trend and the justice of the satire are unmistakable. But I should be glad to know whether in lines 741-2, the last two of the quotation, there is an allusion to any definite incident, and if so, what that incident was. I suppose the lines to be purely ironical; Pepys's details would tally with this notion. As if one boat more or less could have made any difference in the midst of the universal folly and frivolity!

Under date of June 18, 1667, Henry Savile writes to Sir George Savile: "Commissioner Pett was sent for from Chatham, and sent last night to the Tower. He is most undoubtedly to be sacrificed; all that are greater lay the fault upon him in hopes that he is to bear all the blame." Pett was, I believe, actually impeached and deprived of his office.—Yours truly,

LEWIS E. GATES.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., August 17, 1901.

Notes.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press the thirteenth volume of Dr. Furness's "Variorum Edition" of Shakspere, viz., 'Twelfth Night'; a 'History of the Jesuits in England,' by E. L. Taunton; 'The Diamond Necklace,' a translation from Funck-Brentano, by H. Sutherland Edwards; 'Washington, the Federal City,' in two volumes, by Rufus Rockwell Wilson; and 'Millionaires and Kings of Enterprise,' by James Burnley.

'Life on the Stage,' by Clara Morris, is announced for September by McClure, Phillips & Co.

Funk & Wagnalls Co. will soon have ready 'The Real Latin Quarter,' by F. Berkley Smith, son of the writer-artist, F. Hopkinson Smith.

Charles Scribner's Sons will publish during the autumn on this side of the water Sir Walter Armstrong's 'Life of Turner,' notable not only for its text, but also for some ninety reproductions of the artist's finest pictures, mostly in photogravure. The same firm will bring out a new volume of verse by Miss Martha Gilbert Dickinson, 'The Cathedral, and Other Poems.'

James Pott & Co. will be the American publishers of 'Brother Musicians,' an account of the late Edward and Walter Bache, by Constance Bache.

A posthumous biographical work, 'Disciples of Aesculapius,' by Sir Benjamin Ward Richardson, containing also a sketch of the author's life by his daughter, Mrs. George Martin, with portrait and illustrations, is promised next month by E. P. Dutton & Co.

A. C. McClurg & Co.'s fall announcements include 'Lady Lee, and Other Animal Stories,' by Hermon Lee Ensign, with original designs in photogravure; 'Tennessee Sketches,' by Louise Preston Looney; 'Lincoln's First Love,' by Carrie Douglas Wright; 'Justice to the Woman,' by Mrs. Bernie Babcock; 'A History of American Verse,' by James L. Onderdonk; 'Word and Phrase: True and False Use in English,' by Joseph Fitzgerald; 'Ad Astra: Being Selections from Dante,' with decorative and illustrative designs by Margaret and Helen M. Armstrong; 'Rugs, Oriental and Occidental, Antique and Modern,' by Rosa Belle Holt; 'Criminal Sociology,' by Francis A. Kellor; 'Zanzibar Tales,' by George W. Bateman; 'Swedish Fairy Stories,' by Anna Wahlenberg; and 'At the Sign of the Ginger Jar,' poems by R. C. Rose.

'The Story of Missouri' is in preparation by the well-known Representative in Congress of the Ninth District, Champ Clark, and Walter Williams, editor of the Columbia *Missouri Herald*. The volume will be illustrated.

Mrs. Olive Thorne Miller, pursuing her favorite theme, gives us 'The Second Book of Birds' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). With a laudable desire to promote a greater appreciation of and familiarity with the bird life surrounding us, she selects conspicuous examples from the various bird families of the North American continent. Her descriptions of the appearance and habits of her subjects are clear, entertaining, and free from technical phraseology, while, throughout, her own strong affection for the species is made manifest by the many anecdotes aptly introduced, and by her willingness to take up the cudgels in defence of such commonly reputed nuisances as the crow, jay, etc. Eight colored illustrations and a number in black and white are of a high order of excellence, and should not be passed over without a word of praise.

As first fruits of the welcome appointment of Mr. F. Ll. Griffith as reader in Egyptology at Oxford, we have his inaugural lecture on the study of Egyptology (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1901). It is a lucid statement of the condition and bearings of that study at present, looking at it as a field for serious and prolonged work. Mr. Griffith has already won his spurs as one of the most careful and accurate, perhaps the most careful and accurate, of the English Egyptologists of the new school, and the views which he expresses in this little pamphlet are refreshing in their sanity and modesty. When a scholar of his calibre says that the 'Book of the Dead' is still in the main unintelligible to us, a flood of light is thrown upon some recent publications.

'Erinnerungen an Friedrich Nietzsche' is a recent brochure of 111 pages, by Dr. Paul Deussen, professor in the University of Kiel (Leipzig: Brockhaus). A portion of it, as our readers are aware, appeared October 15 in the *Wiener Rundschau* under the title "Die Wahrheit über Friedrich Nietzsche," but gave an inadequate conception of the nature and scope of the completed work. Deussen and Nietzsche were fellow-students at Schulpforta and at Bonn, and were soon brought into intimate relations of friendship by the enthusiasm which they both felt for Greek poetry, and especially for the odes of Anacreon. In these 'Reminiscences' the reader can trace the stages of Nietzsche's intellectual development, and is thereby enabled to form a correct appreciation of his character and of the abnormal influences which led to his melancholy end. The volume contains a portrait of Nietzsche and twenty-six letters (two in facsimile) written by him to Deussen from 1864 to 1887. In the concluding chapter (or "appendix," as the author calls it) we have a clear and concise discussion of the fundamental principles of Nietzsche's philosophy.

In this connection we may call attention to two critical and more or less pathopsychological studies of Nietzsche, which may serve as supplements to Deussen's personal recollections: 'Friedrich Nietzsche: Für gebildete Leser geschildert,' by Dr. Julius Reiner (Leipzig: Seemann), and 'Nietzsche: Eine psychiatrisch-philosophische Untersuchung,' by Wilhelm Schacht (Bern: Schwind & Francke). The first of these treatises discusses Nietzsche as a poet and philosopher, his solution of the problem of morality, his conception of the ideal of humanity as embodied in the *Uebermensch*, in whom Dr. Reiner discovers many features strongly resembling those of Lombroso's typical criminals, and his ideas of religion and woman. "Mein Heute widerlegt mein Gestern" (My to-day refutes my yesterday) is the expression not of commendable pleasure in progressive development, but of morbid pride in the crassest inconsistencies, resulting in the presentation of the passing whimseys of an over-excited brain for profound revelations of truth. A still more systematic study of these peculiar conditions is offered to the public by Dr. Schacht. It is impossible here to discuss the details of his investigations, the nature of which is clearly indicated by the title of his work.

In the forty-ninth annual report of the Boston Public Library we note that 683 books were read by the Fiction Committee, and that while 28 unfavorably reported on were accepted by the Trustees, 76 favorably reported on were rejected. "This year, for the first time, children's books have been read by the Committee." "The most popular publication of the Library for some time" is the 'Finding List of Genealogies, and Local and Town Histories Containing Family Records.' Though intended for the Library itself, there has been a demand for it from all parts of the country. Mr. Worthington Ford regrets "that in each State a certain number of copies of documents should not be set aside for the great public libraries," or given to the State Library for such distribution. At least a monthly list of State documentary issues might be sent to libraries.

The Imperial Botanic Garden of St. Petersburg has begun the publication of a Bulletin edited by A. Fischer de Waldheim. It will be devoted to short articles, and will appear as often as is warranted by the accumulation of material. The initial number contains articles on the 'Exoasci of the Caucasus,' and on the 'Mycological Flora of Russia,' by A. Jaczewski, and on 'Migratory

Lichens,' by A. Elenkin. The papers are in Russian, but each one is followed by a brief résumé in French or in German.

In announcing the *Ideal*, a fine-art quarterly publication, Mr. George Newnes of London aims only at the wealthier class of art-lovers. The price of each of the four parts will be ten guineas, the year's subscription for all the parts, thirty-eight. The return will be a large folio volume (20x15 inches), printed on fine handmade paper, containing in each quarterly part at least eight full-page etchings, photogravures, mezzotints, or other superior form of reproduction. Several color prints will be included in each number, both in the full-page and in the text illustrations. The selection of pictures will be made by Mr. A. G. Temple, Director of the Guildhall Art Gallery, London. The specimen contents page sent by the publisher shows that the choice will cover a wide range of ancient and modern art, while the examples will be almost exclusively drawn from little-known masterpieces in private collections. Thus, we are promised six Velasquezes and as many Fortunys, five Tademas, and four Turners. Evidently the prevailing taste is to be considered in the selection, and at this, since there is something for all tastes, no austere subscriber should cavil.

For the student of Biblical antiquities, peculiar interest attaches to the statement of Dr. Bliss, contained in a letter written to the Palestine Exploration Fund and published in part in the last issue of the Quarterly Statement, that "the majority of the objects found in our excavations are now arranged in a small museum." A large room in the Government School, just inside Herod's gate at Jerusalem, has been set aside for this purpose. Last autumn Dr. Bliss numbered and catalogued the objects selected for exhibition. In one of the cases there are 101 examples of pre-Israelite pottery, and in another 184 specimens of Seleucidan ware; besides which there are pottery figurines, gems, tablets, scarabs, and various objects of bronze, iron, bone, stone, and glass, as also a collection of coins. Small as this museum is, it is unique in that "it contains the only full collection from which the history of Palestinian pottery may be studied from pre-Israelite to Roman times." The existence of this small museum will, doubtless, add to the effectiveness of the work of the American School at Jerusalem, which enters on its second year this autumn, with Professor Mitchell of Boston as director. It is announced, also, that the University of Chicago will send a special field class to Palestine, under the direction of Prof. Shailer Matthews.

Another interesting mosaic, described by Mr. Dickson, British Consul at Jerusalem, as "a work of art of high order," was found towards the end of last March in the grounds of a Jewish colony, northward of the city, near the Damascus gate. The proprietor of the ground, in building a cistern for his house, found this mosaic scarcely three feet under the surface. The design is heathen. Orpheus is represented, life-size, playing upon his harp. Beneath him are Pan and a centaur. This portion of the mosaic is surrounded by a frame of ornamentally entwined branches, enclosing various other figures. Beneath this are two women, around whom is an inscription in Greek letters—Theodosia and Georgia. This is the second mosaic which has been found in the last few years in this locality, besides those discovered on the other side of the Jordan, the most famous of which was the map of Palestine from Madeba.

The last number of the *Zeitschrift des Deutschen Palaestina-Vereins*, the organ of the German Society for Palestinian exploration, contains a translation of a hitherto unpublished manuscript, an account of the pilgrimage to Jerusalem of Duke Henry the Pious of Saxony, written by one of his companions, Steffan Baumgartner of Nuremberg, and now in the German National Museum at that place. Duke Henry set out on his journey, as we learn from the Saxon archives, on the 31st of March, 1498, the proper day for the commencement of the enterprise having been astrologically determined. He left Venice for Jaffa on the 23d of June in the same year, reaching Jerusalem on the 18th of August. There, in the night of the 22d-23d, he knighted thirty-seven pilgrims in the Church of the Holy Sepulchre. He reached Venice on his return journey on the 19th of October. The document contains little that is new about the conditions of the Holy Land, but is an interesting record of a princely pilgrimage of that day, and the conditions under which it was conducted. In the same number Dr. Littmann, who accompanied the American Crosby-Hyde-Macy-Stokes expedition to Syria, publishes a curious official list of the Bedawin tribes of the East Jordan country, prepared by a Turkish official for purposes of conscription and taxation some thirty-odd years ago. According to this singular document, the nearest approach to a census of that region which has yet been made, the Bedawin in the Belka and east and south of it, number 724,700 men capable of bearing arms, distributed among a large number of tribes, of which the greater part pay no tribute, others a tribute of sheep, while a few only are subject to conscription.

The current number of the *Mitteilungen der Vorderasiatischen Gesellschaft* is devoted to the publication, in transcription only, of a new "Minæan" inscription, discovered by Dr. Glaser at Berakis (Jatil), and translated and commentated by Dr. Otto Weber. It is an *ex-voto*, containing about 150 words in eighteen lines. In a note Dr. Weber says that there are, in Glaser's possession, valuable inscriptions from Kataban, an Arabian kingdom which stood at some period—when, no one knows, unless it be Glaser—in close relation to the South Arabian "Minæan" kingdom, the two being often mentioned together at the beginning of those inscriptions. Weber's note is a wail of lamentation: "How long will it be that Glaser's one hundred Katabanian inscriptions, not even *ex-votos*, but long, well-preserved texts from all periods of the Katabanian kingdom, sleep in Glaser's boxes and note-books? How much light they might spread over all questions as to which we must still grope in the dark!" The present publication is worthy of notice only as an addition to the scanty material available for the study of the early history and civilization of Arabia, which possess just now special interest for the student of Semitic antiquity.

The new International Association of Academies of Sciences, established about a year ago at the suggestion of the Berlin Royal Society, has initiated ways and means for the international exchange and interchange of manuscripts for study and research. The *Frankfurter-Zeitung* reports that this has now been arranged as far as the University and other great libraries in various countries are concerned. Requests for manuscripts are made through the local society, which assumes the guarantee for their return in good condition. The only exceptions are especially valuable documents, or those which, on account of their weight or condition, could not be sent away without damage. The various governments have been requested to assist the International Association in carrying out this scheme, which is a great improvement on former methods, when it was possible to secure a manuscript from a foreign library, if at all, only through the tedious correspondence of foreign offices.

Hans Ludvig Forssell, the Swedish statesman and writer, died at San Bernardino, Switzerland, August 2, 1901. He was born at Gefle, Sweden, January 14, 1843. After taking the doctor's degree in 1866, he was appointed docent in history at the University of Upsala, but a few years later moved to Stockholm and entered public life. He was one of the leaders in the movement that led to the adoption of a common system of coinage for Scandinavia; and he also introduced many administrative reforms at home. In 1875 he became a State Counsellor and later Minister of Finance. Forssell made a number of valuable contributions to historical literature, the most important of which are contained in two volumes of 'Studies and Criticisms.' During the last twenty years of his life he was a member of the Swedish Academy, to which he was elected to succeed the historian Fryxell.

The note in No. 1885 of the *Nation*, upon solicitation by publishers, leads another correspondent to say that in 1897 a well-known New York firm asked "the privilege of submitting a confidential proposition with a view of having your [his] testimonial and endorsement" of a newly completed literary undertaking. When he declined to promise in advance commendation of books not examined, a second letter was received which renewed the suggestion, and said that when an attached request was signed and returned, "we will take pleasure in sending you full particulars respecting the special discounts and liberal terms we propose offering you." An agent also called with an appeal to personal vanity by offering to publish the likenesses of those, or of some of those, who would recommend the books, and actually exhibited the names of a number of well-known persons who, as he said, had accepted the proposition. Our correspondent flatly characterized the whole business to the firm itself as an attempt at bribery, resolving itself into a question of bargaining, and, of course, refused to consider the subject, repeating that he was not for sale.

—When the editors of the Weimar edition of Goethe's works first made public their estimate that forty octavo volumes would be required to print all the letters and diaries of the poet (not including the letters to Goethe), together with the necessary critical notes making up about one-fifth of the pages, the announcement was received with some surprise, even by

those familiar with his remarkable epistolary achievements. The latest volume published—the twenty-third in the series—indicates, however, that the original estimate was not excessive. These twenty-three volumes contain 6,609 letters, covering the period from May, 1764, to August, 1813. The first three volumes cover seven, four, and three years respectively. But with advancing years the poet became more and more addicted to writing, so that the volumes following rarely dispose of more than two years each. The five years up to August, 1813, yield about 200 letters each, and as the following eighteen years and a half must comprise at least the same average number, Dr. Ludwig Geiger is justified in concluding that at least 4,000 more letters await publication. The total number will be about 10,000. Many of these have never before been printed. The twenty-third volume contained among its 333 numbers 175 not previously published, while in the latest volume the respective numbers are 285 and 126. These 285 letters are addressed to no fewer than 77 different persons. That this vast amount of epistolary material includes a great deal of rubbish is a fact which even the enthusiasts who edit the Weimar edition feel half inclined to apologize for. While in his earlier letters Goethe was often impelled to reveal his feelings and to tell about the things which occupied and interested him, the later ones are less apt to be spontaneous effusions than answers to other letters, usually dry, matter-of-fact, and without literary flavor. Geiger thinks that the absence of personal revelations in the later letters is due largely to the fact that the poet dictated them, and therefore had reason to fear that an indiscreet secretary might furnish cause for unwelcome gossip.

—If there be such a species of erudition as "Catholic science," its character and contents can nowhere be better learned than in the Proceedings of the International Congress of Catholic Savants, known officially as "Congrès Scientifique International des Catholiques," of which the fifth convention was held some months ago in Munich, the "Akten" being published in a solid volume of more than half a thousand pages by Herder of that city. Former conventions of this body were held in Paris (twice), in Brussels, and in Swiss Freiburg, but the proceedings of none equalled in value those of the Munich convention, chiefly on account of the preponderance of the Germans, whose Catholic savants have been more in touch with the scientific problems of the times, and have at least attempted to hold their own in competition with the Protestant representatives of research. Of the 260 addresses and papers published in full or in extract in the Munich deliberations, 183 are in the German language, while 41 are in French, 13 in English, 10 in Italian, 9 in Spanish, and 4 in Latin; the Congress having declared equal rights to the "six leading languages." In a number of the addresses the spirit of progress and considerable independence are displayed, reminding the reader of the position taken two years ago by Professor Schell of Würzburg, but condemned by the Church authorities, namely, that true modern scientific research is consistent with the teachings of the Catholic Church. In this way Professor Grisar of Innsbruck, who has recently begun the publication of a work on a grand scale to undermine *in majorem Papæ gloriam* the famous eight-volume classical account of Mediæval Rome by Gregorovius, nevertheless, in his paper on the Principles of Historical Research, says some sharp things against the legend and miracle-believing methods prevailing among his coreligionists. Some of the papers on Biblical subjects, such as those of the Jesuit von Hummelauer on Deuteronomy, and Professor Hoberg of Freiburg i. B., on Negative and Positive Criticism, while combating Wellhausen on specific literary points, in principle do not seem to differ materially from his methods. In fact, the independent spirit that prevailed in the Munich meeting was in rather strange contrast to the declaration of submission to the Church adopted by the convention. A great variety of subjects was discussed in the eight sections of the congress, viz., History of Religion; Philosophy; Social Science and Jurisprudence; History; History of Civilization and Arts; Orientalia; Philology; Natural Sciences, including Mathematics and Geography.

—'Biblische und Babylonische Urgeschichte,' by Prof. Heinrich Zimmern of Leipzig, the last number of "Der Alte Orient," published by the Vorderasiatische Gesellschaft, is an admirable popular discussion, based to a considerable extent on Gunkel's well-known work, 'Schöpfung und Chaos in Urzeit und Endzeit,' of the relation of the Hebrew myths of Creation, Paradise, the Forefathers, and the Flood to the Babylonian. Taking the Creation myth, Zimmern argues—from various poetical passages in Job, Psalms, and Isaiah, alluding to a conflict between Yahaweh and Rahab, the leviathan or the dragon—that there existed among the Hebrews a folk-myth, identical in its main features with the Babylonian myth of Creation, in which Bel, having slain the dragon, Tiamat, makes out of her body earth and heaven, and, out of dust mingled with divine blood, men. The folk-myth which appears in these poetical passages was the foundation of the cosmogony formulated in our first chapter of Genesis and composed during the time of the Babylonian captivity. The myths of Paradise, the Forefathers, and the Flood ran a similar course. The similarity of these Hebrew myths to the Babylonian was not due, he argues, to identity of origin, but to borrowing, as is proved by the peculiar Babylonian coloring of the Hebrew myths. But this borrowing was not done by the Hebrews, but by their predecessors, the Canaanites, in that period of Babylonian intellectual domination of which we have evidence in the Tel el-Amarna tablets. As those tablets show, old Babylonian mythological texts were used as school-books by the scribes, and finally Babylonian myths were adapted or adopted by the Canaanites, to be taken over in turn by the Hebrews on their conquest of the country. It is noticeable, however, that it is the late "Priest Code," composed in or after the Babylonian captivity, which, in the story of Creation, the Flood, the Forefathers, etc., uses the old Babylonian myths thus freely, and at the same time transforms them into prosaic narratives of a semi-scientific character, imbued with monotheistic doctrine of the highest spirituality. But we have also, in the book of Genesis, besides this later priestly treatment of these old myths, an earlier handling of the same themes in the documents commonly known to critics as J and E. Here there is more of local Palestinian material and coloring, more poetry and folk-feeling, and on the other hand less spirituality and less monotheism. Precisely why the later priestly treatment should have held more closely to the Babylonian original, Zimmern does not make clear.

—The study of the Nile, with a view to the regulating and augmenting the water supply of Egypt, which has been the principal scientific work of the English since the occupation, is now directed to the investigation of the still unknown factors which combine to produce the annual rise of the river. The observing stations which have been for several years established on opposite shores of the Victoria Nyanza, to register the daily rainfall and level of the lake, are to be supplemented by similar stations on the Blue and White Niles and on the Albert Nyanza, the most important of the sources of the main river. In the expectation that a still greater increase of water will be needed than can be supplied by the reservoirs now being built, an accurate survey of the cataract region south of Wady Halfa has been ordered to determine upon the site of a second reservoir. At the same time investigations are to be made to see whether this increase could not be better secured by regulating the outlets of the Equatorial and Abyssinian lakes, or by opening up the Bahr-el-Gebel, the great western branch of the river. In order to do this, two enormous blocks of sudd, one three miles, the other twenty-five miles, in length, must be removed. During the past year fourteen of these blocks, some a mile long and from 15 to 20 feet thick, have been hauled out by means of chains and wire hawsers attached to the gunboats. It has been found that the sudd is not, as has generally been supposed, a tangle of weed floating on the water and descending a few feet below the surface, but "a mass of decayed vegetation, papyrus roots, and earth, much resembling peat in its consistency, and compressed into such solidity by the force of the current that men could walk over it everywhere, and even elephants could, in places, cross it without danger." When all these blocks shall have been removed, not only will the water supply of Egypt be increased, but the vast swamps of the eastern Sudan will be drained and become cultivable land.

—A great African enterprise, the Uganda Railway, is nearly completed. By the end of October it is expected that the rails will reach the terminus on the Victoria Nyanza, 583 miles from the ocean. The difficulties of construction have been exceptionally great. The first half is through an unhealthy wilderness, without resources and sparsely populated. Supplies of every kind had to be brought from England and India for the army of 20,000 workmen, and even water had to be carried through dry tracts from twenty to sixty miles in extent. The remainder of the road runs through a mountainous region, the highest altitude reached being 8,300 feet. Among minor difficulties were the tsetse fly, which prevented the use of transport animals, and in some parts "the laborers were constantly being frightened off the work by man-eating lions." It is estimated that the total cost will be about twenty-six million dollars, and that in from five to ten years the road will be doing a good paying business, and "twen-

ty years hence will not be able to meet the demands upon it." The main end sought by the railway has been to establish rapid communication with Uganda and the country about the headwaters of the Nile in order to develop their great natural resources by providing a market for their products. A vast tract has also been opened up, with excellent soil, and sufficient rainfall to produce all kinds of crops, at an elevation above the sea-level fit for European habitation, but practically uninhabited. Considering the facts that Indians built the road, and that the present passenger traffic upon the completed parts, besides the officials and troops, consists principally of Indian merchants and coolies, it seems probable that this region will eventually be colonized by them, making it an African Punjab.

—'The Mineral Resources of New South Wales,' by Edward F. Pittman, an octavo volume of nearly 500 pages, has been published by the Geological Survey of the colony under the direction of the Minister for Mines. It describes the mode of occurrence of the principal types of ore deposits, with lists of the known localities of the different economic minerals. The first part is devoted to metals and metalliferous minerals, the second to non-metalliferous substances. There are also descriptions of several mineral springs and of the artesian water supply. The chapter on gold contains an interesting historical account of the discovery of that metal in Australia. That its being found there was known to the Portuguese and Spaniards more than 350 years ago, is conjecturable from the fact that on the "Dauphin Chart," a map of Australia believed to have been reproduced from earlier Portuguese charts about 1530, the northwestern coast of the island is named "Costa d'Ouro." The first definite record of the discovery, however, is a note made by James McBrien, a surveyor, in his field-book on February 15, 1823. A facsimile of the page containing this record is among the illustrations of this volume. It was not until 1851, when E. H. Hargraves called the attention of the Government to the existence of gold in the districts of Bathurst and Wellington, that the actual working of the gold-fields was begun. It is believed that few countries contain such a diversity of mineral wealth in proportion to area as New South Wales. The total value of all metals and minerals yielded prior to December 31, 1899, was £134,064,712, while the value of the mineral production for 1899 was £6,157,557.

TAYLOR'S CLASSICAL HERITAGE.

The Classical Heritage of the Middle Ages. By Henry Osborn Taylor. The Columbia University Press (Macmillan). 1901. Pp. xv, 400.

Mr. Taylor's little book is a contribution to a kind of history that is almost if not quite new. It deals with the views of life, the sentiments and tastes of the cultivated classes in the past. Of such matters our "histories" have little or nothing to say. Some hints of the scope and character of the intellectual life of educated mankind may be found in the histories of philosophy, literature, and religion; but works of this class have special aims, and are not comprehensive enough to satisfy the legitimate curiosity of their readers as to the range of interests and the general outlook of the cultivated contemporaries of Solomon, Marcus Aurelius, Erigena, or Petrarch. This curiosity has, no doubt, been partially gratified by writers like Lecky, Draper, Ozanam, Andrew D. White, although each of these confined himself ostensibly to some one phase of intellectual development. We need, therefore, a new type of history which shall display broadly and generously the attitude of mind of those, like Cicero, Gregory the Great, or Erasmus, whose sentiments we may safely assume were acceptable to large numbers of their contemporaries.

It is to this field of investigation that Mr. Taylor has devoted himself for a number of years. The volume in hand is not, however, nominally a continuation of the author's 'Ancient Ideals,' although it forms a natural sequel to the earlier volumes, the sterling merits of which have been generally recognized both in this country and in England. Mr. Taylor defines his present theme broadly; his purpose is to follow "the changes undergone by classic thought, letters, and art on their way to form a part of the intellectual development of the Middle Ages, and to show how pagan tastes and ideals gave place to the ideals of Christianity and to Christian sentiments." The discussion centres in the period extending from the fourth to the seventh century, although at times it naturally reaches farther back and occasionally forward to the thirteenth century. The west of Europe, the history of which "has a personal interest for us, making a part of our own past," is the province of the book, although something is said of the Hellenic East, to which the author appears to have devoted a good deal of attention.

The great law of historic continuity has now for some time been piously venerated by historians; it is nevertheless often set at naught in their writings. Indeed, the implacable working of the law is somewhat humorously illustrated by the tenacity with which we still cling to the cataclysmic and *par secousses* conception of the past. It happens that Mr. Taylor has pitched upon a period in which the real continuity is even more ignored than usual. There appears to be little inclination among the readers of the Greek and Roman authors to attend to anything later than Tacitus and Lucian, so the pagan literature of the four centuries preceding the Barbarian conquest is practically unknown. This leaves a great gap at precisely the point where the historical explanation of the mediæval spirit is to be sought. The numerous works upon the Church and its literature have, until recently at least, done little to supply the deficiency; only lately have Hatch, Harnack, and certain French scholars endeavored to do full justice to the influence of pagan thought upon Christianity, and have in this way furnished certain links in the chain of development.

Nothing will perhaps strike the readers of Mr. Taylor's book more forcibly than his description of the natural and gradual transition from the world of Cicero to that of Gregory the Great, of the way in which the older possessors of antique culture in Italy and the provinces were transformed, and how through decade and century there went on "a ceaseless blending of the new, old, and the transitional." All the influential and cultivated Christians had pagan educations, and the pagans had, long before the complete victory of Christianity, reached, in Stoicism and Neo-Platonism, conceptions of life and man's ideals which trench upon those of the Middle Ages. So, in spite of the fundamental differences between Christian and pagan thought, they were less like two hostile armies arrayed against one another in mortal conflict than like two streams which, becoming more nearly parallel as the centuries went on, gradually merged into one another. Boethius stands at the confluence of the streams, and we seek in vain to decide whether he was a pagan or a Christian. The well-known decadence of the Græco-Roman world, especially during the two centuries immediately preceding the Conquest of the Empire by the Germans, exercised a most important influence upon the spirit of the Middle Ages, for it was the decadent forms of philosophy, rhetoric, poetry, and art that the Middle Ages inherited. Antique culture was passed on in such compendia as the allegorical manual of Martianus Capella and the treatises of Boethius, which were doubtless far better suited to the taste and need of succeeding centuries than the earlier and better works. Besides these pagan contributions,

"a great mass of pagan culture and philosophy passed over into the Middle Ages modified or transformed in the works of Christians of the transition centuries. In these Christian writings pagan and Christian thoughts sometimes are crudely mingled, as in the poems of Synesius. Again, the pagan and Christian elements are more closely united; instead of a mechanical mixture, as it were, there is a chemical compound, the ingredients of which are altered by their union. The writings of Pseudo-Dionysius are an example: although their inspiration was Christian, their constructive principles were drawn from Neo-Platonism."

In establishing conclusively the continuity of the culture of the lower Empire and that of the early Middle Ages, and in this way lessening the importance both of Christianity in its pristine form and of the coming of the Barbarians as explanations of the mediæval spirit, Mr. Taylor does not allow the world-wide contrast between the classical and mediæval to become blurred. The spirit and principles of Christianity, he writes,

"differed so essentially from those of the classical antique that some of its elements of strength corresponded with what were defects according to the classical standards. Self-control. measure, limit, proportion, clarity, and definiteness were principles of the antique; the Christian spirit broke through them all. Its profound spirituality, often turning to mysticism, had not the clarity of classic limitation. It did not recognize limit. Its reach was infinite, and therefore its expressions were often affected with indefiniteness. Classic self-control meant measure, nothing in excess. Christian self-control soon came to mean the exclusion of a part of life; it knew no measure; of what it condemned it could not have too little, of what it approved it could not have enough. The higher paganism sought to weigh and proportion the elements of mortal life according to their intrinsic values and their relations to the economy of human happiness. Christianity scarcely regarded these mortal balancings. It had its own universal principle of apportionment—the love of God which comprehended love for all men and for self in conformity with God's love of his creatures."

Mr. Taylor first discusses those pagan elements in the later Roman culture which passed over to the Middle Ages without needing Christianizing. The 'Story of Troy' and the 'Deeds of Alexander' show the way in which the classical taste was sinking to the mediæval level, and the compendium of Martianus and the codifications and abridgments of the Roman law illustrate the form in which science and juris-

prudence were to pass on. In his discussion of the transmission of the law, Mr. Taylor might have emphasized the clear lines with which the dominant institution of the Middle Ages, the Church, is delineated in the Roman law, for there is no more conclusive proof of his general thesis than the last book of the Theodosian code, which might almost have been drafted by a jurist attached to the curia of Innocent III. Among those pagan elements which were Christianized and adapted to their own purposes by Christian writers were allegory, symbolism, and the mystery. The failure to distinguish between real mysteries, which exist by reason of the limitation of human knowledge, and artificial mysteries is plainly shown in the intellectual, religious, artistic, and literary history of the whole mediæval period. Mr. Taylor believes that this confusion must be regarded as wilful. "It was not the germinal mental chaos which exists in savages and barbarians, who have not developed the faculty of perceiving clear distinctions; it was rather a confusion to which human beings abandoned themselves after periods of clear thinking among their ancestors, Roman, Greek, and Hebrew." But the mystification was rather purposeful than wilful, and gratified a deep-seated craving to assimilate this independent and recalcitrant universe to human uses and ideals. And the writer recognizes that "allegorical interpretation represents that conservative religious progress which avoids a breach with the past and clings to the statements of ancient seers."

The chapter upon Monasticism—the ideal Christian life—and the character it illustrated and engendered, is preceded by an admirable discussion of the changes in the ideals of knowledge, beauty, and love. Here, as elsewhere, the author remains a sincerely impartial historian. He simply aims to understand; he neither condemns nor approves, and yet avoids a cold, unsympathetic attitude. He has sought his knowledge of the monastic spirit at the sources, in the utterances of Jerome, Benedict, Gregory the Great, and those who did most to assure its growth in the West; he shows how irresistibly the ascetic life appealed to those of the most diverse instincts and experience, the mystic, the scholar, the lover of nature, the disappointed, and the merely indolent.

About a third of Mr. Taylor's volume is given to Christian prose and poetry, both Greek and Latin, and the transition to mediæval poetry. He traces the slow substitution of accent and rhyme for quantity, and endeavors to correlate this change with the general tendencies and needs of the period. Christian emotion found the classic metres too confining for its purposes. Not only was the old verse, based upon quantity, no longer in accord with the spoken speech, it was too restrained and artificial, too measured, to express the vague and mystic longings and frantic apprehensions of mediæval religion. "Such unmeasured feelings were not to be held within the controlled harmonies of the hexameter nor within the Sapphic, Alcaic, or Pindaric strophes." "The new quiver, the new shudder, the utter terror, and the utter love," which appear in the mediæval rhymed accentual poetry, and the inappropriateness of classical metre to express such emotions, are all shown in lines like these:

"Desidero te millies,
Mi Jesu! quando venies?
Me laetum quando facies,
Ut vultu tuo saties?"

"Quo dolore
Quo moerore
Deprimuntur miseri,
Qui abyssis
Pro commissis
Submergentur inferi."

While allusions to pagan tradition and mythology never cease in mediæval poetry, the antique spirit gives way completely.

"Speaking more particularly, the antique sense of form and proportion, the antique observance of the mean and avoidance of extravagance and excess, the antique dislike for the unlimited and monstrous, the antique feeling for literary unity, the abstention from irrelevancy, the frank love for all that is beautiful or charming, for the beauty of the body and for everything connected with the joy of mortal life, the antique reticence as to hopes or fears of what was beyond the grave, these antique self-control and self-reliance—these qualities cease in mediæval Latin poetry."

In the closing chapters upon architecture and painting the author holds that, in them as in the poetry of the time, the antique spirit is superseded by the genius of the Middle Ages, although the classical survives in mere references and allusions.

The volume closes with an elaborate bibliographical appendix, arranged to correspond with the chapters of the text, and an index. To sum up, Mr. Taylor's work gives evidence of a rare form of scholarship. He has the general preparation of a scholar, the necessary acquaintance with the five most essential foreign languages and with the literatures which each represents. He has the adequate special preparation which he derived in this case from such very solid works as those of Ebert, Norden, Harnack, Zöckler, Krumbacher, Choisy, but above all from the sources themselves, which he has read with a patience little common in our country, where the *ipse dixit* of the German *érudit* still too often satisfies our scholarly ambitions. Lastly, he exhibits a broad human insight which keeps him within speaking distance of the beings whose spirit and predilections he seeks to surprise. Instead, however, of giving the public three stout tomes, as he was well prepared to do, he condenses the results of his studies into a handy little volume which many will read who know nothing of even Dill and Boissier.

SOME PHYSICAL BOOKS.

Contributions to Photographic Optics. By Otto Lummer. Translated and Augmented by Silvanus P. Thompson. Macmillan. 1900. 8vo, pp. 135.

Experimental Physics. By Eugene Lommel. Translated by G. W. Myers. J. B. Lippincott Co. 1900. 8vo, pp. 664.

An Introduction to Modern Scientific Chemistry. By Dr. Lassar-Cohn. Translated by M. M. Pattison Muir. D. Van Nostrand Co. 1901. 12mo, pp. 348.

Practical Electro-Chemistry. By Bertram Blount. Macmillan Co. 1901. 8vo, pp. 374.

Dr. Silvanus P. Thompson is known as an excellent physical investigator, and the author of several particularly admirable expository works. In translating Professor Lummer's articles on Photographic Optics he has used great freedom in improving upon the German author, quite rewriting many passages, and adding two chapters, together with an appendix and an interesting preface. In this preface, Dr. Thompson laments the badness of British text-books of optics, which he attributes to the fact that optical books will not sell in England unless they are cram-books for university examinations set by non-optical examiners. English text-books "serve admirably to get up the subject for the tripos; but they are far too academic and too remote from the actual modern applications. In fact, the science of the best optical instrument-makers is far ahead of the science of the text-books." It is certainly very unfortunate that the possibility of publishing a scientific treatise in England, and far more in America, should depend on whether or not it will be a means of making money for the publisher; but it would be hardly better if it depended on its serving to make money for an optician. Even in Germany, publication is not so facile as might be supposed. Dr. Moritz Cantor's great 'History of Mathematics' hung fire for years before Teubner would proceed with the second volume; and other works which have notably advanced human thought have cost their authors the savings of their lifetime. Meantime, the master-key to the theory of lenses was given by a British mathematician, Rowan Hamilton, as long ago as 1833; and it has remained substantially unused, while German scientists have pursued the fearfully tortuous and labyrinthine analysis which was more directly suggested by the exigencies of the instrument-makers.

A photographer is not thoroughly accomplished in his profession until he knows at least as much about lenses as is taught in this volume, and there is no other in any language in which the outline of the theory is made equally clear. It will prove a tough nut to crack for most readers; but there is no help for that until the mathematicians have furnished new developments. The two authors seem to be of opinion that photographic lenses have now reached their highest pitch of perfection—at least, until new kinds of glass are produced. But this may be doubted; for hitherto nothing has been aimed at except to bring all the waves of light from any one point of the object to focus on a given point of the plate, without inquiring whether they arrive at that point in the same phase of motion, so as to reinforce one another fourfold, or in opposite phases, so as to extinguish one another. A photographic lens may easily be too perfect, in an optical sense, to produce an artistic effect for any eyes except those which see exceptionally well. We desire that a picture should present nature as it looks to us when we are in a sympathetic mood. If the lens is much more perfect than the human eye, the view reminds us of how things look when our nerves are strung for stern and disagreeable duties—only more so. But from this it must not be argued that the photographer can afford to neglect the seven kinds of aberration which Lummer and Thompson expound after Seidel. On the contrary, the proper conclusion is, that, to the study of this book, the photographer should add that of physiological optics, in order to know what particular kind of defects to value in his lens, and in what different degrees.

Lommel's 'Experimental Physics' is written in a lucid and agreeable style. The author shows a decided faculty for making the subject clearly intelligible with surprisingly little mathematics. The book is not too

large for use in a high school. The English edition has a really tasteful appearance, in striking contrast to most of our school-books, however handsome they may be; and this ought to recommend it to teachers and school boards. For when a boy has thoroughly studied a book of natural philosophy, he ought to keep that volume within reach for the rest of his days. It is, therefore, particularly important to inquire what kind of a book this is. We will accordingly examine a single section, occupying about a page—a section neither among the best nor among the worst in the book, but chosen as embodying several qualities that are very characteristic of the whole. It relates to the heat of chemical combination. The author begins by treating the heat of crystallization, and here we remark that the translator says that the color of a certain salt is "bright grey." The setting of plaster of Paris is considered. It is a well-chosen illustration, for it is a process that every boy wants to understand. Unfortunately, the explanation is pretty thoroughly wrong. The statement made is that plaster is calcium sulphate, or gypsum, which has lost its water of crystallization. The truth is, that the essential constituent of plaster is a salt which contains one-fourth as much water as gypsum. That is the reason why the burning of gypsum is such a delicate operation, for if it is heated only a little too much, it loses all its water, and becomes substantially anhydrite, an insoluble salt which absorbs water only very slowly, and will not make a cast in any length of time because it won't hold together. The true plaster, on the other hand, dissolves in the water, and then pretty soon combines with the water in which it is dissolved to form insoluble crystals of microscopic size. In doing this it contracts slightly and evolves heat; but, owing to the crystals lying "every which way," they are not packed accurately together, and microscopic interstices are left, so that the whole mass has a tendency to swell enough to fill out every fine line of the mould. Thus, notwithstanding the pores, the crystals are pressed against one another so closely at certain points as to come within the range of powerful cohesive attraction, which gives the cast a certain degree of strength.

The author next considers the slaking of lime, of which we have the following account: "Burnt calcium (calcium oxide, CaO), generated by heating native calcium (calcium carbonate, $CaCO_3$) in a calcium oven, thus driving off the water, combined with water to produce calcium hydroxide (CaH_2O_2), or *slaked calcium*, which is a solid." A lime-kiln may properly enough be called a furnace, in English, but hardly an *oven;* nor is lime called "calcium," or lime-stone "native calcium." A little below there is a small table of heats of combustion of ten substances commonly burned for fuel or light. It would have been appropriate to include some food-stuffs. Of these ten values, six are grossly in error, five having the decimal point put one place too far to the left, and in the sixth, alcohol, 91.90 being printed, instead of 71.90.

The translator has studied in Germany, and he evidently thinks himself qualified to improve upon the English language. This sometimes has disastrous effects; as where the rhombic system of crystallization (which we identify by his giving the synonym "quadratic," and also by his not otherwise enumerating this system), being called by the translator "rhomboidal," is confounded with the rhombohedral system; and the pupil is told that it is a hemihedral variation of the hexagonal system, which, by the way, is not true even of the rhombohedral crystals. Water cooled below 32 degrees F., but still liquid, is said by the translator to be "undercooled." Other writers call it "overcooled." A hydrometer the readings of which are inversely proportional to the density is christened a "volumometer." Truly, with three such lovely words as "volumenometer" and "volumeter," already in the dictionary, and now the new-born "volumometer"—all meaning entirely different things—the English language ought to be supremely happy. The volume is crowded with contributions to the dictionary.

We know very well that Mr. Pattison Muir is a translator acquainted with the English language and with the science of chemistry—is, indeed, thoroughly skilled in both. Under these circumstances, we cannot understand his choice of Lassar-Cohn's book, or how he could call it an "introduction to modern scientific chemistry," when there is not a word in it about the dominant kind of chemistry of to-day. The name of Ostwald does not occur from cover to cover. The doctrine of valency is much insisted upon; but we hope that *that* is not regarded as particularly modern or as particularly scientific. There are two pages about the "unsymmetric carbon atom," which dates from 1869, as does Mendeleef's table of elements, from which the Helium-Neon-Argon-Crypton-Xenon series is omitted. We notice, by the way, that in two of the three places where xenon is mentioned it is called "xeon." Selenium, too, is called "selenion," throughout. Yet helium is not called "helion." On page 215, the following dictum is printed in authoritative italics: "It is impossible to think of life without the presence of nitrogenous substances." That is not a proposition in chemistry; and to slip it into a chemistry for children, where nobody would suspect such proselytizing, may accord with North German notions; but, in this country, some people will not deem it dealing honestly with parents. Since Mr. Pattison Muir has failed to see the impropriety of it, the publishers would do well to cut it out of the plate. It is a doctrine of metaphysics, and uncommonly metaphysical metaphysics. There are other eccentricities. Thus, the translator adds a note of his own to say that "in our preposterous English system of weights and measures, there is no simple relation between the units of weight and volume." The British unit of weight is the imperial pound; the unit of volume is the imperial gallon. The imperial gallon is defined as the volume of ten pounds of water under standard conditions. No relation could be simpler. This system was the result of the most careful and deliberate consideration on the part of the most competent metrologists that British science has ever produced. It is a little bit pre—something—let us say *premature*—for Mr. Pattison Muir to call it "preposterous" in that particular feature.

Mr. Bertram Blount discusses the economic aspects of every branch of electro-chemistry. In eight sections he considers (1) general principles, (2) the electrolytic mining and refining of metals from aqueous solution, (3) the electrolysis of igneous liquids, (4) the electric furnace, (5) electro-deposition, (6) the alkali and chlorine processes, (7) the electrolysis of organic compounds, and (8) power. There are some electrical processes the details of which are kept secret. Others have never been put into practical operation under economic conditions. In such cases, there is, naturally, not very much to be said; but what there is to be said is here said, and said well. Under the sixth and seventh sections there are chemical reactions that some students will think Mr. Blount has not got to the bottom of. But where the questions relate simply to the economics of electricity, the discussion is masterly. The bitter-beeriness that pervades the British arts is occasionally illustrated in these pages. Thus, we read of an American silver-refining company that has to remelt its silver with a little copper before sending it to England, because the English dealers cannot admit on any evidence that silver can be more that 998 fine. In the last chapter, the following question is put as if it were a poser: Into one of two vessels, both filled with a solution of sulphate of potassa and connected with a siphon, is placed a bar of carbon, and into the other a bar of zinc, these bars having been connected with the terminals of a galvanometer. There is a momentary current, which promptly ceases. Now into which vessel shall we pour a little sulphuric acid in order to make a steady current, and why? The great name of Ostwald is invoked for a principle on which to decide this question—a Titan imported to crack a hazelnut, as any American amateur electrician would find it.

FRANCE BEFORE THE REVOLUTION.

Etudes sur l'Histoire Economique de la France (1760-1789). Par Camille Bloch, Archiviste du Département du Loiret. Préface de M. Émile Levasseur, Membre de l'Institut. Paris: Picard. 1900. Pp. ix, 269.

Here is a little collection of papers to which it is worth while to call attention, because it illustrates one of the most hopeful tendencies in recent French historical writing. For some time past it has been realized that the history of the French Revolution had been written too exclusively from the point of view of Paris; consequently, attention has been more and more directed to the provincial archives. Hitherto, indeed, the object of the investigator has usually been to trace the progress of the Revolution itself in the several localities. But our judgment concerning the several stages in that tremendous episode is necessarily colored by our beliefs as to the evils which occasioned or preceded it. We may remember, for instance, how Mr. John Morley rebukes Burke's sentimentalism by a reference to the "mainmortables in the gorges of the Jura." And hence it is coming to be felt that an exact understanding of the prevailing social conditions in the half century before the outbreak is a good deal more instructive than the details of this or that atrocity after the outbreak had once taken place. The schism in the nation is still so far from being healed, and historical work has unfortunately been so well organized in two rival camps, that we may expect the inquirers for some time to bring forth from the mass of material at their

disposal mainly what suits partisan prepossessions. However, with the increase in the number of students, and the application of a sounder historical method—created, perhaps, first in the École des Chartes, in the investigation of the less contentious mediæval field, and then applied to later centuries—we may hope for a growing objectivity and a more general approximation of results. It does not seem improbable that within a generation all intelligent students of the subject will agree as to the facts of pre-revolutionary France: there will doubtless always be room for difference of opinion as to the moral judgment to be passed upon them.

M. Camille Bloch, a graduate of the École des Chartes, is now the archivist of the Department of the Loiret, which has Orléans for its chief town, and he has taken advantage of the opportunities of his position to look into some of the official documents of the last decade of the *ancien régime* in that region. He is careful, and seeks to be fair, and the result is a collection of papers of considerable value. In the first of these he sets before us, with the help of the correspondence of the intendant of Orléans, the difficulties which that official experienced in carrying out the edicts of 1763-4, introducing free trade in grain. He shows that a series of bad harvests aroused all the old popular hostility against "forestallers" and "regrators," and that the intendant himself, ardent believer in the doctrines of "the economists" as he supposed himself, was carried off his feet and urged the Government to reimpose the old market restrictions. He shows how the Government courageously stuck by its principles—and it must be remembered that this was a dozen years before Turgot's ministry—and refused to yield to popular clamor until the Parlement threw the weight of its authority on the side of the populace. But he also points out that the Government was not consistent enough to leave the grain trade altogether alone; that it still thought it must take measures for the provisioning of Paris; that the agents of the "Compagnie Malisset," with which it had quite innocently made a contract for this purpose, did somewhat abuse their semi-official position, and that, though the "Pacte du Famine" is a pure myth, the populace had some reason for grumbling.

The next paper is a statistical survey of the distribution of landed property in certain parishes around Orléans, based upon the assessment rolls for the "vingtième" in 1787. According to the figures here presented, the amount of land owned by the peasants varied enormously—from 18 to 78 per cent., the highest figure being reached in what was by far the largest parish. But, in spite of M. Bloch's elaborate tabulations—somewhat too elaborate, indeed—the figures can tell us but little without some further account than is here given of the rural situation. It is an obvious suggestion that the wide differences in amount of land *owned* by the peasants has something to do with the prevalence of métayage in part of the district. If so, one would like to know whether the métayers were much worse off than peasant owners, and whether their tenure was practically less stable.

Everybody who has read De Tocqueville knows his chapter on "The Great Administrative Revolution," the work of the reforming monarchy, "which preceded the political revolution." In his third paper, M. Bloch studies the process of formation, in the *généralité* of Orléans, of the "municipal assemblies" prescribed for every parish by the edicts of 1787. He is rather inclined to magnify the differences between these councils and those created in 1789; but he candidly observes that the latter grew out of the former, and his own account seems to indicate that, in their actual constitution, there was little difference between them. One of the interesting points brought out by M. Bloch is the resemblance in the matter of property qualification. He calls our attention to the fact that reformers like Condorcet—in this, as he notices, only carrying out the doctrines of Turgot—actually proposed the exclusion from the suffrage of all but the owners of landed property. Condorcet's proposition, laid down in 1787, that only the proprietors of a land ought to be regarded as its citizens, is an exact French version of the Scotch Lord Braxfield's sentiments, familiar to the admirers of 'Virginibus Puerisque.' What Stevenson calls sentiments "cynically anti-popular" in the Scotland of 1793 were the height of physiocrat enlightenment. But the explanation is to be found in the incidental remark of Condorcet, that "the proprietors of land are very numerous in France." Like most abstract political propositions, the bearing of this principle, common to Turgot and "Weir of Hermiston," lies in its application.

The *cahiers* sent up to the States-General of 1789 from the Bailliage d'Orléans form the subject of the next paper. The agricultural grievances are familiar enough; we should like to know who wrote them down, considering that, as the previous paper has told us, there were many parishes in which no one could write but the curé. More novel is the account of the demand by the smaller "tradesmen" of Orléans for the complete restitution of the métier (or gild) system. There seems no evidence of the existence of an oppressed journeyman class in 1789; the proposal that the métiers should be altogether abolished proceeded entirely, it would seem, from the "haute bourgeoisie."

The sixth and last paper—we may pass over the fifth, which is of slighter interest—is of a different character. It deals, not with local conditions, but with the wide subject of the commercial treaty with England in 1786, and it is based on the unpublished letters of the English Ambassador (Sir William Eden) now in the English Foreign Office. M. Bloch makes it clear that the treaty excited almost as much discontent in England as in France; nevertheless, he comes to the conclusion that the French complaints had more justification. He thinks that England gained more than France by the bargain, and that Lord Sheffield was right when he declared that "the French for once were taken in." This is a conclusion which evidently troubles M. Levasseur, the distinguished economist, who furnishes a preface to M. Bloch's work, and who probably wants to think as well as he can of the partial application of free-trade principles; and, indeed, M. Bloch certainly does not go into the matter with sufficient detail to make out his case. But the negotiations and their outcome are not without their significance, whether that point can be decided or no. The difficulty is not so much to make a fair bargain as to persuade the two nations that it is so; and as nations get thoroughly democratized without ceasing to be protectionist, the prospects for believers in reciprocity treaties are likely to become less rather than more cheerful as time goes on.

The Churches of Rouen. By the Rev. Thomas Perkins, M.A.—*The City of Chartres:* Its Cathedral and Churches. By H. J. L. J. Massé, M.A. (Bell's Handbooks to Continental Churches.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: The Macmillan Co.

We have on divers occasions discussed separately the greater number of the score of volumes in the English series. A high general average of merit was found to exist in them, while the difference between the volumes with regard to the thoroughness of treatment, and with regard especially to the keenness of the author's eye for artistic distinctions, was found to be considerable. The French series has begun with Chartres and Rouen: but the attempt to include all the important architectural fine art of the city loads the book in each case very heavily. In Chartres this may not be felt so much; the parish churches there are of minor importance, however interesting to the student who takes time and gives continuous thought to his work, and the other buildings of the town have among them that character which is of infinite interest to the seeker for the picturesque and the antique, but is of less importance when they are considered as objects of historical research. The Cathedral may, therefore, be allowed to occupy the whole of Mr. Massé's volume, excepting a preliminary chapter of six pages and a final one of eight pages; and so much space as is left may be thought to suffice for the Cathedral itself when treated in the popular way inevitable to such a series. But in the case of Rouen the two unique churches of S. Ouen and S. Maclou dispute with the Cathedral the time and the affectionate regard of every visitor to the Norman capital; and accordingly these two churches taken together occupy almost exactly as much space in the volume as the Cathedral itself. There remain still a number of minor churches, nine of which are treated in a single appendix of three pages; and nothing is said of the other buildings of the town, important as they are. In fact, Rouen, though despoiled of the greater number of its ancient private houses, is still so rich in monuments of every epoch from the beginnning of the twelfth to the end of the eighteenth century, that two volumes of the size of this would not do it as much justice as the single volume does for Chartres. It seems a pity that this obvious consideration has not been allowed to influence the arrangement of this series.

It is a pleasure to see how heartily Mr. Perkins enjoys the buildings which he studies. He is worried by the assertions of Ruskin and other theorists about the reasons for the difference between late Gothic and early Gothic architecture, and he is troubled because he likes S. Maclou much better than his masters would allow him to do. In like manner, he feels deeply the astonishing constructional merit of S. Ouen and also its cold formality of design. In fact, if this writer had not been swayed by Fergusson and Ruskin as he seems to have been, he would prove an excellent architectural critic for one who is not wholly absorbed in the study of that art. The illustrations are, as we found them in the

English series, extremely well chosen. There are comparative plans of the Cathedral and of S. Ouen; there are about thirty-five half-tones and a few line cuts of some value; but this is not to say much because pictures of the buildings of Rouen are so abundant. What is worthy of note is the very careful selection of the subjects; it would be hard to choose better.

As for Chartres, advantage is taken of the more ample space afforded to make a somewhat minute study of the famous sculptures of the porches. The great north porch and the equally important south porch have been analyzed so far as that many of the portrait statues are identified, and all or nearly all of the symbolic sculptures are explained though briefly. The as yet incomplete restoration of the church is also inquired into and treated with what seems perfect equity. In like manner, though there is not much artistic discussion, what little is said about this famous cathedral—unequalled, perhaps, in its effect upon minds the most sensitive to appeals of architectural fine art—is well said. The photographs are taken from very well chosen points of view, and there are some which even the experienced and well-supplied collector of such memoranda will be glad to see. On the other hand, the line cuts of details are singularly awkward and cold in drawing. Most of them have been chosen from the publication of the Archæological Society of the Department of Eure-et-Loir, a society which has not covered itself with glory, in this instance at least. Two line cuts of different origin are from drawings by Mr. Gerald C. Horsley, and these have the evidence of that minute care in detail which marks so much of the work of English students travelling and studying on the Continent. One finds himself vexed by the doubt excited in the mind of him who studies the drawing of the southwest tower facing page 3, namely, whether the imbricated pattern on the sloping walls of the spire and the sharp-edged notch pattern on the ribs were put in here as specimens of what covered all those surfaces from top to bottom. Photographs of the tower taken at epochs very wide apart show these patterns covering the whole surface, and memory confirms the report of the photographs; and if the draughtsman was justified in putting in this detail to no greater extent than he needed it for his own purposes, it does not follow that the reproduction of it here without a word of explanation is excusable.

Japanese Plays and Play-Fellows. By Osman Edwards. New York: John Lane.

Mr. Edwards resided in Japan just long enough. For the writing of a charming book like this, the measure of time was ideal. It was not over six months nor less than six weeks—sufficient to enjoy with rapture and without one pang. As nicely calculated as the poise of Mahomet's coffin was Mr. Edwards's habitat between the alien living in "unassimilative exile," who has a malediction ready for every one of your benisons, and the work-a-day world of native traders, wage-earners, and farmers. He escaped from the dull reality of life as seen by the Briton in the ports and the Japanese in the shop and dusty roads, and for the nonce lived in a world of song, music, and fancy. His comrades were actors, singers, pleasure-seekers at the springs, and the various characters who live to amuse, for a consideration, their money-getting fellow-mortals. Sensitive especially to the manifold influences of art, fairly well prepared by some knowledge of the language, withal helped by good guides, the author saw and felt much which the tourist misses wholly. He has certainly presented us with a charming book, unique in value. For although not a little has been written upon the theatre, æsthetics and sociology of the Japanese, no one work gives us such a general insight, with solid and accurate information, into their world of appreciation and amusement. Here not only do we see them seeking enjoyment in nature and art, but we are let into the secrets of the harmony between the islander and his environment. Other features, glaringly lacking in so many modern books on Japan, depth and perspective, are here supplied. We are made to feel that there are well-nourished roots as well as flower and fruit.

Heeding not the Jeremiads of resident aliens or the bitter cry of outcast professors, this æsthetic Londoner passed at once from the seaports and foreign communities into the atmosphere of the theatre. Here, indeed, the heirs of all the ages of Dai Nippon do themselves take refuge from the matter-of-fact routine of their modern life, and the strenuousness of politics and modern machinery generally. Outside may be engine and steamer, but, within, the Middle Ages still reign, for feudal and spectacular Japan lives on the boards and in the old costumes. The new and reforming *soshi* actors may attempt the modernization of the stage by grafting bud and twig from Paris and London on the traditional stock, but their success is not conspicuous. The century-old stories of feudalism and of the heroic and divine age still thrill mighty audiences. In spite of what even conservative reform led by Danjuro may bring in, or modern mechanical facilities furnish, facial expressions and contortions are still beloved of the native spectator, and these more than anything else stir him beyond himself to cry out "Hi-ya, hi-ya."

In recent years there has been a revival of the classical opera or religious play called No, there being in Tokio no fewer than six troupes with a repertory of from two to three hundred plays. Cultured conservatives still furnish admirers who appreciate the rhythmic posture of the characters, the dancing, the music, and the allusions to phases of life gone a thousand years ago. The No can never be popular; but with Japanese nobles and educated audiences, fit though few, they will probably persist for centuries to come. "Being compressed within severe limits, . . . they present in exquisite epitome the literature, the history, the musical and choregraphic art of mediæval Japan." In his chapter on Popular Plays the author also analyzes the ideals and work of the new school of dramatic art (*soshi*), showing reasons for their lack of success in Japan. The new plays are more apt to be a series of tableaux than true expressions of Japanese life, for the people "value Western imports of a material kind, but prefer their own moral and social ideals to those of foreigners. Railways and ironclads may be readily adopted, but not the New Testament or the New Woman." So long as native audiences demand a whole day's entertainment, and the orchestra is never silent, requiring falsetto tones in the actor, and men monopolize the stage, and a playwright must satisfy manager, actor, and musician, who all wish to interpolate for the amusement of the uncritical multitude, it is hard to see how reform of the old popular drama can be accomplished.

At the antipodes of that book-maker who, before starting for Japan, vowed not to refer to the *musume*, or the geisha, our author scarcely loses sight of her; while in the chapters entitled Geisha and Cherry Blossom, Playing with Fire, and The Scarlet Lady, he walks hand in hand with her and her less honorable sisters all the way through. In Vulgar Songs, he shows how the people dream and sing and write poetry very copiously to gods earthly as well as heavenly, and to trees and flowers. With true British insularity our author uses, all the way through, the abominable vulgarism "rickshaw," while all his black sheep, both rams, ewes, and lambs, are Americans. Nevertheless, his rhetoric is lush, reminding us on every page of the Japanese citizen, formerly of America, Lafcadio Hearn, to whom he dedicates the book with admiring gratitude. There are sixteen beautifully colored reproductions of native pictures, and an index of plays, persons, and places. Though light be his themes and highly improper some of his subjects, Mr. Edwards's book is a valuable addition to the library.

The Spanish People.—Treason and Plot. By Martin A. S. Hume. D. Appleton & Co.

To Mr. Martin Hume the composition of a work on Spain, or the reign of Queen Elizabeth, has become a mere incident in the year's work. Knowing the facility with which he writes, we are not surprised to receive two new books that bear his name: 'The Spanish People' and 'Treason and Plot.' The first of these is the opening volume in the "Great Peoples" series, edited by Prof. York Powell. The "Heroes," the "Leaders," and the "Nations" all having had their turn, an opportunity has at last come to the "Peoples." What the aim of the present scheme is may be gathered from a statement by the editor: "It is, in fact, not so much a set of political or military or even social histories as a sequence of readable studies on the tendencies and potencies of the chief peoples of the world, that this series will strive to present." Each contributor will be an expert, who, it is implied, has also the gift of writing agreeably. With such an aim in view Prof. York Powell must have been glad to secure 'The Spanish People.' Mr. Hume expresses the hope that "this story of the progressive evolution of a sympathetic and epoch-making people may commend itself to the student as well as to the general reader." In other words, he has made his book weighty as well as popular. There are a good many footnotes, and Mr. Hume does not shrink from calling the provinces of Roman Spain by their Latin names. The best feature of his treatment is simplicity. He sets out to trace the rise and progress of broad tendencies. Copious details are furnished, but the original purpose of restricting the topics to the most important is not forgotten. One motive which lends unity to the book is the stress laid upon local allegiance. Mr. Hume attaches great weight to the regional character of Spanish institutions, and his narrative is in large part a development of the idea that the centrifugal tendency explains

the paradoxes of Spanish history. The strength of local sentiment "has aided the geographical causes in preventing the complete fusion of the peoples, and has retarded the organization of the nation on the usual modern lines of unity of race and soil; because the separate regional units have retained traditions of their primitive institutions, and have resisted political absorption, as strongly as their circumstances have run counter to ethnological amalgamation." Mr. Hume is more hopeful for the future of Spain than nine observers out of ten would be. He thinks she has "cast off her winding-sheet and has entered again into the land of living nations." "The loss of the colonies in the last war with America must not be accepted as a sign of fresh decadence in the nation, but as the natural result of the political and administrative dishonesty which itself is the last dying remnant of the bad old times. The danger which still threatens Spain is the ineradicable tendency of certain regions to assert autonomy."

'Treason and Plot' is as special in its scope as 'The Spanish People' is general. It seems to have sprung out of Mr. Hume's recent work on the Spanish calendars for the reign of Elizabeth, and is limited to the last decade of the Queen's life. The author has already described in his 'Year after the Armada' the attempt of an English freebooting expedition to place a pretender on the throne of Portugal. The action is now shifted to England, where Spanish agents continued to hatch conspiracies against the Protestant form of government until, and even after, the accession of James I. The plots which Mr. Hume examines, though of the same origin, were organized in different parts of Great Britain and Ireland by a wide variety of persons. The national victory of England over the Spaniards had deeply impressed the Catholics and caused a breach among them. During the early part of the reign they had all been willing to attack the heretical queen, but after the Armada many of them came over to her side. "It was this new patriotism that divided the Catholic forces in England, and the knowledge, then general, of Spain's selfish objects that divided them abroad; and, as a consequence of the changed position, the struggles to impose Catholic supremacy upon England that followed the catastrophe of the Armada differed entirely from those that preceded it." We shall not attempt to distinguish between the numerous plots which Mr. Hume has ferreted out, or even to state the leading facts in that most interesting of them, the Lopez conspiracy. The causes of failure are more suggestive than the details of intrigue, while the conduct of certain individuals is more singular than either.

Elizabeth herself plays a slight part in this volume, but such is not the case with her successor. Polwhele and Collens, Yorke and Williams, Father John Cecil and Father Henry Walpole are among the forgotten names of history. On the contrary, James VI. was a king, and his plots for the succession belong to a different class frrom the by-play of private cabal. Mr. Hume drives another large spike into James's coffin by tracing his manœuvres with the Papists in 1599 and 1600. Thanks to Tyrone, the chances of Protestantism were fast being clouded, and Spain had good hopes of making England Catholic through Ireland. It was a juncture which encouraged the Scottish King to bid for Catholic support. "James, almost for the only time in his life, was warlike, with, as he thought, all Catholic Europe behind him, and the English Puritans betrayed by their leader [Essex]; and the moderate Cecil party were face to face with the fact that they had been outflanked and outbidden by the King of Scots. The religion of England, which meant the fate of civilization, was trembling in the balance." Sir Robert Cecil, by dint of craft, finally changed the aspect of the situation and brought James in as a Protestant King, but Spain came near winning a victory on the eve of Elizabeth's death. In 'Treason and Plot' Mr. Hume has been enabled to use a good many rare manuscripts, and his entertaining volume has the merit of breaking new ground.

The Play of Man. By Karl Groos, Professor of Philosophy in the University of Basel, author of 'The Play of Animals.' Translated, with the author's coöperation, by Elizabeth L. Baldwin; preface by J. Mark Baldwin. 1901. D. Appleton & Co. 8vo, pp. 412.

Play is activity without serious intent, the exercise of an impulse merely for the enjoyment derived from it. It is also called by Dr. Groos experimentation, and may be enjoyed by one or many. The first play of the infant is with the sense of touch, when it becomes conscious, and the touch sensation is a seat of pleasure the life long; so is the sense of temperature, which is akin to touch. The specialized senses, taste, smell, sound (audition and sound-producing), sight, with perception of color, form, and movement, all have their playful as well as serious activities. Indeed, active bodily play is consciously known and enjoyed through sight and touch sensations.

The second division of play relates to the manifold coördinated muscular movements of which our bodies are capable, and which are necessary for life's tasks. Here belong all playful movements of the bodily organs, desultory or cultivated, and all play with foreign bodies. If any one desires to appreciate the enormous amount of time and energy spent on this part of the subject, let him consult the Patent Office or some dealer in sporting goods—though there is a distinction to be drawn between play and professional sport.

The third class of play is in the use of the mental powers, thinking, feeling, and willing. The reader will recall the delight of early days in games of memory, of imagination, attention, and the reasoning powers. Here is the place for riddles and conundrums, and the birthplace of humor. Our author's discussion of the play of the feelings brings out all that class embracing the enjoyment of pain, grief, surprise, and fear. The "luxury of grief," the enjoyment of tragedy, the tyranny of hurtful fashions, no less than the acute pleasure of eating horseradish, the shock of a cold plunge, and the sting of fiery drink, are as keen as the most delightful feelings. Play with the will is illustrated by the effort to avoid laughing when two persons stare at each other.

Part second of the work before us is concerned with plays in which two or more persons are involved, including fighting plays, in which the contestants measure their strength, mental or physical; indirect contest plays, as in betting and gambling; offensive plays, destructiveness, teasing, and the comic; by way of supplement, hunting plays and witnessing contests. The influence of sex is appreciated in this connection. The last forty pages of the work are devoted to summing up the results of the preceding chapters in theories of play, physiological, biological, psychological, æsthetical, sociological, and pedagogical.

From the physiological standpoint two principles underlie the theory of play, namely, that it is the discharge of surplus energy, and that it is the recreation of exhausted powers. These are supplemented by the tendency to repetition and the trance condition, or what might be called the recklessness of play. From the biologist's point of view the genetic explanation of play is not found in the inheritance of acquired characters, nor in Darwinian natural selection, nor in the new doctrine of germinal selection. Play depends on the elaboration of immature capacities to full equality with perfected instinct, and the evolution of hereditary qualities to a state of adaptability and versatility surpassing the most perfect instinct. There is no general impulse to play.

On the psychological side, play is the satisfaction of inborn impulses. The sensorimotor and mental capacities press for discharge and lead to enjoyment which they find in play. The most elementary psychic accompaniment of play is the enjoyment derived from the satisfaction of an instinct which makes play an object for psychology—that is, when actions acquire, through repetition, the character of conscious processes, accompanied with enjoyment. These are grounded on attention, the demand for efficient cause, imagination, or illusion, and sense of relief from the bondage of work and life's anxieties. Play and fine art have their meeting-ground in pleasure. The lowest form of æsthetic enjoyment is identical with sensuous play. Although art transcends the sphere of play, it is rooted in playful experimentation and imitation. Play differentiates artistic production from common toil, and makes appreciation of the thing go hand in hand with its production.

Play, from the sociological point of view, finds its ground in the impulse for aggregation and that for communication, partly to follow suit and be influenced, and partly to overrule. In the one case it prepares the individual to be a harmonious unit in a complex whole, on the other it is a preliminary practice in the art of ruling. The educational value of play has been recognized from the time of Plato. Between the austere belief that play is trivial in pedagogy, and the effort to reduce all study to frivolous play, there is that exalted condition in which "the very exertion of physical and mental powers in work involving all the capabilities fills the soul with joy. This is the highest and noblest form of work." As to guiding play to useful ends, there are wrong roads as well as right ones, since too much restraint "meddles with the tender buds of childhood's garden," and no guidance conducts to lawlessness and overplay.

Dr. Groos's work is written in a charming style, and is faithfully translated out of the German. The author's modesty in differing from others in opinion, as well as in stating his own, disarms criticism.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 5, 1901.

The Week.

A tribute from Gen. MacArthur to the Filipinos, quoted in the Chicago *Record-Herald*, is none the less interesting because it is the praise of the conqueror for the conquered. He finds their character "lovable," themselves "intelligent, sympathetic, poetical," and he has all the Imperialistic optimism that the islands will quickly become "Americanized and an addition to the United States to be proud of," the people being already "imbued with the nineteenth-century spirit." He insists that it is personal liberty, and not national independence, which the Filipinos are seeking, and bases his belief that the future will be smooth sailing, upon the theory that the personal freedom to be granted to them by the American republic will completely satisfy them. Were Gen. MacArthur as close a student of history as he is reported to be of military service, he would know that nothing breeds nations and the national instinct more quickly than the desire to right personal wrongs. A nation which in the course of its first steps towards unity and out of the darkness of the Middle Ages has produced men of the type of Rizal, Buencamino, and Aguinaldo, can be counted on to produce other souls whose ideals will not stop short of government of the Filipinos, by the Filipinos, for the Filipinos. The very American text-books now imported into the islands by the ton will breed men quick to think and ready to question the rule of white men, who, Gen. MacArthur says, will never be able to do physical labor in the Philippines. At the moment Gen. MacArthur was giving out this interview, came the news that the garrison of Manila, now consisting of 1,000 soldiers and 800 white policemen, is to be increased by the addition of 400 more troops.

Little effort is longer made to conceal the fact that there is an active movement to secure the early annexation of Cuba, and that it has the support of the Administration. The Washington correspondent of the Philadelphia *Press* makes Gen. Wood's visit to the national capital the text for an exposition of the situation from the standpoint of those who favor this movement. It is held that American control must continue until a Cuban President shall have been inaugurated and a native government established, and that, even if the preliminary steps should be taken immediately, 112 days must elapse before the first election (for civil governors and a Congress) can be held, and 112 more before the second (for President and Vice-President) can occur. This means more than seven months at least; and if everything possible should be done to expedite the matter, a government could hardly be established before the latter part of next spring. The correspondent of the *Press* reports that it is the general belief that so long a postponement of the possible inauguration of a Cuban government means that there never will be one, but instead the annexation of the island, and he states that "Gen. Wood's report clearly indicates that annexation is the only salvation of the island."

It is significant that the announcement was recently made that the revised Cuban tariff, on which a great deal of time and labor has been expended, will not be promulgated. Gov. Wood is quoted as justifying this on the ground that it would be unwise to change the present system, but the correspondent of the *Press* surmises that "the real reason is that the new tariff was to have been a part of the new Cuban governmental system," and if there is never to be any Cuban Government, there had better not be a new tariff. There is an element in Cuba which favors annexation, and it is understood to be their purpose to send a delegation of their very strongest men to Washington when Congress meets, to urge upon it the wisdom and advantage of bringing Cuba in as part of the United States. Here certainly are signs enough of an active movement to secure annexation. Whether there is to be any strong opposition apparently depends upon the attitude of the protected interests in this country, and that has not yet been made clear.

The Metropolitan Museum, according to dispatches from Pekin, is soon to receive a valuable collection of Chinese bronzes, porcelains, and carvings. These inestimable objects of art were, in part at least, purchased by Mr. Squier, Secretary of the American Legation, at the numerous sales of military and missionary loot which followed the occupation of Pekin by the allied Powers. That the gift is felt to come in a questionable shape is shown by the comment of the Curator of Paintings of the Museum, which is reported in Tuesday's *Tribune*. With one of those blessed phrases of which only administrators have learned the art, Mr. George H. Story reminds us that the collection has had "a commercial experience"—has suffered, that is, a kind of purifying sea change, which makes it no longer loot, but a right honest and authenticated gift which the Museum should not hesitate to receive. Such a matter can be settled on grounds of absolute morality only by a casuist who is not too much of a connoisseur of Oriental art, and such a referee would do well to reserve his decision until he learned just how far and how thoroughly Mr. Squier's collection has been "commercialized." In law, however, a precedent is frequently more valuable than a principle, and we believe that museum directors generally, in receiving gifts of the art of inferior races—especially gifts which, like the present, follow closely upon a war—would do well to take their stand firmly upon the tradition of their craft. There is, in fact, most respectable authority for accepting loot, even when it has remained unsanctified by "a commercial experience." In this matter museum directors have never been too nice, for it is a wise director who can assert legitimacy of the smaller part even of the beautiful objects under his watch and ward. A wise director, then, never raises the question.

Mr. Bryan improved his opportunity on Labor Day to tell what he thinks about the steel strike. His first observation was that "each decade in our history shows greater production of wealth, and the men who produce it have less to show for it." This is another way of repeating the sophism that "the rich are growing richer and the poor are growing poorer"—a sophism that has been often refuted, but is always recurring because it is generally accounted useful at the polls. If wages are rising, while the cost of living at a certain standard of comfort is not increasing, then the statement, as Mr. Bryan puts it in his Labor Day speech, or in its common and more sententious form, is untrue. Whatever may be the conditions in other countries, it is untrue here that the poor are growing poorer. Not all the people in the United States are growing richer, but a large majority of them are, and the gains are not confined to any class of society. The masses are better able to secure the comforts of life in this country than they ever were before. The steel strike, which is not a strike for wages or for hours of labor, is one evidence of this fact. Mr. Shaffer and his followers have virtually declared that they have nothing to complain of as regards the remuneration of their labor. But would they not have something to say on that subject if they were growing poorer?

The report presented to the Bay View lodges of the Amalgamated Association by the two delegates recently sent to Pittsburgh is illuminating in its estimate of the genesis and present condition of the steel strike. Mr. Hickey, one of the two Bay View men, was former-

ly Vice-President of the Amalgamated, and is well qualified to understand the inner workings of the organization. His verdict must be taken as authoritative when he announces that the strike is lost, and charges President Shaffer and his associates with gross mismanagement at the least. Perhaps the greatest significance of Mr. Hickey's speech in presenting his report is, that it affords hope of as dignified a close for the strike as can now be possible. It shows that the members of the Amalgamated may not be subject to the despotic control that has been supposed. The strike might now merely collapse of its own weight, the men return to work, and nothing further be said. Such a course would leave the Amalgamated shattered almost beyond hope of recovery. Mr. Hickey confesses that serious, if not permanent, damage has been done to the union cause by President Shaffer's unwise and dishonest course.

That an influential labor journal should now urge the impeachment of President Shaffer might have been expected, in view of the impending failure of the steel strike. The editorial in the Pittsburgh *Labor World*, where the impeachment proposal appears, bases its recommendations upon a great number of charges against Mr. Shaffer, ranging from the enumeration of technical oversights of various kinds to an indictment on the real moral issues involved. The best thing in it is the count which recites that he ought to be deposed "for the blow he has given to organized labor, not only in teaching that union agreements are not contracts to be respected, but also in showing that constitutional safeguards are no guarantee to a unionist when a Shaffer is at the head of things." His contempt for pledges is the grievance of the public against him.

A white man who helped to lynch a negro found guilty by a jury of his peers and sentenced to imprisonment for life—this is the novel and gratifying news which comes from Wetumpka, Ala. If this is not the first case in which such a conviction has been secured, the others have been so isolated as to have faded from the memory of newspaper readers. Not even the resistance of a few brave sheriffs is as encouraging as this conviction, in prompt response to the appeal of ex-Gov. Jones that the law should take its course, not only with the negro, but with the negro-lynchers. How significant this conviction is, appears when one considers that the prisoner was tried in his own home district, where the sympathy of his race must have been at its highest, and that the jury itself imposed the life sentence. The same jury has since found two other men guilty of murder in the second degree and made their punishment ten years in prison for participating in the same outrage against the law. The Birmingham *Age-Herald* and the Savannah *News*, among many Southern newspapers, have been prompt to recognize the great value of these convictions, and to bestow hearty praise upon the jury and the fearless Judge Denson, who is presiding over the trials, which will not be ended until several more men are tried. Among recent notable protests, the strong words of Bishop Gailor of Tennessee must not be overlooked. "The white people," he declares, "must themselves be protected from the madness of self-ruin." No one can justly contend that such a statement smacks of exaggeration.

The news from Richmond that the Suffrage Committee of the Virginia Constitutional Convention has at last agreed upon a suffrage provision for the new Constitution, which seems certain to be adopted, settles a much-vexed question that was one of the main objects for which the convention was called. The plan is to register as voters for life, before January 1, 1903, all those who can understand the Constitution. All whites could then be put upon the voting list, while negroes could be excluded. Beginning with 1903, a property qualification would be enforced against all unregistered voters. Thus the existing white voters could be practically exempted from the operation of the property restrictions, and the eligibility of future voters could be settled in a non-partisan way, subject to the terms laid down by the suffrage clause. This is as ingenious a plan as could well be devised. It would require a long time for a test case to pass through the various courts up to the supreme tribunal, and quite possibly a final decision could not be handed down before the opening of 1903, by which time the lists of life voters would have been prepared. The other restrictions upon the suffrage would be left intact, even were the "understanding clause" pronounced unconstitutional, and would probably prove sufficient to eliminate undesirable voters. How obnoxious to negroes such provisions are likely to prove is indicated by the movement now making headway in Alabama for the defeat of the new Constitution in that State, which resorts to the same sort of subterfuges.

A remarkable uniformity in the relative proportions of the native and the foreign-born in the population of this city is disclosed by a comparison of the figures for 1900, which were given out on Thursday, with the corresponding showing in the census of 1890. So far as there has been any change, "the foreign element" shows a slight loss. The counties of New York, Kings, Queens, and Richmond, out of which Greater New York has since been made, contained eleven years ago 2,533,600 people, of whom 962,763 were born in other countries—almost exactly 38 per cent. The New York city of 1900 returned 3,437,202 inhabitants, of whom 1,270,080 were foreign-born—almost exactly 37 per cent. There has been a somewhat greater variation in the division between races during the decade. In 1890 there were 40,562 colored people in the whole territory, or 1.6 per cent.; in 1900, 67,304, or a trifle less than 2 per cent. A large proportion of the native population is practically as much foreign as that which came from other countries. In the old city of New York there were, in 1890, 852,641 white people, young and old, who had been born in the United States, but only 270,487 of these were the children of native parents, while those who either were themselves born abroad or were the children of foreign-born parents aggregated 1,219,140, or nearly 82 per cent. of all. Thus, while "the foreign element," as the phrase is often understood, eleven years ago was but 38 per cent. of the whole population, and was only 37 per cent. last year, an overwhelming majority of the people of Manhattan are foreign in their bringing-up and inherited notions.

The means by which Philadelphia has been controlled and plundered by the Republican ring that plays in that city the part which Tammany plays here, continue to be revealed. Facts just now being brought to light illustrate the close alliance betwen the Republican ring and the corrupt Democratic machine, and show how completely the minority party has abandoned the duty of watchfulness and exposure. Ex-Gov. Pattison is making a tour of the wards, inquiring into the condition of the local Democratic organizations, and his discoveries are little short of startling. One ward leader admitted that there had not been a minority inspector at the polls in his ward for five years, and that there was absolutely no check upon the opportunity for corrupt ballots and false returns. "It has become a question," he said, "of how many votes the Republicans want, not how many they cast. They count for the machine as many as they want." Like conditions were found in many other wards. It is freely admitted that this apathy on the part of the minority is not so much the result of continued defeat—though this factor undoubtedly enters into it—as of the relations between the two machines. In many cases there is practically but one machine, opportunities for plunder being distributed between those who call themselves Republicans and those who call themselves Democrats. There is something intensely suggestive to citizens of New York in these Philadelphia revelations. What would be the

result if an investigation were made in this city of the condition of the minority organization in the districts which always return large Tammany majorities?

The news that the assessed personal property valuations for Cook County, Ill. (Chicago and its suburbs) will amount to approximately only $90,000,000 is amusing and discouraging. At this rate, supposing the estimate of $250,000,000 a correct statement of the value of Cook County realty, $35,000,000, at least, must be added to the taxable basis in some way in order to avoid a larger deficit than usual. The efforts of ex-Gov. Altgeld to detect the alleged attempts of various prominent men to undervalue their personal property upon the tax-schedules, resulted only in a laughable farce; clerks and hotel attendants being haled before the Board of Review to answer questions regarding their concealed wealth. An increase of only $12,000,000 over the figures of the assessors was ordered by the Board of Review—no more, probably, than would have been added in any event, independently of the ingenuous Altgeld. On the other hand, much property has, of course, escaped appraisal, as it always will and always must, under the existing system of personal-property taxation.

The recent decision in the ticket-brokers' case at Buffalo possesses a curious interest. The Lackawanna Road had applied for an injunction against sixty-one brokers in Buffalo who were dealing in special tickets, on the ground that these tickets constituted a contract with individual purchasers. Such a contract would be broken if buyers were allowed to violate the terms of purchase by selling to brokers. This contention is held by Judge Hazel of the Federal Court to be correct. The roads have a right to make special contracts with particular individuals, and to protect such contracts by prosecuting the brokers. So much might have been anticipated, from the legal standpoint, whatever may be thought of the ethical principle involved. The most interesting feature of the case lies in an unexpected turn in the decision. Since the passage of the Interstate Commerce Act and the various anti-pooling acts, it has been usual for courts to nullify contracts implying a violation of either of those statutes. It appears that the special tickets sold by the Lackawanna have been issued pursuant to an agreement with other roads, which implies a violation of law by the avoidance of competition between roads. The tickets are evidences of this illegal agreement, and consequently contracts with purchasers based upon another contract, itself illegal, must be void. The use of an equitable remedy, like injunction proceedings, implies that the complaining party to the case shall have done equity, and hence the remedy asked by the Lackawanna must be denied.

The public revenues continue to play queer pranks with the legislative prophets. It will be remembered that the revenue-reduction law of March 2 was designed to cut down internal revenue by $40,000,000 per annum. The law went into operation July 1, and was attended, during the ensuing month, by an increase instead of decrease, the total receipts rising $2,300,000 over July, 1900, and even the internal revenue going $770,000 higher. We pointed out, when the July figures were at hand, that, though estimates might be at fault, the increase was probably temporary, and should be set down to the same causes as the similar gain under similar conditions in 1883. This suggestion seems to have been correct; at all events, the close of August shows the public revenue to have decreased in the second month under the tax-reduction law about as much as had been originally expected. The total receipts for August fell about four million dollars below those for the same month of 1900, all of the decrease being from internal revenue. Continued at this rate, the reduction would make good the estimates of last spring.

But, in the meantime, public expenditure has made a totally unexpected drop. Secretary Gage, in his estimates of last December, looked for a substantial increase. He made, it is true, allowance for some appropriations which did not occur. For the regular sources of outlay, however, he figured out that the army, during the current fiscal year, would cost only $27,000,000 less than in the year before, and the navy $18,800,000 more. But the August figures show a decrease of nearly half a million in naval outlay, and of no less than six millions in the War Department. The outlay even for the civil establishment is reduced nearly five millions; the net result being that the month's expenditure falls ten million dollars below that of August, 1900. Instead of the moderate deficit returned for the month a year ago, the surplus of revenue over expenditure will run to something like $5,000,000. Clearly, if decrease in public outlay is to continue at any such rate, a $40,000,000 reduction in the fiscal year's tax receipts will be a small affair. In the first two months of the fiscal year 1901 there was created a deficit of $4,800,000. For the same period in the present fiscal year there is a surplus of $4,400,000.

When the Transvaal war broke out in the autumn of 1899, the question instantly arose in the mind of financiers, Where will the European banks obtain their fresh supplies of gold? During the calendar year 1898 production on the Witwatersrand had amounted to $75,500,000, which was one-fourth of the total output of the world, and much more than either Australia or the United States produced. Practically all of this Transvaal product went at once to Europe. During the nine months ending with September, 1899, England had imported from South Africa, by the Board of Trade returns, $68,300,000, or an average of $7,500,000 monthly. On October 10 the Boer ultimatum was issued, and within a week mining and transportation of the Transvaal gold were stopped. In November, England imported from that quarter gold to the total value of only $231,000. During the whole year 1900 the estimated output of the Rand was but $8,300,000. Of this amount, moreover, only $1,890,000 came to England, as against which insignificant receipt London was forced to send $8,900,000 to South Africa itself, to provide for war expenses. Thus far in 1901 shipments of Transvaal gold to Europe have been less even than in 1900. Add to this the fact that the Boer war has already lasted three times as long as the experts of 1899 expected, and it might be supposed that the influence on gold supplies would have been extremely serious.

But a comparison of the stock of gold now held by the world's great banking institutions with their reports before the Transvaal war broke out, makes a showing which few people would have predicted in 1899. The position of the American reserves is generally known, The Treasury holds, in gold uncovered by deposit certificates, $9,000,000 more than it held two years ago to-day, and the estimated total amount circulating outside the Treasury has increased by no less than $150,000,000. This has been commonly assumed as a consequence of our national prosperity. But, if the same test be applied in the case of foreign institutions, it will appear that the Bank of England holds $18,000,000 more gold than it held two years ago last week, the Bank of France $100,000,000 more, the Bank of Austria-Hungary $43,000,000 more, with smaller gains in every other Continental institution except the Bank of Russia, which has lost some $84,000,000 in the period. Such a showing for the world at large is as peculiar as it is interesting. To some degree this general gain, in the face of the Witwatersrand embargo, has been caused by the increase of $28,000,000 or thereabouts in the yearly North American production. The return of gold from outlying points, such as India, Egypt, and Japan, has had still greater influence. No doubt, also, the return of specie from country circulation, on the slackening of Europe's interior trade, has contributed large amounts to the city markets. The general outcome proves, however, the great capacity of the modern financial world to adapt itself to really troublesome emergencies.

AN "EXPERT" ON THE CUBAN CONSTITUTION.

The *Tribune*, for its issue of last Saturday, secured the services of "one of the ablest Cuban experts in this country," who wrote on "Cuban Constitution Defects." "His official position precludes the use of his name in connection with this analysis," says the *Tribune*. Fortunately, his unknown official style cannot preclude a counter-analysis of the extraordinarily disingenuous article to which that paper accorded two columns of valuable space.

The chief defect in the Cuban Constitution, according to its critic, is that it permits an excessive centralization of power in the hands of the President and Congress. He says that "the provinces, corresponding to the States of the American Union, practically are without power. They have no legislature, but simply a provincial council, a single body whose powers are limited to correspond somewhat to the duties of county commissioners, as defined in many States of the Union." This is a fair description of the Cuban system, but the following comment, "The form of government is an imitation of the American system, not one growing out of local conditions," is merely self-contradictory, while the further statement that "even municipalities are at the mercy of Congress," and that "this is a degree of centralization never before attempted by any successful government," is simply false. One would prefer to impute so grossly misleading a comment rather to ignorance than to malice. We shall see from the further analysis of his article that our "Cuban expert" is apparently ignorant of the constitutions of the so-called Latin nations, which naturally served as models for the Cuban Convention.

Descanting upon the absence of local self-government under the Constitution, the critic goes on to say that the plan, "if it had been presented to the Constitutional Convention which framed the Constitution of the United States, would not have had a patient hearing." Very likely, but does it really argue a peculiar heinousness in a people that has never had genuine provincial autonomy that it does not act like a people which had had a century and more of local self-government? Is it fair to ask the Cubans, who had no states, to act on the theory that they had? It is a novel requirement that a Constitutional Convention should be obliged to create for itself presentable historic antecedents. Considering the history of the island, the Constitution is a liberal one. That a race which has suffered the miseries of civil war, and has never had the chance to build up strong local institutions, should desire a strong central government is most natural. The centralization, when all is said, is no greater than that of the French Government, which must apparently be classed among the "unsuccessful."

Naturally, after saying that the Cuban system would have been impatiently rejected by the Fathers, and that it is a unique monstrosity, the critic pauses to repeat his favorite comment that it is "a theoretical adaptation of the American system." Continuing, he expresses his surprise that a government which "is no federation, but a single state," like Cuba (like France and like Italy, he might have added), should presume to exercise the prerogatives of statehood—raise armies and provide for its own defence, for example. Merely remarking that this argument would make it right for federated Switzerland to maintain a military force, but wholly presumptuous for centralized Belgium, we pass to the most important part of the argument, which concerns the powers of the President.

The President, by Section 10 of Article 68, "shall appoint for the discharge of the other duties created by law the proper officers, provided that the appointment thereof is not specially delegated to other officers or bodies." Without noting that this "sweeping power" of appointing all officers of the central government is practically that which our own Constitution grants to the President of the United States, the *Tribune's* "expert" declares, in substance, that this is an awful power to be in the hands of an ambitious or an unprincipled man—of a Cuban, in short. This is all as true as the multiplication-table; but when he goes on to say that "there is no civil-service list to which he must confine himself, but he is absolutely unrestrained by anything but the policy which he may please to adopt," he deals in the grossest misrepresentation. Article 3 of Section 10 reserves to the Cuban Congress the right to regulate domestic and foreign commerce, postal and telegraphic service, and all railroads; article 8 of the same section, the right to "organize naval and military services"; article 10, the right "to regulate the establishment of all service of roads, canals, and ports." That is, the appointive power of the Cuban President is in the fullest measure subject to the law-making power of Congress. It is in all essentials our own system, and here, if anywhere, the charge of servile imitation would lie. In view of these facts, how puerile to say that there "is no civil-service list." Since when, pray, have civil-service lists been provided for in national constitutions? Since when have we been so virtuous ourselves? If the Cuban Congress wishes to borrow a leaf from our book, and by the prompt passage of a Civil-Service Law set its official house in order, it is free to do so.

It would be easy to show that the requirement that a Presidential decree be countersigned by a Minister is in direct imitation of the similar Constitutional restriction upon the Spanish monarch, that it is a mere form, and that it is not likely to be "a fruitful source of irritation." Here, in fact, is tradition, the absence of which in the Constitution has been so bitterly deplored—not an original deviltry of the present Cubans. With equal ease it could be shown that the talk of tariffs between the separate provinces raises a sheer bugaboo for the shrinking American investor. In the first place, the immemorial custom of the Latin countries is against interprovincial tariffs. The provincial governments of Cuba must, furthermore, restrict themselves to taxes which are "compatible with the general tributary system of the republic." The Cuban Congress would certainly exert this power to prevent the levying of provincial tariffs, and the attempt to start a scare on this ground was too foolish even for a self-elected Cuban expert.

We prefer not to discuss the tone of an article of which the constant basis is the belief that all Cuban forms of government are bad, and the Cubans utterly unfit to manage their own affairs. This is a tenable view, though, we believe, a mistaken one, and if it had been frankly expressed, an opponent could only have registered his frank dissent. To cover an attack upon Cuban independence as such under the guise of an expert analysis of a Constitution, was little creditable to anybody concerned.

THE LARGER HOPE FOR THE CITY.

If little minds go ill with a great empire, small views do not become the citizens of a great municipality. Yet, if one were to let the newspaper gossips lead him by the nose, he would think that the anti-Tammany campaign in New York had already dwindled down to petty personalities and political considerations no larger than a mustard-seed. The flood of rumor and chatter which makes up each day's "news" about probable nominations, would give to a foreigner the impression that we in this city could not see the forest for the trees; that we were fussing and fretting about anise and cumin to the entire neglect of the weightier matters of the law; and that we were going about with a micrometer trying to measure a large man.

We think this appearance of nervous pettiness is mostly a creation of the newspapers, and that the men who really have the shaping of the campaign in their hands are not taking so contracted a view of things as they are credited with. Their words are often misquoted or misinterpreted, and the contradictory columns of "it is said" and "there is reason to believe" give a wholly wrong impression, we opine, of their real attitude, their real hopes and plans. But for the sake of the public it is high time an effort were made to hold general attention more fully and fixedly upon the

true nature of the great work before us, and of the large means that must be adopted to compass our large end. All this microscopic examination of one suggested candidate after another—all this troubled inquiry about this "vote" and the other "interest," this race and that church—tends to distract the mind, and to make us forget the magnitude of the task to which we have set our hands, and which will tax our wisdom and courage and endurance to the utmost.

Put it down first and foremost that what we are about is not electing a Mayor, but saving the city. We must not forget the city while thinking too anxiously about a candidate. It would be possible, we suppose, to elect an anti-Tammany Mayor who would not only disappoint, but destroy us. By skilful manœuvring, a man might be nominated who had made no enemies because he had no convictions, and who, by being kept under lock and key during the canvass, might slip his little way into the Mayor's chair. But if he had no notion of the work to be done, and neither capacity nor character to undertake it, what should we be advantaged? All these painful disputes about the minute "eligibility" of this name or that, in one direction or another, really begin at the wrong end. We have a mighty enterprise of reform and rescue before us, and if we look steadily enough at that, the very bulk of it will of itself rule out the puny men whom some talk of selecting to undertake it. We do not set Tom Thumb at a labor of Hercules.

The right note was struck by the Citizens' Union in its platform of last April. It pointed out the enormous disgrace and peril of a city government of which it could truly be said that the "men controlling it are using public office for private plunder." Corrupt and contaminating from top to bottom, it was in need of disinfection and renovating throughout, the Citizens' Union asserted; and then, at the end, it properly fitted worker to work, reformer to reform, by declaring roundly: "We will nominate no candidate unless his career and record are such as to justify public confidence in his assurance that, if elected, he will not use his office or permit it to be used for the benefit of any political organization."

There it all is in a nutshell—the city to be rescued, and a man to do it without fear or favor or the smirch of "politics." The spirit of that plank of the Citizens' Union platform must be put into the platform upon which the united anti-Tammany forces are to stand. This is to be not only a union campaign, but a non-partisan campaign; not a mixing up of parties with an eye to a general scramble for the spoils afterwards, but an agreement of all concerned that there are to be no politicians' spoils at all; that the city is to be officered by the best men attainable, wholly irrespective of party. "A ruler who appoints any man to an office when there is in his dominions another man better qualified for it, sins against God and against the State." That is from the Koran, not the Christian Scriptures, though full worthy of a place in them; and it is the rule which we must insist upon, in both ante-election promises and post-election performances. But what clear-sighted bravery, what tenacity, what patience, what grasp of mind and grip of will, that man will need who is called upon to apply such a canon of sound municipal government to this debauched and plundered city! We have only to think of these high standards requisite in a candidate, and we at once see that many of the men put forward as fit are dwarfed the moment they try to measure up to the work which must be done.

We should deal largely by the city, and enter into the campaign in no mean spirit. One thing is certain—Tammany cannot be beaten by shrewd devices. The tricks and intrigues, the dodges and surprises, the angling for this group and the bribing of that, we may well leave to the intrenched plunderers, adepts in low cunning as they always have shown themselves. Our reliance must be upon large forces and strong and honest men. The signs of the times are auspicious. One organized body after another is enrolling itself for warfare against the foes of civilization who insolently bestride the city. To unite them all on a broad platform of civic honesty, to give them a leader whose known capacity and character make it certain that he will make his deeds fit his words, that he will not only desire reform, but know how to effect it—that way victory lies. And it would be a victory not of candidate or party, but of the people, and would mean the triumph of the larger hope for the city and for democracy itself.

The issue should determine the candidate. We want, in our government the antithesis of Tammany rule. We can be sure of such an administration only from a man whose character and record show not merely that he is against Tammany for the purposes of the present campaign, but that he has no lurking sympathy with Tammany methods. Nobody is a fit candidate for Mayor on the anti-Tammany ticket who has been a prominent man in the Borough of Brooklyn or that of Manhattan during the last dozen or fifteen years, and failed to protest against the rule of McLaughlin or Croker so long as he could get office himself from one or other boss. Nobody is a fit candidate for the opponents of Tammany, either, who is ready to lend his reputation to Tammany now in return for its nomination if he cannot be the leader on the other side. The help of all men who are opposed to Croker now, for whatever reason, is to be welcomed, but it is not among his former followers that the leader of a hopeful reform campaign is to be sought.

It was inevitable that machine politicians should try to introduce partisan considerations, as Platt does when he says that Comptroller Coler will not do for a candidate because he supported Bryan last year, and Sheehan, when he says that the nomination of any Republican will forfeit the support of the Greater New York Democracy, while the naming of Mr. Low would drive it to endorse the Tammany ticket. The raising of the Bryan issue is absurd, while the drawing of a hard-and-fast line against any member of the Republican party is worse. There are legitimate reasons for objections to the Comptroller, based upon the prevalent distrust regarding his sincerity, but the fact that he voted the Democratic ticket in the last national campaign is not one of them. As for ruling out members of the party which supported McKinley, the ridiculous character of such a rule can be fully appreciated only when one reflects that almost every Independent Democrat within the possible range of choice voted for the Republican candidate last fall. What Sheehan really means is that he takes no interest in any movement against Tammany in the city this year which does not promise to help him and his crowd in State politics next year; and this is exactly what was to have been expected.

THE COAL QUESTION.

Little more than a year has passed since extravagant fears regarding the possible decline of her coal supremacy were expressed in England. In America correspondingly high anticipations of the future were being entertained. Exports of coal had shown a considerable increase, and it was maintained that, in spite of distance, in spite of higher freights, in spite of the low value of the product in proportion to its bulk, the advance in coal prices abroad was rapidly bringing about such a state of things that American exporters could pay all the charges and yet profitably export coal to Europe.

Several reasons for such a forecast were assigned. It was shown that the output per person employed in mining in the United States had far outstripped any analogous increase in foreign countries, and the view was advanced that greater progress in mining had been made here than elsewhere. But the chief reliance was placed on the argument developed by Jevons in 'The Coal Question' concerning the cumulative increase in cost of mining, due to the necessity of sinking shafts to lower and lower levels, and the concomitant difficulties arising from the necessity of ventilating and pumping out deeper mines and raising the product to the surface. Some months later new cause for alarm by

British coal-exporters was found in the tax of a shilling a ton on coal for foreign shipment, which was carried through Parliament by Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, despite the cries of danger from foreign competition in case the coal trade were saddled with a new export duty.

It is interesting to note how far these hasty predictions have been verified. While the average export price of British coal was estimated at 8.98 shillings per ton in 1897, at 9.92 in 1898, and at 10.72 in 1899, it ran up to 19.5 at Newcastle for long periods in 1900, and at the end of August the best steam grades were quoted at from 25 to 30 shillings. Of late, prices have received a material setback, and the return to normal conditions implies results of great economic importance, not merely to consumers, but also to the receivers of the future dividends of gas, railway, and numerous other companies. The fact that nearly all railway coal contracts are being renewed at five shillings less per ton than a year ago, while the cost of bunker coal for steamships has fallen off ten shillings a ton, will result, according to the estimate of the London *Economist*, in a saving on the year's coal bill of more than $13,000,000 to the railways and $30,000,000 to steamship-owners. Granting a yearly British consumption of 165,000,000 tons, the saving implied by a reduction of five shillings would amount to considerably over $200,000,000.

It was maintained that the export duty would necessitate a corresponding reduction in price, in order to enable British producers to compete with foreigners. This argument, however, could have applied only to export coal, and could have had but an indirect effect on the price of coal for home consumption. Moreover, it is hard to see why a forced decrease of this character should be more than the amount of the tax. As a matter of fact, recent statistics show that coal exports have slightly declined in amount, being about 25,000,000 tons for the first seven months of 1901, as against 26,000,000 for the same period in 1900. This slight decrease has taken place in the exports to Russia, Holland, and France. So very moderate a decline can afford no comfort whatever to the theorists who anticipated a wonderful opening for American coal in competition with British. For the twelve months ending with June, 1901, American coal exports showed an increase of less than 500,000 tons over the preceding year, being 7,676,149 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1901, as against 7,188,648 for the previous twelvemonth. It was admitted by many writers, a year ago, that with cheap freights something might be done by American exporters in Mediterranean ports, yet the much-talked-of Marseilles shipments have amounted to little. Only 208,941 tons in all have gone to France during the past year. While it is now reported that the special rates offered over French railways for American coal are likely to enable it to supplant the German product in Swiss markets, this is probably due merely to the temporary maintenance of rates by the German coal monopoly. These rates may break down at almost any moment. On the whole, the developments of the past year have done nothing to justify the fears expressed by British producers on account of the higher price of last summer (due, as it was, to labor troubles and exceptional foreign demand), or on account of the later export duty. They have done no more to give color to the extravagant anticipations concerning American competitive power.

There is always great danger in undertaking any kind of economic forecast. Industrial conditions are likely to change so rapidly that any such anticipations must be considered of the most hazardous character. This danger is well illustrated in the case under discussion, for the extraordinarily acute analysis of Jevons has in a number of ways proved quite incorrect, and the arguments of followers who expected that the end of the last century would certainly realize his predictions, by transferring the coal supremacy of the world from England to the United States, have once more been refuted by the logic of events. As a matter of fact, Jevons's predictions regarding the amount of output have signally failed of accomplishment. True, his forecast of prices seems to have had a curious artificial correctness, but the rise has occurred almost wholly during the past three years, and at present seems to be subject to a reaction. The irregularities in the aggregate consumption of coal from year to year cannot easily be accounted for, and show that no regular progression in demand and production can be foreshadowed. The growing use of water-power in generating electricity, and the substitution of the new and cheap supplies of crude oil in place of coal, as well as many other wholly imponderable forces, must prevent the making of accurate predictions. The whole showing is somewhat discouraging to the student of economics. Science depends for its value largely on its ability to predict the future. Even where conditions are so well known as in this case, economics fails in its forecast.

THE UNION IN THE KITCHEN.

Several things have combined within the past few months to bring forward the servant problem with renewed force. The widespread prosperity of light manufacturing industries has furnished an exceptionally strong demand for the labor of women and girls, and a better economic condition has made workers less and less willing to accept what they regard as a decline in social status, even in exchange for good wages. In England, just now, the servant question seems to be more pressing than usual, on account of the necessity for closer economy in household expenditures, resulting from higher war-taxation. This has made the domestic servants' lot somewhat harder, and the average work more exacting. Recently, in the House of Commons, it was asked whether the Post-office might not assume the work of keeping a servants' registry, with a small charge to those who might wish to consult the lists. Commenting upon this proposal, the London *Daily News* pointed out that much of the difficulty with servants is due to the overwork and bad treatment to which they are frequently subjected — causes which would not be altered by a labor-exchange of any kind.

A striking commentary upon one phase of the servant problem has been furnished by the organization in Chicago of the so-called Workingwomen's Association of America, which has received widespread, though for the most part rather flippant, consideration. The organization was addressed the other day by Miss Jane Addams and by several apostles of "the labor movement." Most of the discussion turned upon methods of raising wages and of removing the social stigma said to rest upon domestic service. Only one speaker showed an insight into the real difficulties by suggesting that the new movement would "force the employers to organize."

That the matter deserves serious consideration must be apparent to all who compare the conditions of domestic service with those of other employments. The former are absolutely *sui generis*. If real, rather than money, wages be had in mind, there can be not a shadow of doubt that the rewards of domestic labor are far larger than those of most other occupations requiring no greater skill. Few workingwomen employed in factories, offices, or shops can show a clear balance of from $15 to $30 a month after ordinary living expenses have been paid. On the other hand, the demand of employers for domestic servants is so keen that any one willing to work, though devoid of special training, or even of ordinary good character, can readily secure employment. Under such circumstances it might easily be supposed that little, if any, need for a servants' trades-union could exist.

In fact, the efforts of the Chicago organization seem to be devoted to placing domestic service on a higher social plane, and securing greater regularity of hours, with a fixed scale of wages, for the members. While these objects are legitimate, they should not exclude others which could well be aimed at by such a union if it were to work along the lines already indicated by similar bodies. What is most urgently needed was suggested by the speaker before

the union meeting who referred to the possibility of an organization of employers. If, by some form of coöperation between employers and servants, there could be worked out a mode of settling differences and establishing uniform and recognized rules of service, which should be binding upon both parties to the contract, there would certainly be much less friction than at present. The suggestion of training-schools for servants, made some time ago, but rejected by Miss Salmon in her book on 'Domestic Service,' might become feasible if regular conditions for admission to the union should be made, incompetent applicants refused, and employers thus protected against inefficient service. As a complement to such measures, the union should, like other bodies of the kind, undertake the work of supplying labor in adequate quantity and of guaranteed quality.

The objection would naturally be made that no such measures, however agreeable to employers, would be likely to be adopted by servants. It must be admitted that these objects are not the ones sought by the proposed union, and that the command of the situation is now so completely in the hands of servants that they are not likely to make concessions or surrender any advantage. Moreover, the supply of labor is already short, and might become still more scanty if restrictions as to competency and character should be placed upon those entering the occupation, while no such adequacy as is desired could be safely guaranteed. There is some reason to think, however, that these objections might ultimately be surmounted. High wages and easy and permanent conditions of employment render domestic service attractive in everything but the alleged loss of social position resulting from engaging in it, and in respect to various minor grievances. These might be redressed by a self-respecting and serious attempt to make the terms and conditions of employment fixed and uniform. Thus there are distinct possibilities in the new organization, but whether it will be developed in such a way as to shed light upon a very gloomy province of domestic life, must still be open to doubt.

THE CHURCH AS A PROTECTOR OF FORESTS.

ATHENS, August, 1901.

The eastern part of Greece, especially Attica and Argolis, is sinking almost hopelessly into an arid condition. The lack of forests to hold the moisture causes the heavy rain-fall of the winter months to sweep down the gullies and river-beds, and, overflowing these, to carry off a good deal of soil every year. Then, during the four months, June to September, as a rule, no rain falls over the greater part of the kingdom. Forests therefore find it hard to hold their own. Nothing more impresses one who has been several years continuously in Greece and then travels through Austria, for example, than luxuriant foliage and green fields in mid-summer. Within the last few years some attempt has been made at tree-planting, but this, as is so often the case in Greece, is likely to be spasmodic and to avail little against the drift already mentioned, which is powerfully assisted by goats and forest fires. Greece pays dearly for her goats. They are everywhere, and wherever they are young trees cannot grow. The holm oak, for example, if left to itself, attains a height of thirty or forty feet; but it is usually kept down by the goats to the dimensions of a shrub at the top of which they can continually gnaw.

An even greater enemy is the forest fire, because it is constantly attacking groves of larger trees—pines, for example—which have escaped the goats. A few years ago nearly the whole side of Pentelicus, which confronts Athens, was on fire for two nights, making a grand spectacle for Athens. I once counted twenty-four forest fires on a journey by sea from Piræus to Nauplia. But all these were cases where the fire was simply completing or forestalling the work of the goats. It was the cankerworm supplementing the work of the palmerworm. Fire, however, chooses independent fields for itself, and works great disasters which balance, or even overbalance, the loss caused by the constant gnawing of the goats. The burning, at the beginning of the nineteenth century, of half of the magnificent pine forest which covered Mt. Ænus in the island of Cephalonia, was counted as a great calamity throughout the Mediterranean basin, where these pines were well known under the name of *Abies Cephalonica*. About five years ago half of what was left of this forest was burned, the most serious disaster occurring to the pine forests in recent years—yet, after all, only one of a series. Hardly a summer passes in which one or more areas of several square miles are not denuded of their pines by fire.

This evil is difficult to cope with, because, in the long, dry summer, the vegetation on the surface of the soil is reduced to tinder, and when the gentle shepherd, who always smokes, throws down his match, he is likely to start a fire. He is suspected of doing it sometimes of set purpose in order to increase the area of pasturage. Of the attempts to prevent fires in the last few years that of setting guards has not proved effective. The area can hardly be covered by the available force of guards, and then, besides, *quis custodiet ipsos custodes?* Two years ago it was seriously proposed to introduce the punishment of expatriation for those who had even inadvertently set fire to a forest. This expatriation meant merely transportation to another part of Greece, but even this would, to a Greek, have considerable significance, inasmuch as to him the little town or village in which he is born is his fatherland, his πατρίδα, as he calls it. The proposed measure was never adopted, and the evil ran on. Now one of the strangest measures, perhaps, ever adopted to meet such an emergency has been taken, and the result of it may be watched with great interest.

On July 2 there appeared among the official bulletins issued by the Government an encyclical proclamation of the Holy Synod "to all priests, monks, and other Christians, to the end that they refrain rigidly for the future from burning a forest, and from every other damage to public and private forests and trees, and from concealing or protecting those guilty of such a crime." The encyclical gives effect to the proclamation by the following curse:

"If, then, contrary to hope and expectation, and in spite of this proclamation, there should be Christians who persevere in this unholy practice, abhorred of God, either setting fire to forests themselves or encouraging others in the act, or not bringing information immediately before the proper authorities against the persons whom they know to have set the fires, and not coming forward as witnesses to secure confirmation of their guilt and punishment of the guilty, and not affording zealous coöperation with the public officials in the matter when they are able to do so; let all such persons, whoever they may be, be excommunicated from the Church, accursed, and shut out from forgiveness. The wrath of God and the curse of the Church be upon their heads, and may they never see the success of whatever labors they may be engaged in, and may they have the curses also of all the saints and the inspired fathers of the Church."

In a concluding paragraph "the Holy Synod enjoins upon the reverend hierarchs and the bishops to announce in all the churches of the realm the punishments to be inflicted upon the burners of forests, whether public or private."

It is not strange, considering the magnitude of the threatening evil, that recourse should be made to almost any means to prevent it, but this is probably the first case on record in which the enginery of the hierarchy, curses and all, has been brought to bear upon the destroyers of forests. The matter may have more than an ephemeral and local interest.

RUFUS B. RICHARDSON.

MME. DE GENLIS AS AN EDUCATOR.

PARIS, August 20, 1901.

Madame de Genlis had an undoubted right to be counted among the precursors of feminism, and she takes that place in M. Louis Chabaud's book immediately after Madame de Maintenon. Sainte-Beuve, who wrote in his "Causeries du Lundi" an excellent article on Madame de Genlis, says of her: "Madame de Genlis was something more than an authoress; she was born with the sign on her forehead. God had said to some 'Sing,' to others 'Preach'; to her he said, 'Be a professor, a teacher.' She was born to be the most gracious of pedagogues." It may be said that she spent her whole life in teaching everybody about everything—letters, science, philosophy, religion, history, geography, anatomy, medicine, natural history, gymnastics, music; she was universal.

Stéphanie-Félicité Ducrest was born on the 25th of January, 1746, at the château of Champcéry, near Autun. Two years after her birth, her father bought the estate and the château of Saint-Aubin. Saint-Aubin is not far from the little town of Bourbon-Lancy (a watering-place in the neighborhood of Moulins). He took its name, with the title of Marquis which was attached to it. Madame de Genlis described in her books this château, which she compared, with its walls and towers, to the castles described by Ann Radcliffe.

Madame de Genlis tells us that she played, at the age of six years, the part of Love in the prologue to an opera. "I shall never

forget that my costume was pink, covered with lace and with little artificial flowers of all colors; it came down to my knees. I had small boots, straw and silver-colored, my hair flowing, and blue wings." At the age of six years she was made a canoness in the noble chapter of Alix near Lyons, and became Countess of Bourbon-Lancy.

Her father was ruined and died, and she was received, with her mother, into the house of a wealthy farmer-general, La Popelinière (so often mentioned in the memoirs of the 18th century). She led in his house the gayest life, was much admired, and married at the age of sixteen a brilliant officer, the Count de Genlis, colonel of the Grenadiers of France. M. de Genlis was the nephew of the Minister, M. de Puisieux, who had prepared for him a rich marriage. Being afraid to offend his uncle, he married Mademoiselle de Saint-Aubin secretly. The secret could not be kept long; M. de Puisieux at first refused to see his nephew's wife, but when he saw her he was reconciled to her and to M. de Genlis. Madame de Genlis had an aunt who was a great beauty and a most agreeable and cultivated person. She also was married secretly, but she could not take the name of her husband, who was the Duke d'Orléans; she remained Madame de Montesson. There was for a moment a question of Madame de Genlis entering the royal household, but she refused to do so, because she was expected to call first upon Madame Dubarry, the King's favorite. By the influence of Madame de Montesson, her aunt, she was made one of the ladies-in-waiting of the Duchess d'Orléans.

As soon as she was married to M. de Genlis, she gave way to her literary fervor. At the age of nineteen, before she was confined of her first child, she wrote a book entitled 'Reflections of a Mother Twenty Years Old.' The manuscript has been lost, and was perhaps destroyed by her, but, as M. Chabaud says, we have sixty-four octavo volumes of Madame de Genlis to console us for this loss. As soon as she entered the Palais-Royal as one of the ladies of the Duchess d'Orléans, she established her influence by her beauty and her cleverness; it was decided that she should become the governess of the daughter of the Duchess, a child who was only just born. Madame Campan tells us that on the day when the birth of the Dauphin, the son of Louis XVI., was the occasion of a court function, the Duchess of Orleans approached the *chaise longue* of Queen Marie Antoinette and excused Madame de Genlis for not appearing at a time when all the Court was congratulating her Majesty; adding that she was prevented from doing so by an indisposition. Marie Antoinette answered "that the celebrity of Madame de Genlis would, in truth, cause her absence to be remarked, but that she was not of a rank that demanded the sending of an excuse." Madame de Genlis, it is said, never forgave this answer, and she became one of the enemies of Marie Antoinette. Her position at the Palais-Royal was, however, extremely singular; she was not only the governess of the infant daughter of the Duchess; the Duke, who also had fallen under her charm, had made her the governor of his son. This appointment gave rise to many comments and epigrams. One of the gentlemen of the court said that the Duke de Luynes, who was very fat, might ask to be the nurse of the young Dauphin. The King said to the Duke de Chartres, when he announced the appointment to him: "I fortunately have a Dauphin; the Countess of Artois has children; you can do with yours just as you like."

The pupils of Madame de Genlis were the Duke de Valois, who became afterwards Duke de Chartres; the Duke of Orleans, who reigned in France from 1830 to 1848 under the name of Louis Philippe; the Duke of Beaujolais, his brother, and Mademoiselle d'Orléans, his sister, who never married, and who was known under the name of Madame Adélaïde. Madame de Genlis had to chose all the instructors of these children and to superintend all the details of their education. She had very pronounced views on education, and gave to the studies, to the amusements, to the occupations of her pupils a very practical and realistic tendency; she assigned to the study of the modern languages, of science, mathematics, natural history, to bodily exercises, an importance not generally given at her time. I have heard from one of the sons of Louis Philippe that she made him walk with leaden soles on his shoes, in order to train him for walking and to harden him. Louis Philippe learned by her orders the trade of a carpenter, of a locksmith, etc. (Notoriously, Louis XVI. also was very fond of working with his hands, and became quite expert as a clockmaker.)

In 1790 the young princes, the eldest of whom was now seventeen years old, ceased to be under her care, and she had charge only of Mademoiselle d'Orléans. At that time she incurred the disfavor of her mistress, the Duchess of Orleans, for reasons which are not very well known. Was the Duke of Orleans too attentive to her? Had she presumed to play a part in the Palais Royal which had become too predominant? Jealousy was probably not the chief cause of the rupture. The Duchess was well aware of the infidelities of her husband. A mystery still hangs over Pamela, whom Madame de Genlis introduced at the Palais Royal and who became afterwards Lady Fitz-Gerald. Her history would be an interesting subject. After the death of Fitz-Gerald she remarried and had several children. I have no data on the latter part of her life. It is said in Hoefer's "General Biography" that "in 1789 Madame de Genlis quarrelled with the Duchess of Orleans, who refused to have any explanation with her on the subject. She had grave reasons which remained unavowed besides those which were avowed, and which consisted in the influence that Madame de Genlis had exercised in inducing the Duke to adopt the party of the Revolution." Madame de Genlis was familiar with Mirabeau and many other members of the Constituent Assembly. She remained, however, the governess of the young daughter of the Duke of Orleans. She left France with her, and took refuge in Switzerland, in the convent of Bremgarten, during the stormy times of the Revolution. All this part of her existence is told, with the most minute and interesting details, in her own Memoirs. Her husband, the Count de Genlis, was guillotined with the Girondists on October 30, 1793; the Duke of Orleans, Philippe Égalité, was guillotined on the 6th of November of the same year. Madame de Genlis became for a time the only protector of the young Princess Adélaïde.

We will not follow Madame de Genlis through all the periods of her long life. She died only in 1830, after her pupil Louis Philippe had become King of France. To her credit, it must be said that both Louis Philippe and his very able sister, Madame Adélaïde, a woman of great intellect and of a masculine character, remained faithful to her to the end. Louis Philippe paid her visits very regularly, and showed her the greatest consideration and gratitude. It is interesting to know on what lines she organized the education of her remarkable pupils. She wrote an enormous number of pages on education, but they are spread somewhat disorderly in her novels. M. Chabaud cites a pamphlet, which has become very rare (Sainte-Beuve did not know of it), entitled 'Plan for a Rural School for the Education of Women, by Madame Degenlis' (1801), and gives long extracts from it. She proposes, in this pamphlet, to create in some old abandoned district a school almost the counterfeit of Saint-Cyr. Her programme was

"religion, which comprehends morals, writing, arithmetic, English, German, Italian (the language only, neither poetry nor literature proper), a few elements of history and geography, copying and painting of flowers; the internal economy of a house, consisting in (1) directing the general washing; (2) care of the linen; (3) poultry-keeping; (4) care of the milk; (5) care of the fruitery; (6) cooking, learning the prices of things, their quality, good, bad, or indifferent; (7) the art of distillation; (8) breadmaking. Besides this, the girls should have knowledge of the commoner plants and the principal medicinal drugs."

If I cite this extract, it is because it expresses the chief character of education as conceived by Madame de Genlis, a practical education, preparing children for the most pressing and common needs of life. She was evidently under the influence of the ideas of J. J. Rousseau, and his commendation of "l'homme de la nature."

Correspondence.

THE FOURTH AT MANILA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An eventful Fourth of July was ushered in this morning, with clouds and appearances of rain, to end finally in the brightness and sunshine of a Philippine summer, which conveys so much physical discomfort to the many Americans now in and about Manila. This particular Fourth of July will become known in the history of this archipelago as the day in which civil government was inaugurated in the Philippine Islands, excepting those portions still in contumacy or contested by what are known here as *insurrectos*. Over these military government continues, and is in the hands of the general commanding the troops, Major-General Adna Chaffee.

The place of inauguration of the Civil Governor, Judge Taft, was a stand erected on the plaza of the walled city, and facing the Palace now jointly occupied by the Headquarters of the Division of the Philippines and the Civil Commission, of which Judge Taft is the head—a Commission which is soon to include in its functions that of a Cabinet and Executive Council. The large stand from which the new Governor took his oath of office and made his inaugural address, was well filled with officers

of the army, navy, and Insular Government, members of the consular corps, and ladies and notable civilians. The audience, which rather loosely filled the plaza, was from fifteen hundred to two thousand in number, possibly two-thirds Americans and foreigners, and the rest the average Filipino townsmen. Considering that the population of Manila and its suburbs is about 300,000, and that the day was a public holiday, the interest of the people in the historical event of the establishment of a civil government over most of this insular territory was shown by abstention from attendance.

At nine o'clock, after the assemblage had been called to order by Gen. George W. Davis, the Provost-Marshal-General (who had not so long before resigned his military governorship of Porto Rico to a civilian), Gen. MacArthur, in a few words, introduced his successor, Judge Taft, who proceeded to read his inaugural address, already published to the world. The Secretary of the Commission rendered the address into Spanish, from time to time, in a very effective manner. The address was pleasantly received; there were no signs of disapproval, and there was some occasional applause. The admirable sentences of the new Governor in regard to the vital necessity of a pure civil service were received with a respectful silence. Was not this the age of McKinley and Corbin, and the territory of their disciples? Representative Hull of Iowa alone showed his disgust at such sentiments. Disapprobation was not to be expected, as Manila is too strongly policed and garrisoned to permit of any outward and visible signs of disapproval.

After the inaugural ceremonies were over, the notables adjourned to the palace, where Gen. MacArthur turned over his command to Gen. Chaffee in a few well-chosen words, and that rugged warrior assumed the duties of commander of the troops and Military Governor. This change of command took place in the Military Governor's room, where from the walls looked down frescoes and portraits suggestive of the old glories of Spain and its warriors. After a short, informal reception, Gen. MacArthur, escorted by a squadron of cavalry and by the notabilities of the day, proceeded between lines of infantrymen from the palace to the landing on the Pasig River, where he embarked on board the *Meade*, sailing in the morning for San Francisco, via Nagasaki, and obtaining, it is to be hoped, a well-earned rest before entering into the routine duties of a military department at home. It is not necessary to sum up here the career of Gen. MacArthur in these islands, but he shines, both in civil and in military matters, by comparison with his predecessors in all grades. His judgment has been excellent, and he has steered well between the Scylla of Washington and the Charybdis of Manila.

The insurrection is not extinguished. Samar is still unsubdued and Cebu almost isolated from its surrounding country, but the active operations now in progress will soon quiet both islands, for the present. The difficulty in all parts of the Philippines is the same found by the Germans with the *francs-tireurs* in the Franco-German war. *Amigos*, or innocent tillers of the soil, would reappear, when occasion permitted, as active and enrolled military enemies in the field. With this in remembrance, the disguise of the Maccabebes in the Funston expedition was, to say the least, excusable.

I cannot but feel that no one for many years has entered upon a weightier task than the new Governor-General of the Philippines. MacArthur dealt with the Filipinos through the agency of troops of his own kind. Gov. Taft has to work out his problem with people whose standpoint in almost every matter is widely different from the people and race from whom the able and optimistic Ohioan came. H.

FRENCH MORALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The testimony of MM. Cambon and Bérenger, and of Representative Gillett, referred to in No. 1887 of the *Nation*—"Morals, at Home and Abroad"—is not the only evidence that morals in France, particularly in Paris, are, in America, believed to be worse than they really are. During the past dozen years I have heard private American citizens, who have travelled or lived in France, give testimony to the same effect. The fact that these men and women were not talking "for publication," and that their names, if given, would not be recognized outside of their circle of acquaintance, makes their opinions in this matter only the more valuable. G. S. W.

WESTMINSTER, MD., August 30, 1901.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with great interest your article on "Morals, at Home and Abroad," but it seems to me mere justice to add that France is not the only country that acts as a caterer to the depraved taste of Americans. If a Frenchman is shocked at the bad taste displayed by his American friend in the selection of what he chooses to call his French library, the same disappointment may fall to the lot of his not necessarily unfriendly neighbor from across the Rhine on seeing the same American's collection of German pictures. A good deal of the stock of obscene pictures of B—— & Co. of Cologne has found its way to this country. O. T.

[The following excerpts from a discussion in the London *Academy* of August 21 are pertinent to the above letters. Miss Hannah Lynch, a novelist of repute and Paris correspondent of the *Academy*, is discussing the makers of pornographic French literature.—ED. NATION.]

"The views I express regarding the works of Pierre Louys are those held by every French writer of distinction I have met; and the article I sent you was discussed by me before writing it with two of the greatest French critics of the day, and met with their full approval. When I ask for what market such deplorable literature is fabricated, I am answered in Paris: 'For the foreign markets. Only ignorant foreigners revel in it, and fondly believe that they are making acquaintance with French life and wit.' . . .

"But, alas! second-rate English people and Americans go over to Paris, *do* Montmartre and the Quarter, and then believe they know all about literary Paris. They think it *chic* and Parisian to admire fervently all that is basest in modern French letters. It is a way of advertising one's artistic temperament, while, all the time, real literary Paris, of which I know something, is much more formal, more correct, more fastidious, than any other literary society of Europe. Not a touch of Bohemianism to be found here, and art is not accepted by those who count on its creation as a legitimate outlet for all that is brutal, obscene, base, and malodorous in mankind."

Notes.

The Macmillan Co.'s fall list of announcements is, by selection which leaves much unnoticed, as follows: In biography and history: 'The Making of an American,' being the autobiography of Jacob A. Riis; 'George Washington,' by Norman Hapgood; 'George Washington, and Other American Addresses,' by Frederic Harrison; 'Napoleon I.,' by Thomas E. Watson, and another Life of Bonaparte, by J. H. Rose; 'The Life of Sir George Grove,' by C. L. Graves; 'The Life and Letters of John Richard Green,' by Leslie Stephen; a three-volume Supplement to the 'Dictionary of National Biography,' edited by Sidney Lee; 'Select Documents of English History,' by Prof. George B. Adams of Yale; 'A History of England for Beginners,' by Katharine Coman and Elizabeth Kimball Kendall of Wellesley; 'Welding the Nation, 1845-1901,' by Prof. Albert B. Hart; 'Arnold's Expedition to Quebec,' by John Codman; and 'A Short History of Germany,' by Ernest F. Henderson. In fiction: 'A Maid of Venice,' by F. Marion Crawford; 'New Canterbury Tales,' by Maurice Hewlett; 'The Conqueror,' the romance of Alexander Hamilton's life, by Gertrude Atherton; 'The Benefactress,' by the author of 'Elizabeth and her German Garden'; 'Heirs of Yesterday,' by Alfred Hodder; and Thackeray's Works in thirty volumes, edited by Walter Jerrold, with Charlotte Brontë's in twelve, and Balzac's in forty—the last two being "Temple" editions. In travel: 'The Isle of the Shamrock,' by Clifton Johnson; 'The Scenery of England, and the Causes to which it is Due,' by Lord Avebury (Sir John Lubbock); 'Highways and Byways of the English Lakes,' by A. G. Bradley, with illustrations by Joseph Pennell; 'The Scott Country,' by William Shillinglaw Crockett; and 'Tales of the Spanish Main,' by Mowbray Morris. 'Oldtime Gardens,' by Mrs. Alice Morse Earle; 'Upland Game Birds,' by Emerson Hough; 'Salmon, Trout,' by Dean Sage and A. Nelson Cheney; 'The Deer Family,' by Theodore Roosevelt, T. S. Van Dyke, and H. G. Stone, may be bracketed together. In art: 'Furniture of Olden Times,' by Frances C. Morse; 'French Furniture and Decoration of the 18th Century,' by Lady Dilke; 'The Saints in Art,' by Mrs. A. G. Bell; 'Fra Lippo Lippi,' by Edward C. Strutt; a new and enlarged edition of 'Lorenzo Lotto,' by Bernhard Berenson, who also produces a new work, 'Study and Criticism of Italian Art,' in two volumes, with about eighty illustrations; 'The Chatsworth Van Dyck Sketch-Book,' edited by Lionel Cust; 'Hubert von Herkomer, R.A.,' a study and a biography, by A. L. Baldry; 'The Print Collector's Hand-book,' by Alfred Whitman; and 'Lessons from Greek Pottery,' by John H. Huddilston. In belles-lettres: 'The Beginnings of Poetry,' by Prof. Francis B. Gummere; 'A Lexicon to the Poetical Works of John Milton,' by Laura A. Lockwood of Wellesley; 'What Is Shakspere?' by Prof. L. A. Sherman of the University of Nebraska; 'Lane's Arabian Nights,' edited in six volumes by Joseph Jacobs, with 100 photogravure illustrations by Stanley Wood; 'More Letters by Edward FitzGerald,' edited by W. Aldis Wright; and a new version of Marcus Aurelius, by Gerald H. Rendall. Add 'Words and their Ways in Eng-

lish Speech,' by Prof. J. B. Greenough and George Lyman Kittredge of Harvard; and 'A Middle-English Reader,' by Prof. Oliver F. Emerson of Western Reserve University. In politics, etc.: 'A History of the Appointing Power,' by Prof. Lucy M. Salmon of Vassar; 'Foundations of American Foreign Policy,' by Prof. A. B. Hart; 'Colonial Government,' by Prof. Paul S. Reinsch; 'American Municipal Progress,' by Charles Zueblin; 'Democracy and Social Ethics,' by Jane Addams; 'Democracy and the Organization of Political Parties,' from the French of M. Ostrogorski; 'The Government of Ohio,' by Wilbur H. Siebert; 'The Government of Michigan,' by Webster Cooke; 'The Control of Trusts,' by Prof. John B. Clark of Columbia; 'The Anthracite-Coal Industry,' by Peter Roberts; 'Custom and Competition,' by Prof. Richard S. Ely; and 'Domestic Servants: Their Rights and Duties,' by Mrs. L. Seely.

From Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s list we choose these titles: 'Architecture in Italy,' from Constantine to the Renaissance, by Charles A. Cummings; 'New Tales of Old Rome,' by R. Lanciani; 'The Argive Heræum,' by Charles Waldstein; 'Our Houseboat on the Nile,' by Lee Bacon; 'Our National Parks,' by John Muir; 'A Short History of the Mississippi Valley,' by James K. Hosmer; 'Before the Dawn: A Story of Russian Life,' by Edmund Noble and Lydia L. Pimenoff; 'The Fireside Sphinx,' by Agnes Repplier; 'James Russell Lowell: A Biography,' by Horace E. Scudder; 'Bishop Butler: His Life and Writings,' by the Rev. W. A. Spooner; 'The Rights of Man: A Study in Twentieth-Century Problems,' by the Rev. Lyman Abbott; 'Essays Theological and Literary,' by the Rev. Charles Carroll Everett; 'The Life Everlasting,' by John Fiske; 'Old-Fashioned Views of Modern Education,' by Le Baron R. Briggs; 'Nature and Human Nature,' by Ellen R. Emerson; 'American Traits, from the Point of View of a German,' by Prof. Hugo Münsterberg; 'A Multitude of Counsellors,' a collection of codes, precepts, and rules of life, by J. N. Larned; 'Applied Perspective, for Architects and Painters,' by W. P. P. Longfellow; 'Great Epochs in Art History,' by Prof. James M. Hoppin of Yale; 'Footing it in Franconia,' by Bradford Torrey; 'Of Business, and Of Politics,' by R. R. Bowker; 'The Teachings of Dante,' by the Rev. Charles A. Dinsmore; the "Cambridge Edition" of the Complete Works of Shelley, edited by Prof. George E. Woodberry; and a second series of 'Talks on English,' by Prof. Arlo Bates.

Henry Holt & Co. promise 'The History of English Romanticism in the Nineteenth Century,' by Prof. Henry A. Beers of Yale; 'The Life and Works of Schiller,' by Prof. Calvin Thomas of Columbia; and a fourth volume, 'Literature and Art,' of J. D. Champlin's "Young Folks' Cyclopædia."

Fleming H. Revell Co.'s announcements include 'Constantinople,' by Dr. Henry Otis Dwight; 'China in Convulsion,' by Dr. Arthur H. Smith; 'The Lore of Cathay,' by Dr. W. A. P. Martin; and 'Musical Ministries in the Church,' by Prof. Waldo S. Pratt.

From Henry T. Coates & Co. we are to have 'With "Bobs" and Kruger,' by Frederick W. Unger, war correspondent of the London *Daily News;* 'London, Historic and Social,' by Claude de la Roche Francis; 'Ireland, Historic and Picturesque,' by Charles Johnston; 'Scotland, Historic and Picturesque,' by Maria Hornor Lansdale; 'The Pilgrim and the Shrine; or, Passages from the Life and Correspondence of Herbert Ainslee, B.A., Cantab,' by Edward Maitland; 'Short History of the American Trotting and Pacing Horse,' by Henry T. Coates; and 'The Principles and Practice of Whist,' by Lennard Leigh, Ernest Bergholt, and W. H. Whitfield.

'The Desert: Further Studies in Natural Appearances,' by Prof. John C. Van Dyke of Rutgers, is in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons.

A book of reference for churchmen, 'The American Church Dictionary,' prepared by the Rev. William J. Miller, is to be published directly by Thomas Whittaker.

Nearly ready, with the imprint of James Pott & Co., is 'American Authors and their Homes,' edited, with illustrations of the homes only, by Francis W. Halsey.

Doubleday, Page & Co. announce 'How to Make Baskets,' by Mary Whiting; 'Photography as a Fine Art,' by Charles H. Caffin; 'In the Forest,' by Maximilian Foster; and 'The Life of James Madison,' by Gaillard Hunt.

Forthcoming from T. Y. Crowell & Co. are 'Flowers from Persian Poets,' edited by Nathan H. Dole and Belle M. Walker; 'Handy Dictionary of Prose Quotations,' and 'Handy Dictionary of Poetical Quotations,' by George W. Powers; 'Who's the Author?' a guide to notable works in American literature, by L. H. Peet; 'Colonial Prose and Poetry,' selections illustrating American culture and ideals, 1608-1770, edited by W. P. Trent and B. W. Wells; and 'Problems of Evolution,' by F. W. Headley.

Ginn & Co. will soon issue 'Hand-book of the Trees of New England,' by Lorin L. Dame and Henry Brooks; and 'Old Indian Legends,' by Zitkala-Sa.

'Shell Life: An Introduction to the British Mollusca,' by Edward Step, F.L.S., with 600 illustrations, will be added shortly to Frederick Warne & Co.'s "Library of Natural History Romance."

The Open Court Publishing Co., Chicago, have in preparation 'Geometric Exercises in Paper-Folding,' by T. Sundara Row, with exercises and material for folding; a revised translation of Kant's 'Prolegomena to Any Future Metaphysic'; and 'The Legends of Genesis,' by Dr. Hermann Gunkel.

'Reporting for Newspapers,' by Charles Hemstreet, is to be published by A. Wessels Co.

Chapman & Hall, in conjunction with Henry Frowde, will soon bring out a complete pocket edition of Dickens's works on the Oxford India paper, with upwards of 600 illustrations, and a list in each volume of the principal characters. The Oxford University Press collotype facsimile of the First Folio Shakspere, which cannot be ready for delivery under a year, was, we are informed by Mr. Frowde, subscribed for within six weeks of the issue of the prospectus.

The 'Botticelli' of the Knackfuss series of "Monographs on Artists," with its large array of illustrations, has now been Englished by Campbell Dodgson of the British Museum (Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). Besides this advantage for the English reader, there has been added to the list of pictures discussed in the text, the bibliography, and the summary of contents, an index—the first, we believe, in the series, whether German or English.

When Eduard von Hartmann published his 'Philosophy of the Unconscious,' in the year 1869, he won immediate fame. Unfortunately, his style and general treatment of his subject appealed to the intelligent public at large, and this was sufficient to discredit him with the professional philosophers or professors of philosophy, who practically ignored him, as they did Schopenhauer in the years 1820 to 1860. It is likely, however, that Hartmann's latest volume, 'Die Moderne Psychologie,' just published at Leipzig (Haacke), will cause these professors to attend to his case. It is a history of German psychology during the second half of the nineteenth century, and its eight chapters are largely taken up with a criticism of about fifty psychological treatises, written mostly by German professors of philosophy, who have, within this period, devoted their attention to psychological problems rather than to metaphysics, which used to be their specialty.

Switzerland is likely soon to have another rival in the mountains of the Caucasus. Forty years ago little was known about them. Since then, Abich, Freshfield, Dechy, Raddy, and the Russian military photographers have done much to call attention to them, and the last edition of Baedeker's 'Russia,' just out, shows how far they are accessible to tourists. An important work on the same region has also been issued at Leipzig lately, by Duncker & Humblot—'Aus den Hochregionen des Kaukasus,' by Gottfried Merzbacher. It is in two volumes, of 917 and 963 pages, with 246 illustrations, some of them of striking grandeur. Merzbacher spent two summers in these mountains, and, while his objects were largely scientific, he also bore in mind the eager curiosity of tourists. His assertion regarding the unique precipitous granite peak Ushba—that "no mountain in the Swiss Alps can rival its form"—will doubtless cause not a few travellers to turn their steps that way. The author is a good writer, and some of his descriptions of perilous ascents of peaks, and of glacier tours, have the fascination and exciting interest of the pages of Whymper and Tyndall.

The *Geographical Journal* for August contains a description, by Major F. R. Maunsell, of a section of the highlands of Kurdistan south of Lake Van, with many interesting facts respecting the life of the people. The inhabitants of the Christian district of Jelu, for instance, "are wonderful travellers, making begging tours to all parts of the world. Consequently, people talking a little English are easy to find, but it was rather disconcerting to be addressed in a strong American accent by a man who had been through the recent Spanish war as an American sailor, but who had just returned to tend his home farm; the sense of attachment to this little canton in a valley under Geliashin being stronger than the delights of civilization." Col. G. E. Church contributes some historical notes on the explorations of Northern Bolivia from the time of Pizarro to those conducted by Colonel, now President Pando (between the years 1892 and 1898); a map of these latter accompanies the article. In his

paper on "Sand-Waves in Tidal Currents," Dr. Vaughn Cornish shows the remarkable similarity between the effects of a rhythmic wave-movement in the air, water, and sand, illustrating his views by numerous diagrams, charts, and photographs. A review of some recent census reports shows that India has gained far less than in the preceding decade, while the German empire exhibits a greater rate of increase than has taken place in any previous lustrum, being 14 per cent., or nearly 5 per cent. more than that of Austria. Italy shows the same rate of 14 per cent. increase since the last census taken December 31, 1881.

The Executive Committee of the Carnegie Trust for the Universities of Scotland have appointed Mr. W. S. McCormick, Professor of English Language and Literature in University College, Dundee, as Secretary to the Trust. His enthusiasm for English literature led him to start a publishing firm in Glasgow several years ago along with Mr. Frederick W. Wilson, a noted bookman, under the style of Wilson & McCormick. Their publications were always daintily got up, and one of the best known was an excellent edition of Walt Whitman's 'Leaves of Grass,' with which the poet was greatly delighted. Mr. McCormick was selected for the chair of English Language and Literature in University College, Dundee, ten years ago.

University education, its meaning, form, and expression, was the main topic of the inaugural address of Mr. Asquith at the summer meeting of Oxford University Extension students. He maintained that the aim of academic education was not to teach particular arts or to initiate into professions, but "to awaken intellectual interest, to bring the student to conceive of knowledge, not as a means, but as an end." Not specialization, but catholicity, should be the end sought. "The best use of the best kind of teaching was to enable us to multiply our intellectual interests, to cultivate an accessible and hospitable mind, not to hedge it in and shut it off in an isolated field." Referring to the fact that "we were starting the twentieth century with the loss of almost all the great masters of style," he urged that every one should do something "to maintain the purity and to prevent the debasement of our language." The need was never greater, for "had they not all been vexed by the uncouth and pseudo-classical terminology of the men of science, by the tortuous and nebulous phrases of the philosophers, by the pretentious conventionalities of the art critic, by the slipshod slapdash of the newest school of journalists, who kept their omniscience up to date?" Clearness, simplicity, naturalness of expression were qualities of style within the reach of all. He closed with a half-humorous, half-sorrowful *apologia pro literis humanioribus*, founded on the fact that in all the immense variety of classes held in 128 provincial centres with 1,600 teachers and 19,000 students during the last twelve months, "there had been only one in Greek, at which the attendance reached the modest average of three."

It is a significant sign in the world of literature and scholarship that the library of Max Müller will go to Japan. The collection, consisting of almost 13,000 volumes, including many Sanskrit manuscripts, has been bought by the Japanese Baron Iwasaki, and will now become the property of the University of Tokio.

It is announced by the Russian authorities that the oft contemplated change in the Julian Calendar in that country is to be made this autumn. A commission appointed for the purpose will hold its sessions in the chambers of the Imperial Academy of Sciences in St. Petersburg, with the Grand Duke Constantine as Chairman. It consists of a number of members of the Academy, of representatives of the various state ministries, and of the Holy Synod. The arrangement for work, etc., is in charge of the stated clerk of the Academy of Sciences, Dr. Dubrovin.

—In the third volume of their 'History of the Four Georges and William IV.' (Harpers), Mr. Justin McCarthy and Mr. J. H. McCarthy cover the whole reign of George III. To American readers this will doubtless prove the most attractive part of the work, for the authors write in a spirit of full sympathy with the colonial cause, and pay homage to the leaders of the Revolution without stint. They are ready to admire not only Franklin and Washington, but Patrick Henry and Samuel Adams. Indeed, their strain is exactly the same as that which Sir George Trevelyan has recently adopted. Although the name of his son stands on the title-page, the general design of the work is traceable to Mr. Justin McCarthy, who may be said to have created a special style of historical composition. He has never found a better field for his talents than is afforded by the latter part of the eighteenth century. The character of social and political life in the days of George III. lends itself perfectly to his bright, rapid, and journalistic treatment. There is no dearth of picturesque detail. He finds narrow-minded bigots to ridicule, and great politicians to be criticised or admired. With the exception of a chapter on "Ninety-eight," the narrative virtually ends at the beginning of the war with republican France. The few pages which are given to the contest with Napoleon and the period of the Regency are nothing more than a link between the ministry of Pitt and the reign of George IV. During the period of the Great War, constitutional changes and liberalism languished, and it is in such things that Mr. McCarthy is chiefly interested. The breach with the colonies is, on the whole, the leading topic; Burke, Fox, and Pitt come next; Warren Hastings third; and finally the Irish disturbances. The chapter on "Ninety-eight" is graphic and also temperate. Pitt's spies have always been a target for Irish denunciation, and we can estimate Mr. McCarthy's aloofness from mere party spirit by the following passage: "As political morals were then, and are perhaps even now, it would be absurd to find fault with Pitt because he made use of the services of spies and informers to get at the plans of a number of men who proposed to invite a foreign enemy of England to invade the Irish shores, and were doing all they could to secure by armed rebellion the independence of Ireland. The wonder that will now occur to every reasonable mind is, that the Irish leaders should have failed to guess that whatever money would do would be done by the English Government, as it would have been done by any other government under similar conditions, to get at a knowledge of their designs and to counteract them."

—Of the many historical series now in progress of publication, Hassall's "Periods of European History" (Macmillan) is among the very best, and the appearance of a new volume is always welcomed by those who have the welfare of the undergraduate at heart. 'The Close of the Middle Ages, 1273-1494,' by Professor Lodge of Edinburgh, comes in between Tout's 'Empire and Papacy' and Johnson's 'Europe in the Sixteenth Century,' although the latter work and most of the others have gone before it to the press. Perhaps for the very reason that it seems to have been retarded, Professor Lodge's book will be examined with curiosity both by teachers and by their classes. The period is not an easy one to treat in a short sketch, or, indeed, at greater length. Regarding the inherent difficulties of his task, Professor Lodge says: "The importance of the period is more than equalled by the almost superhuman difficulty of narrating its events in anything like orderly and intelligible sequence. Such unity as had been given to Western Europe by the mediæval Empire and Papacy, disappeared with the great interregnum in the middle of the thirteenth century; and such unity as was afterwards supplied by the growth of formal international relations, cannot be said to begin before the invasion of Naples by Charles VIII. of France at the end of the fifteenth century. In the interval between these two dates there is apparent chaos, and only the closest attention can detect the germs of future order in the midst of the struggle of dying and nascent forces." This statement should not be taken as a mere plea for indulgence. The age which extends from Rudolf of Hapsburg to Charles VIII. is marked by such enormous diversity of action and thought that a true estimate of values requires the utmost tact. The different countries of Europe outgrew mediævalism not at the same moment or by the same means, but at different times, and by processes which varied much according to the nationality. There are all the older factors still to be considered, while the Swiss Confederation, Burgundy, the Hanseatic League, and Poland create fresh complications for the historian. By cutting down the number of his chapters to twenty-two, Professor Lodge has excluded the minor topics, and kept an adequate amount of space for the leading states, the Papacy, the Councils, and the tangled politics of Italy. He freights his text pretty heavily with facts, but his style is less dry than in his well-known sketch of modern history. His account of the Renaissance as an intellectual movement seems to us perfunctory. In other respects the book steers its course well among the dangers which have been mentioned. We must not forget, either, to commend Professor Lodge's care in giving so many tables of intricate and important genealogy as the appendix contains.

—In the title to 'A Century of Scottish History' (London: Blackwood; New York: Scribners) Sir Henry Craik has made free with chronology, for his work traverses the whole period from the Union to the middle of the nineteenth century. What the title means to convey is that the part which deals with events prior to the '45 is an introduction. The main theme is the progress of Scotland from the fall of the Jacobites to the days of the Free Church schism. Not long ago Scottish schoolboys were gravely agitated because the title of the new king

was announced to be "Edward VII." and not "Edward I. of Great Britain and Ireland." Remembering how James VI. of Scotland, out of regard for English prejudice, took the style of "James I." when he succeeded to the throne of Elizabeth, the youthful patriots of North Britain felt that their part of the realm was being slighted. While Sir Henry Craik's motive is not a puerile jealousy of the "predominant partner," he wishes to do justice by an unduly neglected subject. "From 1745 onwards the history of Scotland has hitherto been treated for the most part only as subsidiary to the history of the Empire, and as forming a subordinate chapter in the history of England. . . . The object of these volumes is to give a chronological narrative of all the principal incidents—political, ecclesiastical, and legislative, as well as literary, social, and commercial—which form the history of Scotland throughout a very momentous century, in the course of which the character of her permanent contribution to the common life of the Empire was chiefly shaped." One of Sir Henry Craik's traits as a historian is fondness for general statement. He has a large share of that Scottish quality which we so often term the philosophical temper, and to which is frequently added a love of theological discussion. Without slighting the political and social aspects of Scottish life, he is most at home when he approaches the affairs of the Church. The beginning of dissent, the patronage question, and the attitude of the state towards the Establishment are among his favorite topics. It is towards the end of the second volume that religious agitation reaches a climax of interest with the growth of Chalmers's influence and the painful birth of the Free Church. Of the disruption Sir Henry Craik says: "We have now to trace the course of a struggle, in some respects the most remarkable of the whole period which we have had under review. It shows the latest phase of a strife, the elements of which had been present for centuries in the life of Scotland, but the ultimate bearing of which had not been seen only because her history had exhibited so many striking and dramatic contrasts that nothing approaching a logical or constitutional settlement had been possible." Among other important matters which are examined at length, we can only name a few: the growth of loyalty to the House of Hanover, the strifes of Whig and Tory, the death of the old Toryism, the increase of national wealth and Scottish philosophy. Sir Henry Craik is willing to speak out strongly when the need arises, and he has a wide horizon. His work is serious, but not dull. Its tone is temperate; it is based on ample knowledge, and it fills a gap in the historical literature of Great Britain.

—'The Early Trading Companies of New France,' by Mr. H. P. Biggar (University of Toronto Library), is a learned essay which, having been presented at Oxford for the degree of bachelor of letters, is now published in an "enlarged and somewhat improved form." Chronologically the work is rather limited, for if we omit two chapters of introduction its dates are 1600-1632. But within the field chosen Mr. Biggar's researches have been commendably thorough. His footnotes constitute a large bibliography, and in the appendix a full statement regarding the sources, both official and narrative, is given. Mr. Biggar's second title is "A Contribution to the History of Commerce and Discovery in North America." The economic motive is the stronger, and the main interest of the study centres about the restrictions which were placed upon trading to the west of the Atlantic. The headings of the chapters register the stages of Mr. Biggar's advance: "The First Fur-Trade Monopoly," "The Two Monopolies of Monts, 1604-1608," "The Freedom of Trade, 1069-1613," "Champlain's Company, 1614-1620," "The Caens' Company," "The Company of New France, 1627-1629," "The Scottish and English Company, 1629-1632." To build up trade without having colonists was a difficult matter for the French, and Mr. Biggar traces the failure of commercial experiments partly to the treatment which the settlers received from the Government. "Not only were they forbidden to engage in any way in the fur trade, the staple industry of the country, but they had to sell all their produce at half or even less than half its real value, as well as to pay the very high charges demanded by the company for all the articles brought from the mother country, and, finally, they were often treated by the company's servants not as free settlers, but as mere dependents." Monopoly was the rule, freedom of trading rights the exception. "The open system, in force between the years 1609 and 1614, would doubtless have succeeded in time, had the Government taken over the post at Quebec and left discovery and trade to look after themselves. But, then as now, France had a strong centralized government at home, and could hardly be expected to do things on a different system in her colony. Thus, between the two evils of no colonists and excessive governmental control, New France during these years never prospered."

—The *Korea Review*, freighted as usual with matter of interest to all who study or watch things Korean, contains in its June number a sketch of the life of the late Baron P. G. von Möllendorff. This German sinologue was one of the most striking figures among the foreigners who, from selfish or altruistic motives, or from a mixture of both, chose to make their careers in the Far East. After the military *émeute* of 1882 in Seoul, the Min faction appealed to China for aid, and then began that series of Chinese encroachments on the independence of Korea which issued in the war with Japan in 1894. However, for twelve years the Mins led progress, securing Von Möllendorff, from the Chinese Imperial Customs Service, as chief adviser of their Foreign Office and organizer of customs. Of commanding presence, affable in manners, and fluent in speech, withal a profound scholar in Chinese, this learned German adopted Korean dress, headgear, and details of household service. For two years his influence was enormous. His programme was one of multifarious enterprise, and the years 1883-1885 are red-letter in the national story. For a time he was virtual dictator of Korea. Had he possessed the character and temperament of a Verbeck of Japan or Hart of China, the present poverty, anarchy, and wretchedness of the Koreans would have been unknown. But it seemed impossible for Möllendorff to work impersonally. So, despite amazing and multifarious industry and enterprise, little or no trace of his work remains. The suspicion of his being in Russian pay, probably wholly unjust, compelled his departure from the peninsula. He died at Ningpo, April 20, 1901.

COURTNEY'S CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

The Working Constitution of the United Kingdom and its Outgrowths. By Leonard Courtney. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1901.

This excellent treatise does not possess exactly the kind of merit which ordinary readers would expect to find in the work of so experienced and so eminent a public man as Mr. Leonard Courtney. Its merits are all professional. Had this treatise on the English Constitution been the fruit of lectures delivered from the academical chair, it might well have received from a fair reviewer little but unqualified praise. It displays in a high degree the best characteristics of academical teaching. The style is clear, forcible, and dogmatic. Each of these qualities is, in a lecture, an indubitable virtue. Lucidity is the primary, if not the highest, quality of a teacher; the man who cannot make himself understood cannot teach. Strength, again, cannot be dispensed with by any one whose duty it is to force truths, or even truisms, home for the benefit of dull, careless or unwilling hearers. Dogmatism, lastly, if taken in its favorable sense, is, from a professional point of view, a merit. Pupils come to lectures to acquire not ingenious doubts, but sound and established doctrines. Assuredly, one element in first-rate teaching is a capacity for inspiring the spirit of inquiry. The man of genius who can achieve this is more than an instructor; he is a prophet. But the duty of one who undertakes to instruct others is to make known and comprehensible to them the certainties, or, in other words, the dogmas, of the subject, be it mathematics, history, or constitutional law, which they are studying. Add to all this that few characteristics are more valuable in a teacher than well-placed self-confidence; the lecturer who hesitates is lost.

Mr. Courtney, judging from his book, does not know the meaning of hesitation. His treatise, then, is, considered as a body of lectures, as good a book as could be found for introducing an intelligent student to the study of the British Constitution. It is in style clear and terse; it sums up, and sums up in a very small number of pages, the best established and most generally received principles of English constitutional practice or custom. It is absolutely free from all reference to authorities. Mr. Courtney no doubt knows that other and not undistinguished writers have made the English Constitution an object of study. He has, of course, read Hallam, Freeman, May, and a score of other authorities on the history or the practice of English constitutionalism, but his readers are not troubled or distracted by references to Mr. Courtney's researches; his treatise might, as far as its language goes, be the first attempt ever made to expound the mysteries of the English Constitution. This is no small gain. Ordinary readers profit nothing by laborious proofs of their teacher's erudition. Research is, though this obvious truism is apt to be forgotten, not the same thing as ex-

position or narrative, and a writer's attempt to give evidence of his research more often than not confuses his readers. We are heartily glad to see in Mr. Courtney's writings a return to the style of older writers, such as Paley, whose 'Moral Philosophy' contains an admirable outline of the British Constitution as it actually worked towards the end of the eighteenth century. Every line of this sketch bears traces of study, but not a reference is made to any authority.

Mr. Courtney's book, lastly, displays a quality of high value which is often lacking even in writings of considerable worth. This quality is breadth of view; our author is never troubled or overpowered by the minutiæ of his subject. He knows its details, but he lets them fall out of view, and keeps his eye fixed upon the broad outlines. He has mastered the difference, which is often overlooked, between going through the whole of a subject and looking upon a subject as a whole. It is this broad and comprehensive treatment which gives a certain originality to Mr. Courtney's work. He deals with the Constitution not only of the United Kingdom, but of its "outgrowths," and traces the connection between the government of the United Kingdom and the government of the Colonies, betraying by the way, unconsciously, no doubt, the extent to which the conception of England as the centre of an empire influences the imagination of a writer who, as a statesman, would assuredly not be called an Imperialist. Then, too, because he looks at his subject as a whole, he attempts to connect the local government of the United Kingdom with its general political constitution. A reviewer may be pardoned for wishing that Mr. Courtney had thought out the nature of this connection more completely than he has done. To us, at least, it seems that his treatise would have gained something had he, following the example of Bagehot, omitted almost all reference to history, and, leaving to others the growth of the Constitution, directed his attention exclusively to the actual working of the institutions of the United Kingdom. It must, however, be admitted that this limitation of Mr. Courtney's subject would have involved the sacrifice of the chapter on the Scots' Constitution down to 1707, which, short as it is, is full of interest.

Mr. Courtney's book, with all its excellence, lacks certain qualities which, from its author's position and career, it might naturally be expected to display. It bears hardly a trace of that knowledge of men and that practical acquaintance with the working of parliamentary institutions which he must have gained from long experience of public life. The contrast in this respect between our author and Bagehot is as noteworthy as it is paradoxical. Mr. Bagehot was a man of letters and a student. Of his extraordinary literary capacity this is not the place to speak at length; exception may easily be taken to his style, but, in the capacity for putting new thoughts into apt words, he is, among modern English writers upon public affairs, unrivalled. He was a student, and, so far as he came into contact with practical life, versed rather in banking than in politics. He never, at any rate, sat in Parliament; and great as the gain to the world would have been of Bagehot's actual participation in Parliamentary business, it is a little difficult to imagine the kind of constituency which would have given him a seat in Parliament. Nor is it at all certain that if (say) the London University had sent him as its representative to Westminster, he would as a speaker have commanded the attention of the House of Commons. What is certain is that the opportunity of addressing Parliament never came to him; he remained throughout life a student and a man of letters, and a man of business.

Mr. Courtney, on the other hand, though he can write and has written with vigor, is primarily a politician. The best part, or at any rate the best-known part, of his life has been spent in politics. He has held office, though he has not, we believe, ever sat in the Cabinet; he has exerted a great and most salutary influence in Parliament, for even those critics who may disagree with some of Mr. Courtney's political doctrines and be unable to sympathize with some parts of his political action, will easily acknowledge that his uncompromising independence and sterling vigor have done a great deal to raise the tone of English statesmanship and to reinvigorate the best traditions of English Parliamentary life. Nor can it fairly be said that Mr. Courtney's virtues have not been appreciated. An innate tendency towards virtuous opposition is hardly compatible with the frequent tenure of office; but a man who all but became Speaker of the House of Commons must assuredly have commanded the respect and confidence even of opponents, and from the nature of things must himself have acquired a most intimate knowledge of English public life and an intimate acquaintance with English politicians. If, then, one compared the position and career of Bagehot with the position and career of Mr. Courtney, one would almost be driven to the conclusion that, if they each wrote a treatise on the British Constitution, Bagehot would display (it might be) profound knowledge of constitutional history or of constitutional doctrines, but would assuredly be somewhat wanting in his knowledge of life, and that his book would show a lack of what, in the expressive slang of to-day, is called "actuality." Mr. Courtney, on the other hand, one would as naturally assume, might exhibit some deficiency in the learning to be gathered from books, but would show, in whatever he wrote, a vivid knowledge of Parliamentary men and manners.

Whoever has read Bagehot's 'English Constitution' and then has perused Courtney's 'Working Constitution of the United Kingdom,' will know that these natural expectations are absolutely falsified. Bagehot, the student and man of letters, does not exhibit any very profound knowledge of Constitutional lore, but he displays at every turn the keenest interest in the actual working of institutions. His insight into human character is marvellous. He no doubt makes mistakes. He reminds one occasionally of Pope's dictum, "Men may be read as well as books too much"; but, whether he reads right or wrong, he is always trying to read men. What Lord Althorpe thought, how Peel looked at public life, how constitutional fictions affected the mind and the politics of a man like Lord Russell, what were the sources of the influence exerted by Sir G. Cornewall Lewis, and, above all, what was the way in which the ordinary M. P. or the commonplace elector looked upon public affairs, were the questions which really interested Bagehot's intellect. He could hardly tolerate an abstract principle till he had, to use the odd though celebrated expression of Lord Eldon, "clothed it in circumstances." Hence the Constitution ceases, under his treatment, to be a body of rules or doctrines; it becomes, so to speak, a living thing, and Bagehot keeps his finger upon the pulse of the machine. Mr. Courtney, on the other hand, though he must have learned much from experience, hardly communicates to his readers the results of his learning. He writes as well (if not better) about the Scotch Parliament, which he never saw, as about the Parliament at Westminster which he has seen and known for years. The experienced Member of Parliament remains from the first page to the last page of his book an admirable Professor of Constitutionalism. It is Bagehot, the man of letters and the student, who has described the inner life of parliaments in which he never sat, and of cabinets which he had never even the remotest chance of entering.

TWO ENGLISH MUSICIANS.

Brother Musicians: Reminiscences of Edward and Walter Bache. By Constance Bache. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: James Pott & Co. 1901.

Although Edward and Walter Bache must be classed with the minor musicians, the story of their brief career was worth telling, and their sister has told it well and modestly. The older of the brothers, who died forty-three years ago, illustrates musical affairs in London in the period of Mendelssohn worship, when no other god was acknowledged except Handel; whereas Walter Bache, who died thirteen years ago, was one of the leading apostles of the new German school. Though the brothers were but nine years apart in age, their opinions and tastes diverged as widely as if they had lived in different centuries. To Edward, who was "italianissimo," the music of Berlioz was "horrid rubbish"; and regarding Wagner's he wrote from Dresden that it was "so abominable that you cannot imagine such a noise as yet in England"; whereas Walter spent a great part of his life and a third of his income in making propaganda for the "music of the future," especially that of the third in the trio of musical monsters, Franz Liszt.

There was nothing strange in Edward's preferring Italian music to German; thousands do so to the present day. What was strange was that a musician of any degree of intelligence should have ever penned such ludicrous assertions as that the Italians were "much greater masters of modulating and harmony" than the Germans, and that Donizetti and Rossini displayed enormous intellectual power" in *planning their operas!* "There is no human weakness," he declares, in the music of Rossini—90 per cent. of which, as a matter of fact, was a weak concession to the fashionable demand of his time for trivial tunes overladen with cheap ornaments. In one of his letters (1856) Bache writes:

"I have played lately much of Schumann's music, and every successive piece increases my dislike to it *in toto*. He has musical learning enough, but everything is confused and noisy (Schumannites say deep), and when you hear a melody it is not at all original. I admire more and more the much-abused Italian school, and wish to devote myself to it, as I consider it the only great and beautiful school."

Of Beethoven he liked the Septet, but he

drew the line at the later works, beginning with the third ("Eroica") symphony!

To send a youth with such tastes to Germany for his musical education was, no doubt, a mistake. In Leipzig and Dresden he thought that all the arts, including music, were fast going to the dogs. But one thing he did like. Regarding German cookery he writes:

"We had what the good people here call an English dinner—I suppose because the bill of fare comprised beef and plum pudding; but I don't think any Englishman would recognize, in the light, digestible stuff they call plum pudding here, the heavy stuff we designate so in England. Most certainly they do know how to live here: everything is so well cooked; I am just as ready to work after dinner as before, and not because I eat less, because I think my appetite would astonish you; but because things are fit to eat and properly cooked."

The "incessant whirl of symphony music" in which Bache lived in Germany did not convert him. "The feature of German music" was to him the playing of the Lanner and Strauss waltzes; nearly everything else he detested. The dream of his life was to compose English operas after Italian models. When he at last betook himself to Italy, it was too late to do anything. The seeds of consumption were in his system and soon proved fatal.

"My coming to Rome," he wrote a year before his death, "was the greatest possible mistake. The climate here is the coldest (damp, cavernous cold) I have yet felt in my life, and the occasional bursts of hot sun only increase one's constant fever. It may do for rich people who can afford English comforts, but for a poor fellow it is better to stay at home."

What he had dreaded all his life was to be condemned to be a professor of music in England. He wanted to be a composer; "but musical taste is not yet sufficiently advanced in England to make a composer's career possible." "If I had been a Frenchman, I should now be drawing an income of £200 or £300 a year from the theatre, and be secure in it, being *legislated* for, and even *represented* in the Senate. We have no musical composers in Parliament. Fancy Sterndale Bennett being elected member for the musical interests in England! And yet on the Continent it is so." In other letters he expresses his agreement with the common saying that England is no place for artists. "There are only two classes," he writes, "who can succeed amongst us: these are, first, composers who have already made a European renown, . . . and, second, charlatans who simply amuse the public for a time." He deplored the absence of the necessary emulation and warmth, and concluded that money was the ruin of young artists in London. They found teaching, etc., "far too profitable to be neglected in favor of continued artistic improvement."

Holding these pessimistic views, it is not strange that, when he heard that Walter also was determined to choose a musical career, he strongly dissuaded him. "I should much prefer seeing you a well-educated musical amateur, making your living by something else." But Walter was not to be suppressed. He, too, was sent to Leipzig and to Rome, and he seems to have started out with ideals similar to his brother's. At Leipzig a friend made a caricature of him holding in his hand a portfolio with "Trovatore" printed on it in large letters, indicating that that was his love at the time; and a few years later (1863) he writes from Rome, after hearing Rossini's "Mosè in Egitto" half-a-dozen times, that he has "become as *italianissimo* as ever." But this was not to last long. Already he had heard Liszt, whose Swiss pieces made a deep impression on him; and ere long he was his pupil. In taking this step he was influenced by an English lady residing in Florence, Mme. Laussot, an intimate friend of Wagner, Bülow, and Liszt. She was an excellent musician herself, and founded the Società Cherubini, of which she was the conductor. In speaking to Bache one day of the great results a serious musician could achieve in the way of creating a musical atmosphere by perseverance, Liszt referred to what this gifted woman had done in fifteen years in improving Florence, "the most unmusical place, perhaps, on the face of the globe."

Walter Bache had no occasion to regret following Mme. Laussot's advice. She had told him that she had never known Liszt to disappoint any one, although he had been applied to by people of very inferior ability. Walter was not one of this class, as Liszt discovered at once, and the English youth soon became one of those on whom he bestowed special favors. Their first meeting was not very promising, however. Walter was so nervous that he could not say a word, when Liszt, pitying him, said kindly, "Do you need money?" It was not for lessons alone that hundreds of people constantly pestered the great pianist. He was obliged to move to the Monte Mario to get away from his tormentors and find leisure for composition. Bache was one of those who were allowed to visit him there, with whom he walked, and for whom he often played. Liszt even returned his pupil's visits, and played for him in his humble lodgings—he whom nothing could tempt to play in public any more. Bache had reason to write to Mme. Laussot: "I am quite of your opinion that the more one knows him, the more one adores him as a man and as a musician."

It was the zealous affection which Liszt thus inspired in his pupils and in all who knew him personally that induced Bache, as soon as he returned to London, to appoint himself the apostle of this much-abused and neglected composer. As if jealous of Liszt's unprecedented triumphs as a pianist, and determined that he should not also win laurels as a composer, the whole professional world was against him (partly, too, because he had become the most powerful champion of the hated Wagner). The London critics were determined that the revolutionist Bache must be suppressed. Until towards the end of his career he received scant courtesy and little encouragement. He wisely refrained from entering into any controversy, but quietly went his way. "Liszt," he declared, "is the most ill-used genius the world ever saw. All are ungrateful to him. No Wagner, Bülow, Joachim, or Klindworth would be here but for Liszt. Liszt's music has marked a step in non-theatrical music." For these reasons he determined to devote his life to Liszt alone, however much he might admire others. Every year he gave a concert devoted chiefly or entirely to that composer. He played, he conducted. There was no posing, no vanity, no self-seeking. He did the best he could to interpret the music faithfully; and when he could secure the aid of others, like Bülow, Manns, or Dannreuther, he gladly did so. Orchestras are expensive. The concerts—given solely for the sake of acquainting Londoners with some of the best music ever written—cost him seldom less than $800 or $1,000. The tickets he mostly gave away; the critics stayed away, or came only to scoff and scold. Abuse failing, they tried to coax him from his noble task. "Should the talented young musician ever follow the beaten track of the old masters," one of them wrote, "instead of lingering among the vagaries of Liszt and Wagner, how brilliant might be his future."

But Bache was not to be thus beguiled. He persevered, regardless of persecution and losses, and in the end he conquered. The critics came to admit that his concerts were among the most important events of the season, and then came the apotheosis—Liszt's visit to England, three months before his death; a visit during which even the statesmen and politicians passed out of sight in the Liszt furore. That was the happiest and proudest moment in Bache's life, when he got Liszt's letter, concluding with the words: "Without Walter Bache and his long years of self-sacrificing efforts in the propaganda of my works, my visit to London were indeed not to be thought of." He came to London as a composer, to be present at the performance of his "St. Elizabeth." He declined, in advance, to play, writing to Bache: "I cannot consent to this in public, as my seventy-five-year-old fingers are no longer suited to it; and Bülow, Saint-Saëns, Rubinstein, and you, dear Bache, play my compositions much better than my humble self." He was too good-natured, however, to abide by this decision. He did play, repeatedly, in semi-public. How he played, and what he played, together with the other details of his London visit, are entertainingly told in Miss Bache's volume, which also contains a pathetic account of Liszt's funeral. Her book, with its account of the self-sacrificing Liszt and his equally self-sacrificing pupil, cannot be too highly commended to the professional world, in which disinterestedness is all too rare.

GOOCH'S ANNALS.

Annals of Politics and Culture (1492-1899). By G. P. Gooch. Cambridge [England]: University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1901.

This elegantly printed octavo of 530 pages presents a double chronological table of the world's history from the discovery of America. The left-hand page deals with political history, the right-hand page with what the author has termed, for the sake of brevity, "Culture." The political occurrences of each year are grouped together under the names of the various countries. The events belonging to "culture" are placed under numerous separate captions, as, English Church, Russian Literature, Science, Art, Philosophy, Philology, Education, Economics, Geography, Anthropology, Social. The scope of the work in this department, it will thus appear, is very wide, so that the plan of the book, as the author avers in his preface, represents a new departure. Mr. Gooch is anxious to credit

Lord Acton with the idea of the publication.

With such a generous amount of space at the compiler's disposal extreme brevity was not called for, and the consequent fulness of statement, which is a salient feature of the work, renders the volume much more than a mere book of reference. The general reader, as well as the student of history, is tempted to linger over the pages crammed with such varied information, the insertion of which has been made possible by the aid of numerous efficient collaborators in special departments. Mr. Gooch has served up in an attractive style of presentation the minutiæ of modern history in every field, and he has left hardly a corner untouched. An enumeration of the celebrities, other than political, that figure under a single year, will help to illustrate the range of topics. Turning, for example, to the year 1851, we find mentioned (we follow the order in the text): Greg ('Creed of Christendom'); Newman, Carlyle, Borrow, Macready, Charles Kean, Barbey d'Aurevilley (whose "'Une Vieille Maîtresse' anticipates the naturalistic school"); Bodenstedt, Longfellow, Rangabe (who revives the Aristophanic drama); Schwabe (who proves the periodicity of sunspots); Hofmeister (botanist); William Thomson, Perkin (who discovers aniline purple); Ruhmkorff (with his electric-coil); Wagner, Ruskin, Verdi, Tenniel (who begins to draw for *Punch*); Spencer, Solovief (who produces his history of Russia); Schoolcraft, Neal Dow (founder of Prohibition in Maine); and the Prince Consort (in connection with the Exhibition in Hyde Park). As the two chronological tables are constantly kept abreast of each other, and as it was purposed to set up the pages without any considerable blank spaces, the author has had to face a delicate task in apportioning the material in such a way that the space devoted to one set of events under any individual year shall equal that allotted to the other. This has been adroitly done, but of necessity by the sacrifice of a proper balance, and by the insertion of numerous facts not entitled to inclusion on their own merits. Each paragraph is numbered, so as to provide an easy means of reference through a general index.

The book in its main features bears evidence of a vast amount of more or less scholarly labor, but the efforts of the compiler and his associates have resulted in fulness and comprehensiveness rather than accuracy and completeness, and it is a pity that the work was not submitted to at least one searching revision at the hands of some scholar acquainted with the pitfalls that beset encyclopædists. For one thing, it might have been rescued from the shortcomings that abound in the department of United States history. In spite of manifest destiny and the position of a world-Power, acquired at this threshold of the twentieth century, it would seem to be still the lot of the United States to be ruthlessly shoved into the background by the encyclopædic Powers beyond the sea. Mr. Gooch is distinctly behind the age in refusing separate black-letter headings to a people on whose lands the sun does not set, and in lumping their achievements with those of their feeble neighbors under the general caption of "America." We ourselves have learned to abide such affronts, but how Mr. Gooch came by his curious errors and omissions we must confess we are at a loss to imagine. August for Antietam, April for Chancellorsville, no Chickahominy or Chattanooga, McLellan invariably for McClellan, and Sheridan the taker of Richmond! Sins of omission and commission appear at shorter intervals throughout the volume than need be even in such a copious storehouse of facts, names, and dates. Turning, for instance, to the events of the Thirty Years' War, and the prelude to it, we encounter various enigmatical, loose, or inaccurate statements. Under the year 1612, we read, "The Protestant Union allies with the elector palatine," after having been correctly informed under the year 1608 that the Palatinate was one of the states which formed the Union in that year. The battles of Dessau and Lutter in 1626 are given in inverse chronological order. Under 1638 a naval victory of the French in the Mediterranean is chronicled in connection with the events of Germany. Under 1613 we encounter a curious instance of coming events casting their shadows before them, the word "war" being put in anticipatory fashion to stand for "Thirty Years' War." The account of the changes in the political constitution of Europe consummated at the Congress of Vienna is very defective. Among the points overlooked are the retention of Ceylon, etc., by England, and the recognition of Russia's title to Finland. The statement that the "part of Saxony" annexed by Prussia was Lusatia is wide of the mark. Prussia did not "receive" Posen, but merely regained possession of the region. The union of the duchy of Prussia with Brandenburg is given under 1611 and 1618 (the latter date being the correct one). The heading "Hungary" is singularly out of place in connection with the paragraph about Michael the Brave under 1600. What does Mr. Gooch mean when he states, under 1604, that "the Hungarians join Stephen Bocskay, who invades Hungary," etc.? It was Bocskay himself who organized the insurrection in Hungary which shook the throne of Rudolph II. Under 1621 we read, "The Archduke dies, and the Netherlands are reannexed to Spain." Did the appointment of the Archduke Albert to the Governorship of the Netherlands sever their connection with Spain?

We might go on pointing out errors and omissions in the political annals of the world (an easy task in the case of most encyclopædic works like the present), but it would hardly be a gracious performance on our part in view of our prizing the volume before us mainly as an exhaustive treasury of facts relating to the history of "culture," in the broad sense in which that word is used by the author. With all the manifold scholarship that has been lavished upon the work in this latter capacity, there is still sufficient room for improvement in a future edition, and the presence of many trivial entries in the pages (item 3687: Aubrey Beardsley becomes art editor of the *Yellow Book*) will facilitate the making of fresh insertions. Among the omissions that have come under our notice is the absence of all mention of the discovery of gold in California (the discovery of the metal in Australia in 1851 being recorded, though, singularly enough, under political occurrences), of the opening of the Pacific Railroad in 1869, the construction of the St. Gothard Tunnel, the opening of the Erie Canal (a landmark in American economic history), the invention of the ophthalmoscope by Helmholtz, the construction of Morse's telegraph line between Baltimore and Washington, the determination of the position of the North magnetic pole by Ross, the public introduction of the use of anæsthetics by Morton, or of Howe's invention of the sewing-machine. Vasco da Gama doubled the Cape of Good Hope before the close of 1497, and not in 1498. Peary's memorable traverse of North Greenland was made in 1892, not in 1891. Frequently a chain of events is introduced under one year when the date belongs to the initial event only, without any indication of this fact. Thus, Nansen's great achievement in reaching 86 deg. 14 min. is entered under 1893 in connection with the event of his sailing, without any mention of the year 1895. It is going rather far to speak of Maxim having invented a flying-machine (entry 3686), considering that the apparatus in question was not asked to do more than soar a few inches from the ground. The "annals" are followed by a very voluminous but ill-digested and extremely defective bibliography.

A volume like the present that is not furnished with a satisfactory index is like an elegant edifice with a leaky roof. A glance at the index, with its ten thousand entries or more, reveals plenty of gaps, which make the body of the work appear much more defective than it is. The presence of a statement to the effect that only about half of the names mentioned in the text will be found in the index will hardly extenuate the culpability of omitting the names in the following list (which bears witness to the richness of the book): Fulton, Morse, Langley, Sir Martin Conway, Peary, Roux, Fick, Hertz, Vogüé, Henry George, Sully-Prudhomme, Marsh, Oncken, Pictet, Hall (astronomer). We are puzzled to know why Mr. Gooch has chosen to restrict his index to proper names, and would have him explain to us what he means by leaving out the majority of geographical names. We find Waterloo, Trafalgar, Naseby, Plassey, and Lepanto, but look in vain for Plevna, Navarino, Zenta, Lexington, Saratoga, Bull Run, and Gettysburg, not to speak of such names as Greenland, Nile, Mississippi, and Kilimanjaro. On a par with the index is the slovenly orthography which mars these in general inviting pages. Lutzen, Lubeck, Würtemburg, Leipsig, Tréves, Rakoksy, Baryé, Munkaczy, Réclus, Leschetiszky, and similar slipshodities meet the eye in rapid succession.

With all its shortcomings, however, the 'Annals of Politics and Culture' is a book which is needed to fill a gap in nearly every library, big or little. The student of universal history who would be "broad" will not go without it, and to every owner of a cyclopædia (in nine cases out of ten an antiquated one) the volume will prove a treasure by reason of its full chronicle of recent events.

The Social Life of the Hebrews. By the Rev. Edward Day. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901. Pp. vii, 225.

This volume belongs to "The Semitic Series," the general editor of which is Prof. James A. Craig of the University of Michigan. The series as announced is to contain three volumes on the Hebrews, of which this is the third, the other two, covering "History and Government," and "Ethics and

Religion," having been assigned respectively to Professor McCurdy of Toronto and Professor Duff of Bradford, England. Besides these the series provides for an indefinite number of volumes on Islam, Palestine and Syria, Phœnicia, Babylonia and Assyria, etc. Only one other volume of the series as planned has as yet been published, 'The Life and Customs of the Babylonians and Assyrians,' by Professor Sayce of Oxford.

That there is a popular demand for books like this, dealing with the social life, the ethics and the religion, the history and the government of the Hebrews, from the standpoint of critical research and scholarship, is an evidence that the "higher critics" possess the land. They are no longer defending themselves against attack, nor are they, on the other hand, laying siege to the strongholds of the adherents of the old régime, endeavoring to overthrow the latter and establish themselves in their place. They are building cities and houses and occupying them; they have cast away the weapons of warfare, and are instituting a civil administration. To be sure, a few of the adherents of the old school still endeavor to carry on war against the conquerors, and a large number of non-combatants are still adherents of the old régime, but so soon as the new régime shall really have substituted a civil for a military government, and put all its departments and institutions in working order, this opposition will of itself die away. It is precisely this which books like the one before us are helping to accomplish—books of a constructive, not of a destructive character; books not concerned with proving the results of the newer criticism through critical processes, but books which reconstruct history, religious, political, and social, on the new lines, presenting results in a readable shape, from a sympathetic and not from a critical standpoint.

The general object of this book is, then, good, and with its main propositions we are in sympathy; it is also fairly interesting. It is divided into two parts, "The Time of the Judges" and "The Time of the Monarchy"; the writer does not, consequently, touch the post-Exilic Jewish period. Some of the first part, "The Time of the Judges," reminds us a little of the first ten books of Josephus's 'Antiquities.' We almost seemed to ourselves to be reading a summary, from a new standpoint, of the Old Testament. In the second part of the work, our author handles his material more freely. In general he gives us the impression, not of a "specialist," as announced in the prospectus of the series, but rather of one who uses, on the whole with good judgment, material at second hand. His references to other works are excellent. To criticise a few minor details: in the chapter entitled "The Family," he cites the two curious stories of Abraham's denial of his wife, once to the Egyptian Pharaoh, and the other time to the Philistine king, and the repetition of the latter story in the parallel account of Isaac's denial of his wife to the same Philistine king, as displaying "a want of chivalry in the regard for woman in early Israel, and a failure to recognize her inviolable sanctity." He says of the three stories that "they may have had a common original, and that may have been late, but it is in evidence" (p. 35). It seems to us that he quite misunderstands the meaning and character of these stories. They tell, as we take it, in the form of a personal narrative of the lives of the forefathers, of the relation of the Israelites to the Egyptians and Philistines, and their deliverance from the peoples whom they feared through the power of Yahaweh. In one narrative (J) the two stories of Egypt and Philistia were told of successive patriarchs, Abraham and Isaac; in another ancient narrative (E) the same figurative method was made use of, but here the deliverance from the Philistine danger, the only one related, was told of Abraham, instead of Isaac. Such stories cannot be safely utilized as illustrating family conditions. The statement concerning the land of Canaan, that the soil found there is such, for the most part, that "paths could easily be worn and could be kept by constant travel in a fairly passable state" (p. 68), is not in accordance with our observations, at least in the greater part of the rocky backbone of the country, where frequent travel over any spot is pretty sure to turn it in time into a bed of loose stones. But these are small matters.

The next to the last chapter, entitled "The Purification of Yahwism," belongs properly, we should suppose, to the volume on "Ethics and Religion," rather than to that on "The Social Life." Moreover, the matter of the chapter is open to serious criticism. The author seems to dissever the religious leaders of the people altogether from the people whom they led. He speaks of the religion of the people as "quite different from Yahwism as their great prophets understood it." To the Yahwism of the people belong "low moral standards, the passion and the hard, cruel, and unreasonable arbitrariness" which "did not have a very salutary influence upon the social life of the people as a whole," while the Yahwism of the prophets represented "a lofty ethical standard" and "an inspiring universalism." The whole chapter is conceived in the same vein. Now, what would be the result if one were to analyze the Christian religion of to-day in this manner? What a world-wide difference between Christianity as expressed in the actions of the soldiers of the Christian Powers who have been oppressing and harrying China—indulging, according to all accounts, in orgies of rapine and lust—and the utterances of the leading divines of all denominations in their pulpits on any given Sunday, or the sentiments of the hymns and prayers which Christian people in Europe and America utter weekly, or to which they assent in the services of the churches! One must observe great care in judging the religion of a people, neither judging it altogether by the ideal of its highest exponents, nor altogether by the practice of its worst votaries. Mr. Day seems to us, in the chapter in which he deals with "The Purification of Yahwism," to have selected, as representing the religion of the people, practices which were as little expressive of the popular ideal of "Yahwism" as the lynchings in this country or the rapine in China are of Christianity; and then he has put the utterances of the prophets over against the religion of the people, as though the religion of the prophets was an altogether new thing, an idea just started. Where did the prophets come from? Whence did the ideal come which they represented; and how was it possible that they could appeal to the people or obtain a hearing, unless there were some ideal or ideals common to the "Yahwism" of the prophets and the "Yahwism" of the people? That the author does not mean to undervalue the ethics of the Hebrews in all its public and popular manifestations is clear from the closing paragraph of his chapter on "Laws and their Infringement" (p. 195), where he claims that "justice was more secure among the Hebrews" in the period of the monarchy "than in England . . . in the time of Elizabeth," and that "in many other directions the civilization of the Hebrews was superior in many respects to that of England in the tenth and even in the twelfth century of our Christian era."

Mr. Day is not always careful in the construction of his sentences, as witness the following (p. 71):

"The pictures of the hospitable entertainment of guests which we find in the literature of the period under consideration are such as stir us to-day when a gently nurtured Christian woman may, while utilizing modern conveniences, pass from place to place, from city to city, and encounter naught but a bald officialism which may refuse even the barest courtesies of life unless tips are freely dispensed."

In form the book is handy, and an index makes reference easy.

The Problem of Conduct: A Study in the Phenomenology of Ethics. By A. E. Taylor. Macmillan. 1901.

In spite of the perverse way in which he has chosen to handicap it, Mr. Taylor's book is one of very considerable interest and cleverness. To launch a work extending to 500 pages with no index, and no clue to its contents beyond the brief titles to its eight chapters, is not judicious. It naturally results in a good deal of repetition and difficulty in following the argument, so that though the book can be read—Mr. Taylor is too lively and aggressive a writer to go to sleep over—it can hardly be used. And in addition to placing needless mechanical difficulties in his reader's way, Mr. Taylor seems resolved to have his fling at whatever objects of reverence he can find in the world, and bent on disgusting his readers with most sorts of flippancy and bad taste. He keeps an eager eye on the seamier sides of conduct, and, even in expression, often sails nearer the wind than seems tolerable. In short, his temper and tendency are distinctly "immoralist," and nothing pleases him better than to pose as the *enfant terrible* of his school.

It is this, largely, which renders him interesting. Though the essay was awarded the Green Moral Philosophy Prize in the University of Oxford, it shows how completely the strenuous, if somewhat nebulous, moralizing of Green has been superseded by the anti-practical dialectics of Mr. F. H. Bradley, which now appear as the dominant inspiration of Oxford "idealism." Mr. Taylor is a thorough Bradleyan, who avows (truly) that to Mr. Bradley his essay owes almost its whole value. But he devotes one of its most effective sections to a scathing refutation of Green's attempt to involve conduct in the metaphysics of the "Eternal Self." Now, when a philosophy is taken up by disciples, especially if they be youthful and enthusiastic, and, as Plato long ago remarked, delight in playing with an argument like puppy dogs, it may usually be assumed that for it the critical hour of trial has arrived. It would not, therefore, be astonishing if Mr. Bradley should find Mr.

Taylor's performance rather trying, but the question of more general interest is, What is the issue of this encounter of Bradleyism with ethics? The readers of chapter 25 of Mr. Bradley's 'Appearance and Reality,' of which Mr. Taylor's book is an expanded and aggravated version, will easily anticipate the answer. Morality, like religion and everything else, is self-contradictory "appearance," and must, therefore, "*somehow*" be merged in the Absolute, which is humorously called Experience on the *lucus a non lucendo* principle. That is practically the whole "ethics of Bradleyism," though in the end it may turn out to be a *reductio ad absurdum* of Bradleyism rather than of morality.

But though the meagreness of his constructive results was a foregone and inevitable conclusion, Mr. Taylor, like his master, contrives to say a good many interesting things in the 500 pages which elapse before he establishes this obvious consequence of his metaphysic satisfactorily to himself; and so he merits further examination. The question propounded for the Prize was the relation of metaphysics and ethics, and the answer which Mr. Bradley enables Mr. Taylor to give is that neither is it true that ethics rests on metaphysics, nor that it contributes to metaphysics principles of ultimate validity. Metaphysics is a purely speculative and formal analysis of "pure" experience (Mr. Taylor, perhaps wisely, does not attempt to show how such a science is possible); ethics is, or should be, a natural science of human conduct and ideals, resting on, or a part of, psychology (the exact relation is not made clear), and, like all such sciences, it is infected with error and illusion by reason of the partial and "symbolic" character of its conceptions. What is really needed at present is a phenomenology of ethics, *i. e.*, "the collection of a body of facts relative to the ethical opinions and emotions actually formed by different individuals" (p. 497).

Mr. Taylor, however, admits that to such a constructive phenomenology he "cannot claim to have made any direct contribution," and indeed he might have gone on to admit that in other respects also his treatment falls far short of his professed ideal. It is excellent, of course, that he should have perceived the need to know the empirical facts of the moral life before beginning to moralize, and creditable to have risen in successful revolt against the apriorist tradition in which he was nurtured. But, like Mr. Bradley, he also seems to think that, so soon as an empirical science of psychology is recognized at all, a headlong plunge must be taken into gross naturalism. The possibility of normative sciences which, after examining all the available empirical facts, proceed to consider their value, and to systematize accordingly, he seems entirely to overlook.

Further, in spite of, or perhaps because of, its virulence, his very naturalism is only skin deep, and neither consistent with itself nor inconsistent with frequent relapses into metaphysical dogmatism. *E. g.*, he could hardly deny that his whole attitude towards morality is determined by his metaphysical views, even though he seems to be unaware how decidedly he renders ethics dependent on (Bradleyan) metaphysics. But this all-pervasive influence of metaphysics might be forgiven Mr. Taylor as a philosopher (if not as a scientist), if it did not affect his treatment also of details, and constantly incite him to make short work with the psychological facts in ways which are neither empirical nor plausible, and belie his honorably empiricist intentions.

A couple of instances will illustrate this. In chapter 3 it seems quite arbitrary to lay down the boundaries of ethical fact where he does. Forgetting that *equivalents* are not necessarily *identical*, he decides that the apparently disparate modes of valuing conduct, as right, beautiful, etc., shall be reduced to expressions of social "approbation" or "disapprobation." And yet he declines to analyze these further into judgments of pleasure and pain dependent on biological "usefulness," on the ground that this would transgress the limits of ethics. But if ethics is to start with a psychological examination of the empirical facts, it will neither do arbitrarily to exclude any aspect of conduct, nor to sacrifice the primary plurality of the valuations applied to conduct so easily to the metaphysical demand for unity. This disregard of fact, of course, avenges itself on him. Mr. Taylor's "sentiments of approbation and disapprobation," resting on a psychological analysis which is insufficient and perfunctory, are really ambiguous, and import far-reaching confusions into all the discussions that follow.

Again, in dealing with the religious sentiments, he coolly dismisses their immense empirical variety by an *ipse dixit* to the effect that the only true and permanently satisfying mode of religious experience is that exemplified by Spinoza's "intellectual love of God," and the alleged feeling of one's perfection as part of a perfect universe to which mystics and (incautious) theologians are held to have (verbally) committed themselves. Now this is very pretty as fooling (like most of Mr. Taylor's last chapter), but a genuine empiricist would surely feel bound to examine each of the alleged cases in its psychological context in order to discover what sense the words used were actually intended to convey. Mr. Taylor settles the matter gayly and offhand on Mr. Bradley's authority, and his treatment seems the more indefensible as he previously (pp. 369-372) had shown in an excellent *aperçu* that he perceived how very individual a thing a philosopher's ultimate view of the world really is, and how absurd is the attempt to reduce all men's final reactions upon their experience to one and the same pattern.

It would seem, therefore, that while Mr. Taylor's naturalism is quite compatible with metaphysical dogmatism, it is as yet only very imperfectly empiricism. No doubt in the course of years he will remedy this, and it may even come to pass that the "nonconformist conscience," which at present he is so eager to outrage, will reawaken in himself. If this should happen, the undeniable promise of his present work may be fulfilled by a sequel deserving of unreserved commendation.

Sounding the Ocean of Air: Being Six Lectures delivered before the Lowell Institute of Boston in December, 1898. By A. Lawrence Rotch, S.B., A.M. London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge.

Blue Hill Observatory has long been famous as the greatest kite-flying institution in the world; and Mr. Rotch, its originator, director, and patron, has for many years conducted, in this picturesque manner, most significant researches in the upper air from the highest vantage point on the Atlantic Coast from Maine to North Carolina. An expert in all matters meteorological, he has embodied his interesting historical studies as well as the results of his own experiments in the series of Lowell Institute lectures collected in the present little volume.

The first chapter, upon the atmosphere, our knowledge concerning it, and methods of investigation, is full of quaint information as to early beliefs about the mighty medium in which we live and move and have our being, and contains a running history of the development of apparatus, of which the weather-vane is oldest and antedates the Christian era. The hygrometer, an instrument for measuring moisture, does not appear until the fifteenth century, the rain-gauge a century later. The origin of the thermometer is obscure, but it was used in the sixteenth century, while the barometer, last invented of all the fundamental meteorological instruments, owes its birth to Galileo and his pupil Torricelli, in the middle of the seventeenth century. In Florence between 1650 and 1670, weather observations were conducted and preserved, forming the real beginning of instrumental meteorology.

The opening chapter also treats of the first balloons, and early mountain-ascents. Conquest of the air by balloons was temporarily abandoned early in the nineteenth century, and the mountaineer left in supremacy. But now the aeronaut comes again to the front, and, while no mountain-climber has yet reached an altitude higher than 24,000 feet, the aeronaut has ascended more than a mile above this, without unbearable hardship; and unmanned balloons have reached distances twice as high as the loftiest mountains. While it was realized at the beginning of the nineteenth century that all our observations were conducted at the very bottom of the great ocean of air, it has been only within the last thirty years that systematic observation at high altitudes has been thought necessary for comparison with that at low level. The first mountain-top station in the world was established in 1871 on Mount Washington, 6,300 feet above the sea. The highest existing station is maintained by Harvard University on El Misti in Peru, at a height of 19,000.

In his chapter on "Clouds," Mr. Rotch gives information as to early theories, and also the causes, now known, for shapes and differences. Directors of meteorological institutions throughout the world, meeting in 1891 at Munich, decided to adopt the cloud classification already proposed by an English and a Swedish expert, and to appoint a committee for preparing an atlas. In 1894 this committee met at Upsala, Mr. Rotch being the American member, and, after defining the various forms of clouds, and selecting pictures to illustrate them, also drew up instructions for observation. In 1896 the Atlas was published, becoming at once the recognized authority. This chapter on clouds defines the ten principal forms, beginning with highest cirrus, and including combinations with stratus, the familiar cumulus and its

varieties; describes also nimbus, and stratus proper, at lowest levels. It is well known that the accuracy and importance of cloud observations at Blue Hill are more complete than those made anywhere else, perhaps, in the world; which can also be said in no less measure of their discussion, a few years ago, by Mr. Clayton.

A chapter on balloons follows, recording the interesting fact that to a Bostonian, Dr. John Jeffries, belongs the honor of making the first scientific balloon ascension, in 1784. Starting at London, he rose two miles, and descended safely in Kent, after an hour and a half. In his history of balloon-voyaging, Mr. Rotch gives some tragic and thrilling incidents. The greatest height at which observations in free air have been made in America was at 15,500 feet, when Professor Hazen reached this altitude in the series of balloon-ascents conducted by the Signal Service. In December of 1894 Dr. Berson ascended alone, in Prussia, and reached, in the *Phœnix*, 30,000 feet, probably the greatest height ever attained by man, at least in a conscious state. By breathing oxygen, he retained his senses; and later, in 1898, he made another ascent, this time from the Crystal Palace in London, during a period of abnormal heat. He reached an altitude of 27,300 feet, and experienced no ill effects, using oxygen as before. But in thirty-five minutes the temperature fell from 80 degrees at the ground to 29 degrees below zero four miles and a half above. The ill-fated expedition of Andrée is mentioned, and the coöperation of France and Germany in high-air observation.

For information about the atmospheric strata above six miles, that is to say, beyond where human beings can safely venture, even by the help of oxygen, so-called *ballons-sondes* are employed, which carry self-recording instruments. A chapter is given to them. The trial trip of the *Aérophile* occurred March 21, 1893, when it reached a height of 49,000 feet, recording a temperature of 60° below zero. The *Cirrus* made a remarkable voyage of 700 miles, in 1894, recording 54,000 feet and 63° below zero. But this height was greatly exceeded when, in 1895, the same balloon reached 72,000 feet. From samples of air collected at this height in a reservoir, at once automatically and hermetically sealed, and afterward analyzed, it was found that its composition does not vary much from that of lower levels. Later experiments may reveal the secrets of bacteria and cosmic dust.

The two remaining chapters in this exceedingly valuable and interesting work are devoted to the meteorological history of kites, with especial reference to results of their use at Blue Hill. Here simultaneous records from the kite and a station on the ground were first made, and here also the earliest automatic record of temperature was obtained from a kite. After many experiments with scientific kite-flying, the wind has at last been successfully harnessed, generally to some form of Hargrave kite. At Blue Hill the average weight is about two ounces per square foot of lifting surface. The largest is nine feet high, and weighs eleven pounds, with ninety square feet of lifting surface. Mr. Clayton has invented a regulating bridle for each, by which they are enabled to weather gales fifty or sixty miles an hour. Music wire instead of cord is used, and is capable of withstanding a pull of three hundred pounds. The United States Weather Bureau created seventeen kite stations in 1898, largely situated in the Mississippi Valley, with the idea that weather forecasts could thus be improved. But winds during summer were often so light that the construction of upper-air maps had to be abandoned. Exploration of the lower two miles of air with kites flown from Blue Hill is doubtless the most complete ever made at one place, and it would be difficult to overestimate the value and accuracy of these observations. Deductions as to air-movements are now possible, and the origin of cyclones and anti-cyclones—perhaps the most important problem remaining for meteorological study—will not improbably reach its authentic solution in the near future by means of the kites at Blue Hill, in the expert hands of Mr. Rotch and his trained assistants.

The Constitution. By Ira N. Hollis. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

By the year 1785 the old Continental navy, of which John Paul Jones may be considered one of the founders, had disappeared from the service of the American Republic, and not an armed vessel of any kind remained under the control of the new nation. This state of affairs remained until 1794, when the act to provide a naval armament for the United States became a law by the approval of Washington. This legislation gave to the President the option of building or purchasing six vessels of the frigate class, and was due mainly to the depredations of the Mediterranean pirates, as they may properly be called. In a letter from Mr. Joshua Humphreys to Robert Morris, suggesting the proper type to be built for the infant navy of the United States, is contained an argument for large frigates, which happily bore fruit in the *Constitution* and her class. Humphreys strongly favored vessels of such a size that in "blowing weather" they would be an overmatch for double-deck ships with low gun-ports, while in light winds they would outsail the heavier vessels and avoid a conflict at disadvantage. As a result, in dimensions the *Constitution* was twenty feet longer than the British thirty-eight-gun frigates, and had five feet greater breadth of beam. The frames of her hull, the planking, and the masts were equal in dimensions to those of an ordinary line-of-battle ship, while her gun-deck port sills were from eight to nine feet above the waterline, thus allowing her to use her guns on this deck in weather which would roll the lower parts of the ordinary frigate under water. As a result of this construction the *Constitution* carried an exceptionally heavy battery and a large complement of officers and men, the latter reaching at one time nearly 500 in all classes.

The completion and commissioning of the *Constitution* were delayed until the French began to commit overt acts, which led to the commencement of hostilities in 1798. In April of that year the navy was placed under a separate cabinet officer, and Congress authorized the capture of any French armed vessel within our territorial limits or upon the high seas. The *Constitution*, under Capt. Samuel Nicholson, got to sea in July, 1798, and, cruising as far south as Cape Florida, finally joined Barry's squadron in the West Indies. She accomplished little in these hostilities, in which the honors went to the *Constellation*. In 1803, when again commissioned, she sailed for the Mediterranean as flagship of Commodore Edward Preble, who commanded a squadron formed to operate against the Tripolitan Coast. Although this squadron was a small one, it contained among its officers such men as Preble, Decatur, Hull, Stewart, Bainbridge, Biddle, Macdonough, Lawrence, Warrington, Chauncey, and Burrows.

After the successful termination of the war with the Barbary States, the navy had its periodical neglect, notwithstanding our growing troubles with England. Jefferson's policy of gunboats—of something cheap—became the order of the day, and Humphreys's wise statements were forgotten. This mania for a royal, and at the same time cheap, road to naval success is ever recurring, and the author wisely calls attention to the fallacy of it. At one time it is for gunboats, at another for torpedo-boats; just now, aided by a powerful lobby, it is for submarine boats. Professor Hollis well says: "The painful steps and mistaken theories by which our nation has acquired experience should save us in the days of rapid change."

It is hardly necessary to recount the career of the *Constitution* in the war of 1812, where her great distinction was achieved. Notwithstanding the fact that the author's service in the navy was as an engineer, his recital of the actions in which the *Constitution* was concerned is correct and appreciative, with an occasional lapse in phraseology. For so controversial an engineer of former days as Professor Hollis was, it is not without a sense of humor that his friends in the naval service see him embark and succeed so well as an historian of the days of sail, and he seems to be successfully amalgamated, though no longer of the service.

This volume is professedly intended to awaken the interest of the people in the *Constitution* and its preservation by popular subscription. It is natural that this movement should emanate from Boston, where she was built, Paul Revere supplying the copper for the hull, and where Holmes's famous poem gave to her a new life. The present ship could easily be of service at one of the training stations to house our training petty officers, and give sentiment and associations of a patriotic nature to blend with more technical instruction.

Ignaz von Döllinger: Sein Leben auf Grund seines schriftlichen Nachlasses dargestellt von J. Friedrich. Dritter Theil. Von der Rückkehr aus Frankfurt bis zum Tod 1849-1890. Munich: Beck. 1901.

The third and concluding volume of Professor Friedrich's biography of Döllinger covers the period from 1849, when he ceased to be a member of the Frankfort Parliament, to the time of his death in 1890, and contains a full and faithful account of the career of the eminent Bavarian theologian and scholar during the most eventful years of his life. The work is based chiefly upon the posthumous papers of the deceased, and the careful study of these authentic documents has enabled the author to decide

many disputed points and to correct many misconceptions. However much one may differ from Döllinger's views, it is impossible to deny his thorough sincerity, unimpeachable integrity, and insatiable love of learning. It was this scholarly taste rather than any strong religious feeling that led him to choose the clerical profession. Had he been born half a century later, he would probably have devoted his talents to historical researches or to the cultivation of natural science, for which he was far better fitted than for the cure of souls. His entire freedom from ambition in the matter of ecclesiastical preferment is shown by his rejection of the Archbishopric of Salzburg, which was offered him in 1850. His life, which extended over three full generations, comprised also three distinct periods of intellectual development, which may be described in general as a gradual and painful process of disillusion in respect to his ideal of Catholicism as compared with the actual character and condition of the Roman hierarchy. Till the middle of the last century he had cherished the belief that the Holy See, notwithstanding its frequent aberrations and departures from the early teachings and traditions of the Church, was sound at the core, and would welcome the aid of honest scholarship in correcting its errors and restoring it to its primitive purity. At this time, however, his faith began to be shaken by the bitter hostility of the highest papal authorities to the results of his own historical investigations, as well as to German science and modern culture in all its forms. He perceived that Jesuitism and Ultramontanism were growing more aggressive and arrogant in their domination of the papacy. A striking example of this tendency was the definition and proclamation of the dogma of the Immaculate Conception by Pius IX. in 1854, "on his own authority, without the coöperation and consent of a council." Döllinger never accepted this doctrine, which he was convinced had no foundation either in Holy Writ or in sacred tradition; nor did he regard its rejection as disturbing in the least his relations to the Catholic Church, since the manner of its promulgation deprived it of all binding force, and reduced it, in his opinion, to the mere utterance of "a vain and vacillating old man led to do foolish things by adulatory and unscrupulous advisers." Another shock to him was the canonization of Peter Arbues in 1867, which incited him to publish a series of articles on the Roman and Spanish inquisition with a characterization of Arbues himself and a critical examination of his claims to sainthood. These papers, which appeared anonymously in the *Augsburger Allgemeine Zeitung*, created an immense sensation, and the Munich Archbishop Scherr, who supposed Professor Frohschammer to be the author, urgently requested Döllinger to publish a reply to them. They also inspired Kaulbach to produce his famous picture representing Arbues condemning a Jewish family to the stake, the exhibition of which in the Bavarian capital came near causing a riot.

In 1870, says Döllinger, "the scales fell from my eyes." During the remaining twenty years of his life he saw the Romish Church in its true light, and was no longer "cheated by blear illusion." The events of this third period of his career are still so fresh in the public mind that it is hardly necessary to pass them in review. In the present volume they are fully and impartially narrated, and form a record of conscientiousness and courage worthy of high admiration. After his excommunication, every effort was made to entice him back into the fold. Bishops and other ecclesiastical dignitaries as well as ladies of noble and royal blood earnestly entreated him to return. One of these female emissaries of the Holy See naïvely remarked that she had recently met a number of Italian Passionists, who frankly declared that no one believed in the infallibility of the Pope, and yet these men were in good standing with his Holiness and remained within the pale of the Church. Why should not Döllinger, she added, exercise the same discretion? In giving utterance to these words she was only the mouthpiece of Leo XIII., who urged Döllinger to come to Rome. "Apply directly to me," he said, "and declare merely that you still adhere to the views concerning the papacy which you have formerly expressed, and nothing more will be required." As Döllinger had always been opposed to the Vatican dogma, he could have made such a declaration with perfect candor and consistency; but he knew that it would be interpreted as a recantation and submission, and he refused to enter into any compromise that might be misconstrued and thereby place him in a false or equivocal position. As he wrote subsequently to a friend: "I would not sully my old age with a lie, nor seem by any sort of implication to accept a dogma which to me was equivalent to asserting that two and two make five instead of four."

In a retrospect of his life as an octogenarian he confessed that he had honestly cherished many errors, often clinging to them with persistency, and violently resisting the better knowledge as it began to dawn upon him. The recognition of this fact rendered him extremely considerate of others' mistakes, and enabled him as an historian to see events in their true relations and to avoid hasty inferences and false generalizations. His four-score years and ten neither senilized nor fossilized him. In a letter to the present writer only a month before his death, he referred to the work in which he was then engaged and to his future labors with the enthusiasm and confidence of a man of fifty. "I am now busy in completing the treatise on the Order of the Templars, and shall then take up that on the Part of North America in Literature." Unfortunately, both of these papers, as well as the academic address on the History of Religious Freedom, remained fragments.

In the three volumes of Döllinger's biography Professor Friedrich not only gives an interesting account of the career of an eminent scholar, but also a valuable contribution to the history of culture in the nineteenth century.

Theology at the Dawn of the Twentieth Century: Essays on the Present Status of Christianity and its Doctrines. Edited, with an introduction, by I. Vyrnwy Morgan, D.D. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 1901.

The claim of Dr. Morgan's preface, that his book is "made up of original essays prepared expressly in response to his appeal," seems to be impeached by the fact that several of the essays, including President Eliot's and Mr. Frederic Harrison's, have a familiar face; but it may be that, even though bent on furthering Dr. Morgan's scheme, some of the essayists had a frugal mind, and economized their work elsewhere before sending it to him. The essays are extremely various, both in their subject-matter and in their manner of treating it. Some of them are trivial; if above the level of the most ordinary pulpit utterance, so much the worse for that. Dr. Morgan seems to have aimed at giving a fair conspectus of the present-time theology; certainly he has not endeavored to make out a particularly good case for the conservative party, or, if he has done so, his efforts have not been well repaid. The stronger representatives of this party will probably agree to this as instantly, if not as cheerfully, as their liberal opponents. We seem to have another batch of evidence that the disintegration of orthodoxy is exemplified more by the concessions of its most conservative defenders than by the latitude of those commonly known as having accepted "the new theology."

If Dr. Morgan had wished to conciliate the conservative party, he went to work in a peculiar fashion when he followed up his own introduction with Frederic Harrison's 'Christianity at the End of the Nineteenth Century.' Apart from the justice of its presentation, nothing in the book is better written, if so well. It is a splendid arraignment of our current imperialism and of the encouragement which this gets from excellent divines. It has important paragraphs on the reaction from Darwin and Spencer to "a shifty and muddle-headed kind of Spiritualism" which is well represented by Mr. Balfour's 'Foundations of Belief,' with its "cynical pessimism and incurable doubt about all Truth leading up to a practical support of the Orthodox Creeds." Mr. Harrison did well, perhaps, to maintain a negative attitude and not recommend his Positivism as a panacea for contemporary ills; but it is certain that the English Positivists have been humane to a degree that has shamed a good deal of the vociferous orthodoxy of the time.

The aim has been to have all the leading questions now before the churches discussed from a conservative and liberal point of view, but the mark of this high calling has not been hit in every case. Dean Hart of Denver writes with much heat of "The Darwinian Craze," and in the various non-Christian religions of the world finds "a rapid departure" from a pure original revelation. Rabbi Hirsch of Chicago takes the affirmative for Evolution in one of the best essays in the book. Dr. McConnell's doctrine of "Scripture Inspiration and Authority" is, substantially, that whatever inspires us is inspired; Dr. Dixon, a Baptist clergyman, furnishes the counterblast, in which we read of Darwin's second visit to Tierra del Fuego in 1869, an event which never went through the form of taking place. Dr. H. P. Smith of Amherst, Mass., contributes one of the best articles, "The Old Testament in the Light of the Higher Criticism." A typographical error gives 1773 as the date of Astruc's Pentateuch 'Conjectures,' instead of 1753. Universalism and other aspects of future punishment have no less than six articles. Dr. De Normandie, the Unitarian contributor, teaches loftily that "everlasting punishment is the loss of some

spiritual power which might have been ours," but then, "best men," as Shakspere said, are sometimes "moulded out of faults."

The Rev. Robert Collyer's poetical rendering of "The Sacrament" is strangely contrasted with the next following article, "The Sacerdotal Conception of Christianity," which is quite the most learned article in Dr. Morgan's collection, and would be the most convincing if tradition were the guide of life and were a matter of picking and choosing to suit one's self. Christian Science has three chapters to itself—one a sympathetic statement by a Baptist minister; one a wordy explanation by a devout adherent; and a third an adverse criticism by Dr. Faunce, President of Brown University, which makes cruel mention of Mother Eddy's philological escapade with Adam (clearly, she says, *a dam*, or obstruction, meaning matter), and of the "Christian Science Souvenir Spoons," on each one of which "is a motto in bas-relief that every person on earth needs to hold in thought." The encyclical making this announcement continued: "Mother requests that Christian Scientists shall not ask to be informed what this motto is, but each Scientist shall purchase at least one spoon, and those who can afford it one dozen spoons, that their families may read this motto at every meal, and their guests be made partakers of its simple truth." Who shall presume to say that in our generation the children of darkness are wiser than the children of light?

There are three articles on the Church and Social Questions, but they do not come to close quarters with any of these questions. The influence of the world upon the Church seems to be more in evidence than the influence of the Church upon the world. The climax of one writer's enthusiasm is that the American Church "can command the use of property worth $679,630,139." Bishop Doane pleads for indissoluble marriage on the clear ground of New Testament injunction, while Justice Burns argues the necessity of divorce, from the conditions of modern marriage. "The New Orthodoxy" is a good statement of the development which assumes this contradictory designation. One of the very best articles in the book is "The Trend of Theological Thought in England," by the Rev. R. A. Armstrong of Liverpool. It considers the growth of ritualism and sacerdotalism, the decay of evangelicism, and the spread of agnosticism in a singularly clear and forcible presentation. Ritualism is regarded as fundamentally skeptical, the refuge of those who are afraid to think. President Eliot's disclosure of his theological mind is very frank up to a certain point. He celebrates the decay of Biblical and other authority and the advance of sociology, and ends with a naïve acceptance of Jesus as "the loveliest and best of human seers, teachers, and heroes." But he does not, nor does any one here, except Mr. Harrison to some extent, attempt to measure our boasted "Christian civilization" by the New Testament standards and determine the degree of its conformity therewith.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alge, S., Rippmann, Walter, and Buell, W. H. Newson's German Reader. Newson & Co. 75 cents.
Alge, S., Rippmann, Walter, and Buell, W. H. Newson's First French Book. Newson & Co. 50 cents.
Bacheller, Irving. D'ri and I. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. $1.50.
Ballentine, F. S. The Modern American Bible: St. Luke. Thomas Whittaker. 50 cents.
Bardsley, C. W. A Dictionary of English and Welsh Surnames. Henry Frowde.
Bartholomew, J. G., and Smith, G. A. Topographical and Physical Map of Palestine. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Scribners. $3.50.
Biddle, A. J. D. The Land of the Wine. 2 vols. London: Drexel Biddle.
Bulfinch, Thomas. (1) The Age of Fable; (2) The Age of Chivalry; and (3) Legends of Charlemagne. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.
Caine, Hall. The Eternal City. D. Appleton & Co.
Cay, Nowell. The Presumption of Stanley Hay, M.P. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.25.
Cromie, Robert. Kitty's Victoria Cross. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.25.
Crowley, Aleister. The Mother's Tragedy, and Other Poems. Privately printed.
Danvers, Ernesto. John Grant & Son's Directory of the British, Anglo-Argentine, and North American Residents in the Argentine Republic, and Argentine Commercial Guide. New ed. Buenos Ayres: John Grant & Son.
De Amicis, Edmondo. Heart: A Schoolboy's Journal. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 60 cents.
Dodge, W. P. From Squire to Prince. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 10s. 6d.
Dresser, H. W. The Christ Ideal. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Forsythe, Clarence. Old Songs for Young America. Doubleday, Page & Co. $2.
Gibson, W. H. Blossom Hosts and Insect Guests. Newson & Co. 80 cents.
Goebel, Julius. Goethe's Poems. H. Holt & Co.
Harris, Charles. Lessing's Hamburgische Dramaturgie. H. Holt & Co.
Hervey, W. A. Supplementary Exercises to Thomas's Practical German Grammar. H. Holt & Co.
Hoffman, H. S. Life beyond the Grave. New ed. Philadelphia: The Union Press. $1.
Hylan, J. P. Public Worship: A Study in the Psychology of Religion. Chicago: The Open Court Pub. Co. 25 cents.
Ingelow, Jean. Mopsa, the Fairy. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 60 cents.
Keats, John. Complete Works. 5 vols. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.
Latson, W. R. C. Practical Dietetics: Food Value of Meat. The Health Culture Co.
Leigh, Lennard. Bridge Whist. Philadelphia; Henry T. Coates & Co.
Litchfield, Mary E. Selections from Five English Poets. Ginn & Co.
Lockwood, Sara E. H., and Emerson, Mary A. Composition and Rhetoric for Higher Schools. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.15.
Long, W. J. Secrets of the Woods. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Low, A. M. The Supreme Surrender. Harpers. $1.50.
Ludlow, J. M. Deborah. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Macdonough, Rodney. The Macdonough-Hackstaff Ancestry. Boston: Published by the Author.
Major, Charles. The Bears of Blue River. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.25.
Marden, O. S. Success Booklets. (1) Good Manners; (2) Cheerfulness; (3) The Hour of Opportunity; (4) Character; (5) Iron Will; and (6) Economy. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 35 cents each.
Mark, H. T. Individuality and the Moral Aim in American Education. Longmans, Green, & Co.
Maude, Aylmer. Tolstoy and his Problems. London: Grant Richards; New York: A. Wessels Co. $1.50.
McLaws, Lafayette. When the Land Was Young. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. $1.50.
Mérejkowski, Dmitri. The Death of the Gods. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Moore, R. W. History of German Literature. New ed. Hamilton (N. Y.): Germania Press.
Palmer, J. M. Personal Recollections. Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co. $3.

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THE MACMILLAN COMPANY, 66 Fifth Ave., New York

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 12, 1901.

The Week.

As we go to press, nothing has occurred to check President McKinley's happy progress towards recovery from the insensate attempt to take his life last week. His remarkable temperament has helped sustain him in a crisis too often fatal, and something of his equanimity has marked the way in which the public at large has faced what promised to be a serious calamity. The rejoicing is now universal.

Hysteria produces anarchy, and apparently anarchy in turn produces hysteria. Naturally, the attempt to kill President McKinley has provoked countless expressions of horror and of detestation, with many cries for swift and terrible punishment of the assassin. But no indignation at the signal lawlessness of Czolgosz should betray us into forgetting for an instant the fact that the remedy for anarchy is not counter-anarchy, but law. There has not been for years a more opportune moment for every citizen, from Portland to San Francisco, to ponder on this lesson. In the last few months our annals have been blackened by many crimes of violence; and mobs, no longer content with hanging negro ravishers, have begun to burn and torture with a malignity worthy of the veriest savages. The same ferocity has vented itself in shrieks to lynch Czolgosz and every other wretched anarchist; and, unhappily, these hysterical utterances have not been confined to the outcast and desperate classes. "I would have blown the scoundrel to atoms," said the Rev. R. H. Naylor, who occupied the pulpit in President McKinley's church in Washington on Sunday. The Rev. T. De Witt Talmage at Ocean Grove was equally strenuous: "I wish with all my heart that the policeman who arrested Czolgosz had, with the butt end of that pistol, dashed his life out." Moreover, the Rev. John Lloyd Lee, in the Westminster Presbyterian Church in this city, is credited with saying: "Until a better way is found, lynch him on the spot. When an anarchist makes red-flag speeches, then, and not when he has killed a President, be done with him." If such frantic talk be not anarchism, worthy of Emma Goldman herself, nothing is.

The Philadelphia *North American* has collected the opinions of Congressmen on the following question:

"Do you favor forbidding the entrance into the United States of those called anarchists and believing in the destruction, overturning, and subversion of established government, and an amendment to naturalization laws making these principles a disqualification for citizenship?"

The *North American* says that every answer received has been in the affirmative, which, no doubt, reflects the state of public opinion at the moment, but the practical value of such legislation would be small. It would not keep out any anarchist who really desired to come to this country. Persons who have the purpose to assassinate the rulers of nations, and who take the pains and precautions to accomplish that end, would never be deterred from entering the United States by any regulations that it would be possible to enforce. Nobody who has the intention to commit murder will hesitate to take a false oath. If the attempt is made to bring in testimony concerning the intentions, opinions, beliefs, and affiliations of an arriving passenger other than that derived from personal examination, then anybody may be excluded by false testimony on mere suspicion. Practically, the onus of proving a negative would be thrown upon every person against whom a bad report had been lodged with the Superintendent of Immigration. A bill to exclude anarchists was introduced by Senator Hill of New York in the United States Senate in 1894, and it passed that body, but failed to pass the House, because it was believed to be impracticable. Of course, such a measure, if it had been in force, would not have prevented the murderous assault on President McKinley, since Czolgosz was born in the United States.

It gives us much pleasure to concur with President McKinley's speech at Buffalo, just before the attempt upon his life. We concur with it especially in its treatment of the subject of Reciprocity, and as to the grounds of his support of that policy. "The period of exclusiveness," he says, "is past." "The expansion of our trade and commerce," he continues, "is the pressing problem. Commercial wars are unprofitable. . . . Reciprocity treaties are in harmony with the spirit of the times; measures of retaliation are not." Here we find our long-time principles echoed, to our unfeigned satisfaction. But the passage which gives us most pleasure, since it goes to the bottom of the question, is the following:

"We must not repose in fancied security that we can for ever sell everything and buy little or nothing. If such a thing were possible, it would not be best for us or for those with whom we deal."

Our readers will recognize this line of argument as perfectly familiar in these columns. We need not assume any inconsistency in McKinley's latest views of our trade policy. It is quite admissible for anybody to say that the times have changed, and that we should change with them; that the policy of restriction and exclusiveness which was proper a dozen years ago is no longer desirable; that a system which was intended to build up certain manufactures by tariffs, and enable them to compete in the world's markets, is neither justifiable nor profitable after the manufacturers have proved their ability to undersell foreigners in foreign markets. It is true that Mr. Blaine, whom President McKinley quotes with something like reverence, held these doctrines in respect of Reciprocity as far back as 1890, and that he smashed his hat on the table of a committee-room of the Senate where the McKinley Tariff Bill was under consideration, in order to express his dissent from it, and compelled the committee to adopt a reciprocity clause as a part of that measure. It is a sufficient justification for Mr. McKinley to say that he has learned much respecting foreign trade, as well as concerning the coinage of silver, since 1890, when he supported the Sherman Bill as the nearest approach to free coinage that was then possible.

Some of the English papers affect to see in the President's allusions to the "Isthmian Canal" (not the Nicaraguan Canal) a purpose of hostility to European Powers, and to Great Britain in particular; also, a disposition on his part to carry Monroeism to the extreme of excluding from the American Continent even European Powers which had possessions here before we became an independent nation. It is needless to say to those who have read the speech that such interpretations are not warranted by anything in it. On the contrary, there has seldom been any utterance from a public man on this side of the water, dealing with the canal question and our relations toward other American States, freer from Jingoism or anything like an offensive tone. For the spirit of amity and peace which pervaded the President's speech at Buffalo, he is entitled to all commendation.

Senator Hoar made some remarks before the Essex Club at Salisbury Beach, Mass., simultaneously with President McKinley's speech on Reciprocity at Buffalo last Thursday. The Senator said that he was not opposed in all cases to such commercial arrangements as the President recommended, but he felt bound to caution the manufacturers of New England "not to enter upon this great struggle, with all mankind as a competitor, by placing any fetters upon

their own limbs." What he meant by putting fetters on their own limbs was explained in the following manner:

> "The possession of your own market is what has gained for you the power and the opportunity to enter upon foreign markets. Be careful that you do not throw away that vantage ground. Remember that nearly every considerable reciprocity treaty we have ever made, especially our old reciprocity treaty with Canada, has been a source of unmixed vexation, and you were eager to get rid of it as soon as its term expired."

In other words, apparently, if the present tariff enables the producers of anything to sell their goods at higher prices in the home markets than they sell the same in foreign markets, they had best not consent to any relaxation of the tariff which gives them such rare opportunities. It is to be hoped that the question of Reciprocity may be debated publicly in the Senate during the coming session, and that Mr. Hoar may be asked whether he really means this. It will be a good time then to ask him also what foundation he has for the assumption that the manufacturers of New England were dissatisfied with the old reciprocity treaty with Canada. Mr. Hoar says that it was a source of "unmixed vexation." Our recollection is that it was a source of general satisfaction to the manufacturers of the country, including those of New England, and that the real cause of its abrogation was the bad feeling growing out of the civil war and the operations of Confederate agents in Canadian territory. Without this cause of irritation, the old reciprocity treaty might have remained in force to this day. At all events, the manufacturers of New England would never have taken a step to abrogate it.

The Chicago *Tribune* has performed a valuable service in compiling a table of the illegal executions in each State of the Union during the last sixteen years, and a list of all that have been reported during the current year. Of all the States, Delaware, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Utah alone have been free from the stain of lynch law during a period in which the whole number of deaths at the hands of lynchers reached the appalling total of 2,516. Of this number, 2,080 took place in the Southern States, and 436 in the Northern; 51 of the victims were women, 1,678 were negroes, 801 whites, 21 Indians, 9 Chinese, and 7 Mexicans. Murder and rape were the excuses most frequently given for mob law, but 112 other reasons were assigned, some of the most extraordinarily petty nature, such as slapping a child, enticing away a servant, "unpopularity," voodooism, etc. Until 1900 there was a steady decrease in the aggregate annual number of lynchings. In 1892 the high-water mark of 236 was reached, which sank steadily to 200 in 1893, 189 in 1894, and to 107 in 1899. In 1900 there were 115, and in the first nine months of 1901 there have already been 101. Of these victims of the present year, 76 were colored, 23 white, 1 Chinese, and one an Indian. Only 24 were murdered because of a charge of rape, and 27 because they had taken human life illegally. Five "suspected" cattle thieves and one case of "mistaken identity" are among them. One was put to death because he kept a gambling house, and another for an "unknown offence." To complete the statistics, there should have been given a table of the increase in burnings.

A blow more serious than at first sight appears is dealt the Amalgamated Association by the decision of the Bay View lodges to return to work. If this were merely an ordinary case where a few strikers desert the cause, it would indicate nothing more than further defection from the union ranks. The Bay View men have, however, occupied a peculiar position throughout the strike. After the refusal of the South Chicago lodges to obey the orders of Secretary Tighe, it practically rested with the unionists at Bay View and Joliet to decide whether the strike should have any prospect of success or should be at once nipped in the bud. A refusal to obey orders would have pricked the strike bubble in the West, and it was the obedience of these men that kept it from immediate collapse. When President Shaffer fell under the suspicion that he was exceeding his proper authority, it was the Bay View lodge that sent a competent delegate to Pittsburgh to investigate the real state of affairs, and his report threw much light upon the situation. The present action of these men has, therefore, a special significance, in view not only of their heretofore obedient conduct, but of the generally conservative attitude they have preserved throughout. It is worthy of note that, although a considerable number of members "bolted," the action was taken by the regular organization, and may therefore be considered representative of its opinion.

The adjournment of the General Executive Board of the Amalgamated Association without accepting or offering any terms of settlement for the strike, puts an unexpected face upon the steel situation. Furthermore, President Shaffer's announcement that no representative will be sent here to continue negotiations, may indicate that he has succeeded in forcing his own views of obstinate resistance to the Steel Corporation upon his associates. It is more probable that the Board found no proposal open to it at its meeting, and saw no way to reopen the negotiations closed by the expiration of the period for which the terms were to hold good. In such a case, no course but perfunctory continuance of the strike would be possible, unless it should simply and plainly be declared at an end—a course that would mean the abandonment of all the issues involved. To continue this impossible strike seems like an incitement to illegal measures. Coupled with the unsatisfactory session of the Amalgamated Board, comes the news of the offer of greater violence by the union men than at any time during the thirty days in which the companies have been endeavoring to run the mills. As might have been expected, the main seat of difficulty is at McKeesport, where strikers on Monday drove from the mill gates over 1,000 men who were anxious to begin work. Since negotiations have been discontinued and men are at hand in sufficient numbers to carry on work, nothing is left but lawlessness. The issues are now no longer either moral or economic. The question to be solved is the preservation of order.

The action of the National Association of Stationary Engineers in declining to confine its membership to white men is most gratifying, and extremely creditable to the organization, in which only five men dared put themselves on record as being in favor of a color line. The Stationary Engineers, who roundly cheered the defeat of this attempt at race discrimination, have set an excellent example to laboring organizations throughout the country. The public does not yet realize how unjustly negroes are treated in every Northern city by their fellow-workmen, and how few are the unions to which they are admitted. The fact constitutes another serious indictment of the union system, for only those bodies can succeed in the long run which recognize ability and industry as the sole test of membership. It is easy to criticise the negroes for not advancing more rapidly as skilled artisans, but only by blinking the obstacles and discouragements constantly placed in their way. Such action as that of the stationary engineers will be an incentive to intelligent colored men the country over, whatever their line of occupation.

May a new Constitution be promulgated by the edict of the Convention which constructs it, or must it be submitted to the voters for their sanction? If submitted, shall it go before the existing electorate, or before the new one, if changes in suffrage qualifications are made, as is certain to be the case in Virginia? Point is lent to the current discussion in that State by the general opinion that the new Constitution would be rejected if submitted to popular vote, not only because of opposition to restrictions upon the suffrage from those affected by the change, but also because of other probable features, like a new judicial system, which would abolish the present popular "court day" at every county seat. There are plenty of Southern prece-

dents in recent years for the promulgation of a new Constitution by the convention which framed it, this course having been pursued between 1890 and 1900 in the States of Delaware, South Carolina, Louisiana, and Mississippi, and received without protest in any case. In no one of these four cases, however, did the legislative act which brought the convention into existence provide, as did the Virginia law of last spring, that the work of the body should be submitted to the "qualified voters" of the State. In no other case, either, had the dominant party in advance committed itself to this policy, as the Virginia Democrats did in their State Convention of 1900. Authorities like Mr. J. A. Jameson hold that "the act of Assembly under which a convention meets is its charter." Moreover, it is to be remembered that, in the Virginia case, the people of the State, at the same time that they decided to call the Convention, approved the proposal that its work should be submitted to them for approval or rejection. There are precedents, again, for submitting a new Constitution to those only who would have the right to vote under it. The Tennessee Constitution of 1834 and the Arkansas Constitution of 1868 were passed upon by an electorate different from that which had chosen the Convention itself. Mr. Jameson pronounces such a submission "not only a novelty, but a capital innovation, upon which might hang for the State concerned the most weighty consequences; unconstitutional and in the highest degree dangerous." So most candid observers will think.

Not since the period, a decade ago, when the overflowing surplus forced extreme measures on every Secretary of the Treasury, and when the Government spent upwards of $100,000,000 annually in bond redemptions beyond the sinking-fund requirement, has a midsummer revenue statement paralleled that for the month of August. The detailed returns, issued by the Treasury on Thursday, show a surplus of $6,042,628, which compares with an excess of August expenditure in five out of the six past years, the deficit repeatedly running above fourteen million dollars. The one exception in recent years—the surplus of August, 1894—stood alone in its year, and had its origin wholly in the abnormal receipts in advance of the new internal taxes. No such cause exists for the present surplus. There have been no unusually large receipts; on the contrary, internal-revenue payments during August declined $4,017,000 from 1900. As we pointed out last week, in advance of the full official returns, it is the wholesale cut in expenses by the civil and military branches of the Government which has created this curious situation. What happened in August is still going on in September. Even in the full month of September, 1900, there was a handsome surplus. If comparisons with 1900 continue in the ratio now observable during the remainder of the month, the Government will, by September 30, have taken from the market, on ordinary revenue account, at least ten million dollars.

Josiah Quincy's readiness to accept the Democratic nomination for Governor of Massachusetts and the assurance that it will be given to him by the State Convention, mean that the hold of Bryanism upon the organization of the party in that State is broken, and that its control has reverted to the element which was in power until the Chicago Convention of 1896. During the five years since then the party has cut a ridiculous figure, reflecting, as it generally has done, the freaks and fancies of George Fred Williams, who went to Chicago in 1896 an advocate of the gold standard, and returned a champion of free silver at the ratio of 16 to 1. Under such management, Democracy in Massachusetts has been not only weak, but ridiculous—a melancholy contrast with the party which elected William E. Russell to the Governorship three years in succession, about a decade ago. Mr. Quincy's decision has been represented as based in part on a belief that he stands a chance of election this year. It is quite safe to set this down as a figment of some reporter's imagination. Mr. Quincy is a cool observer, and he knows perfectly well that Governor Crane is as sure to be reëlected as the 5th of November is to come. Gov. Crane had a plurality of nearly 100,000 last fall, and, while nothing like the figures reached in the year of a Presidential contest can be expected this fall, the result of the voting is a foregone conclusion. The Governor has steadily strengthened his hold upon the people since he took office, and it will be very hard for the opposition to pick any flaws in his administration. What Mr. Quincy has in view is not beating Gov. Crane this year, but making himself the leader of his party for future campaigns.

If Policeman O'Neill was unable and his legal advisers unwilling to produce direct evidence confirmatory of his charges against the Police Department at his trial on Monday, the public will none the less continue to believe in their truth. Moreover, the testimony of two other policemen confirmed the fact that a system of blackmail prevails. That the go-between who was brought into court would promptly deny his complicity was inevitable. As Mr. Baldwin said to Mr. York of the various denials of the charges of the three honest policemen, "Surely you did not expect anything else?" And Mr. York could only reply, "Oh, well, I don't know." Devery himself having urged his policemen to lie whenever they get caught, different conduct on the part of his witnesses was out of the question. It was none the less refreshing to have some plain truths about his conduct at O'Neill's original trial told to the uneducated and unprincipled "tough" who now presides over the Police Department. Mr. Baldwin's pointed question as to the propriety of a trial at which the defendant was not allowed a hearing or witnesses in his own behalf, and at which law-breakers were urged to throw a policeman doing his duty "out of the window," met with no adequate response from the de-facto Chief of Police. For once that worthy was unable to browbeat or abuse the man who dared to oppose him. It is safe to say that, thick-skinned as he is, Devery will not forget the lesson of this experience even after he has again fined or has "broken" O'Neill. Meantime, fortunately for O'Neill, private indignation and generosity have assured his future, no matter what the punishment Devery and his fellow-conspirator York may mete out to him. It is a matter for pride that there are hundreds of citizens who are ready to pay handsome sums for the splendid object-lesson O'Neill has furnished, and for the privilege of seeing Tammany hit hard and fighting in self-defence. A mock trial in which Devery the prosecutor made motions and gave advice to the judge, was another illustration of Tammany methods, for which there will be a reckoning in November next.

Further light has been thrown on the great collection of Chinese loot which Secretary of Legation Squier is reported to have offered to the Metropolitan Museum. Mr. Runge, a collector of Chinese art, reports through the *Sun* that the greater part of the collection was originally the property of the Imperial Treasurer Yen Li Sen, whose efforts to protect foreigners during the Boxer revolt gained him the hatred of Prince Tuan and an honorable death under circumstances—to a man of his caste—of great ignominy. After the relief of the legations, Bishop Favier, so the story runs, who was no bad judge of Chinese art, weeded out the priceless collection of Yen Li Sen, leaving only the commoner articles for less expert looters. Finally Mr. Squier increased the collection which he was already forming, by purchase from the Bishop. In the light of this story the moral issue seems to be plain. Time and what Curator Story of the Museum calls "commercial experience" may yet outlaw the claim of China upon these objects, and their dispersion may reduce them to that obscuration which, as we said, no wise director seeks to penetrate. Meanwhile, we believe that the great museums should as little think of accepting such a gift as they would have consented to receive the famous astronomical instruments, the seizure of which raised an outcry throughout the civilized world.

THE PRESIDENT SPARED.

The attempt on President McKinley's life at Buffalo on Friday last touched, as it could not fail to do, the national feeling, instantly and deeply. Nor could any moral and humane person hesitate to denounce without reservation the infamy of a crime not to be excused were the victim the meanest, instead of the most exalted, citizen. The usual confusion of thought has arisen among partisans who grudged a simple expression of sorrow as incompatible with aversion to the President's policy. And, finally, rejoicing in the failure of the assassin's aim has been heightened among sober friends as well as opponents of the Administration, by the dread of the Government's passing under a new and untried control in the person of the actual Vice-President.

The season of year, the exact interval of two decades, the foreign extraction of the criminal, have conspired forcibly to revive the memory of Garfield's fate. But there was wanting, in Mr. McKinley's case, that preparation for high tension in the public mind which grew out of Conkling's quarrel with the Administration over spoils, and the subsequent Senatorial deadlock which Guiteau, with method in his madness, sought to dissolve. Hence, the excitement of the past week has fallen short of that visible in this city, at least, in the summer of 1881. But, also, it must be confessed, we have had, in the unhappy past three years, a satiety of carnage and horror until we almost cease to feel. If Aguinaldo had been shot while extending a friendly hand to Gen. Funston, as the President to Czolgosz, would our jaded pulse have been sensibly quickened above the normal beat with which we heard of the bloodless success of that stratagem? It could not be said in Garfield's time as now that we sip lynchings and negro burnings unmoved with our coffee at breakfast; and this fact alone speaks volumes regarding the prevailing callousness as to the taking of human life.

Another difference in the comparison is that Guiteau's purpose was political, while Czolgosz's motive might almost be called academic, a mere manifesto of a sect. A moral could be and was drawn by the friends of civil-service reform in the former case, in which the Vice-President himself was involved with the Senators from New York in an intrigue against the assassin's victim. A moral of some sort might have lain open to panegyrists and to a gravely reflecting public had the homicidal fanatic at Buffalo been a Filipino, a Cuban, a Steel-Trust striker, or a gloater over the daily cartoons of the yellow journals implicating the President with the Money Power. For this no room was left by the anarchist who simply proved that the most powerful ruler on earth, though styled a republican and chosen by universal suffrage, was no more exempt than any crowned head from the peril of sudden, malevolent extinction. The ruler, not the individual, was shot at, and vigilance alone, not reason, can avail against minds which learn nothing by seeing the succession of rulers keep even pace with the file of assassins.

While all will freely admit that President McKinley's hard experience has no lesson for him, unless it be not to expose himself so freely in public hereafter, some foolish journals and politicians teach that ordinary criticism of the Executive has tended to breed the maggot in Czolgosz's brain, and is, therefore, measurably responsible for the result. This is of a piece with the contention that anti-Imperialists in this country were guilty of the American lives lost in the Philippine campaigns. The extreme application of such nonsense would reduce us to a condition worse than that of the land of leze-majesty. All the safeguards of free speech would be gone in an instant, and we should witness the *reductio ad absurdum* of a form of free government which gave us chief magistrates dictated by the machine, straightway to become exempt from all adverse comment or the semblance of "disrespect." Mr. McKinley's philosophy not more than his temperament is our warrant for believing that he would laugh at such a pretension on the part of his flatterers. Any realizing sense, too, of the prayers offered up for his recovery by partisans and non-partisans who stand aghast at Mr. Roosevelt's replacing him, would make him see the value of independent judgment of those who occupy, as well as of those who may possibly occupy, the Presidential chair.

The President's good luck has once more, humanly speaking, been exhibited. He has disappointed his would-be murderer; he has every prospect of finishing out his term; his constancy may even be put to the test by a more or less genuine demand from his party that he revoke his resolution not to serve for a third term. In all this there is again a contrast to Garfield, who had given reason to doubt that his Administration would have increased his fame, and who was, by the best-informed, counted fortunate in being cut short. On the other hand, Garfield's character and talents were unquestionably exaggerated by the circumstance of his death, and some monuments were reared which would otherwise probably never have been thought of. Praise in excess of what he has received, Mr. McKinley is not likely to have, and there is still time for him to furnish grounds for a solid reputation which will outlast monuments.

BRITISH IMPERIALISM.

In considering the interesting paper of our Oxford correspondent, "Observer," on the causes of Imperialism in England, the first thing that occurs to us is that Imperialism, Megalomania, or Jingoism, though there is a sudden access of it at present, is by no means so new a thing as "Observer" seems to assume. Was it not displayed in the highest degree by the Assyrian, the Babylonian, the Median, the Persian, the Macedonian, the Roman, the Saracen, the Turk, the Mogul, the Tartar, Philip II., Louis XIV., and Napoleon? Did it not, in the person of Napoleon, fill Europe with blood, havoc, and evil passions in pursuit of the objects of a chimerical ambition? Has it not strewn history with the wreck of empires which had no life, but only forcible conglomeration, while nations which had life have survived? If "bigness" is the aim of British policy, does British policy differ much from that of Timur or Genghis Khan?

Spanish historians open the reign of Philip II. with the imposing list of his possessions:

> "He possessed in Europe the kingdoms of Castille, Aragon, and Navarre, those of Naples and Sicily, Milan, Sardinia, Roussillon, the Balearic Islands, the Low Countries, and Franche-Comté; on the western coast of Africa he held the Canaries, Cape Verd, Oran, Bougiah, and Tunis; in Asia he held the Philippines and a part of the Moluccas; in the New World the immense kingdoms of Mexico, Peru, and Chili, and the provinces conquered in the last years of Charles V., besides Cuba, Hispaniola, and other islands and possessions. And his marriage with the Queen of England placed in his hands the power and resources of that kingdom. So that it might well be said that the sun never set in the dominions of the King of Spain, and that at the least movement of that nation the whole world trembled."

Was not this Greater Spain, as truly as the "Observer's" dream is Greater Britain? Austria, being an empire and "big," is ranked by "Observer" among the great Powers which are destined to devour small nationalities, such as those of William the Silent and Gustavus Adolphus. The Austrian Empire was held together by fear of the Turk, and is now in the throes of dissolution.

We have no means of determining the exact number of the free population of Athens; but we may be pretty sure that it did not equal a fiftieth part of the present population of London. The population of Florence, when her influence on human progress was greatest, is believed to have been under a hundred thousand. Athens and Florence were not examples of "bigness," but they were examples of greatness, and of the difference between the two. However, both Athens and Florence did lapse into Imperialism, and deservedly became warnings of its effects. Beside the great harbor of Syracuse, we look upon the waters on which Athenian Imperialism met its doom; in the quarries of Syracuse we see its dungeon and its grave. To her cruel extinction of the independence of Pisa, Florence owed in some measure the extinction of her own.

The novelty lies chiefly in the modern

professions of motive. There was no nonsense about Timur or Genghis Khan. They did not talk about the brown man's burden, or pretend, as the Jingoes do, to be enlarging the realm of civilization by wholesale slaughter and arson. Nor did they affect any compunction at having to use the exterminating sword. They made triumphal pyramids of heads. Their successors do not make triumphal pyramids of heads, though they receive with tolerable serenity daily returns of Filipinos or Boers shot down, and accounts of wounded Dervishes agonizing by thousands with unslaked thirst under the burning sun on the plain of Omdurman.

"The weekly report from the seat of war," says the London *Times*, "as given in Lord Kitchener's telegram of August 19, though not containing any striking successes, renders an account of much good work done. In the course of the week ended last Monday, sixty-four Boers had been killed, twenty wounded, and two hundred and forty-eight taken prisoners."

Whatever difference may exist is due to the penumbra of Christianity and international morality in which the Jingo still lingers, though there are signs of his approaching emancipation. The commercial element in our present Imperialism may perhaps be regarded as another novelty, though gold was the Spaniard's lure. Capitalist greed has played a considerable part in all these recent wars.

What is a "Little Englander"? Apparently an Englishman mean-spirited enough to think that his country is great in herself, instead of holding that she is great only in the precarious possession of a number of scattered dependencies and in her dominion over three hundred millions of helpless and spiritless Hindus. Five-sixths of the Greater Britain are Hindu or of other totally alien races, far less capable of incorporation than were the dependencies of Spain, which were bound to the imperial country by the tie, especially strong in those days, of a common religion. Is this even strength, to say nothing of greatness? England is being overstrained in the attempt to retain the dominion of the seas which was hers at the close of the wars with Napoleon. These may be the days of Capt. Mahan and of exalted notions of sea-power; but they are not the days of Jervis, Duncan, Nelson, and Collingwood, when all sea-power but that of Great Britain had been annihilated at St. Vincent, Camperdown, Aboukir, and Trafalgar.

"Observer" says that the English people would not hear of withdrawal from Egypt. The conduct of England in taking possession of Egypt after her solemn disclaimers belongs, no doubt, to the advanced school of political morality. But, supposing the Mediterranean Powers should some day combine for the deliverance of their waters from British domination, would the sovereign will of the British people suffice to maintain their possession of Egypt and Cyprus? Are not anxious whispers of apprehension on that subject already heard? Is it certain even that the native army of Egypt, though formed by England, will for ever remain faithfully subservient to a foreign Power?

"Observer" says, and says most truly, that the British statesmen of the last generation, including even the most conservative of them, looked forward to the political separation of the colonies from the mother country, and believed that England would thus become the mother of free nations. He assumes that their opinion is exploded. That there is a sudden gust of sentiment from the opposite quarter, no one doubts. But can it be shown, on the grounds of solid reason, that the statesmen of the last generation were wrong? Is it certain that the great forces are not still acting in the same direction, though their action may be for a time suspended, as the action of great forces often is, by that of secondary forces, or by reactionary sentiment arising from some transient cause? There has been, for the last thirty years, incessant talk of Imperial Federation. What practical step towards it of much importance has yet been taken? A uniformity of postage has been generally adopted. Canada, under the influence of a courtly Minister, has made a slight move in the direction of an Imperial Zollverein. But nothing more has come of it, and the measure may be regarded as still-born. Australasian confederation is rather centrifugal than centripetal, its tendency being to build up a separate nationality. Canada and Australia have sent contingents to the South African war. We shall presently know better whether there is much more in this than momentary excitement and love of adventure, and whether the colonies are really prepared to contribute to the devouring expense of Imperial armaments, and go with the Imperial country into ubiquitous wars. Canada contributed to the contingents only the cost of transportation, England paid the men; so that, in point of fact, the "sacrifice" amounted to little more than the concession of freedom of enlistment. Canadians enlist freely in the American army and navy. Their Government reckoned that there were 40,000 Canadian enlistments in our army during the war of secession. There is strong reason to believe that, of the French-Canadians, nine-tenths are opposed to military union and participation in British wars. Colonial politicians are fond of Imperial applause and titles. They are not altogether to be trusted as representatives of Colonial opinion. Giving the King new and fantastic titles, not without disparagement to a glorious crown, may flatter Jingo fancy, but will not alter solid facts.

It is at the same time true that a sinister and threatening spirit is abroad. There is a growing disregard for international morality; there is a tendency not only to act upon the belief that Might is Right, but almost openly to profess it. That doctrine of devils and of fools, "Our Country, Right or Wrong," is again coming into vogue; the worship of God having largely lost its hold, there is a tendency to substitute for it the worship of the Flag. Little nations are being marked out as a prey for the great predatory Powers. The first practical attempt of that kind, however, seems to have shown by its result that moral force still goes for something, and is able, when highly aroused, to combat physical force with a success for which the masters of the legions were not prepared. Two pigmy commonwealths, with a population reckoned at the utmost at two hundred thousand, fighting for their national existence, have held at bay for two years an empire of three hundred and sixty millions, which put an army of two hundred and twenty thousand men into the field against them and had as absolute command of the sea as Capt. Mahan could possibly desire. They have gained a number of successes over it, and compelled it at last to have recourse to methods of subjugation which have seriously compromised its honor. Philosophic and sanctimonious rapine has not yet entirely won the mastery of the world.

THE TREASURY AND THE MONEY MARKET.

The letter addressed by Mr. Tappen, as Chairman of the Clearing-house Committee, to Secretary Gage, on Monday, in reference to the drafts made by the Treasury on the money market, brings up a subject of perennial interest in the national finances. The operations of recent date which justified Mr. Tappen's communication, may be summarized as follows: In two weeks ending September 7, 1900, the Treasury paid out $4,200,000 to the New York banks. In the corresponding two weeks of 1901 the Treasury withdrew $8,500,000. In August, 1900, the Treasury paid out for current expenses $820,000 more than it received as revenue. In August, 1901, it received as revenue $6,042,000 more than its expenses. Its receipts were the largest for the month of August in seven years. In September, 1900, the Treasury surplus of receipts was $6,134,000. If the same conditions prevail during the present month the surplus receipts will be $12,000,000 or more. On the 7th of September, 1900, the surplus reserve of the New York banks was $26,056,000, and on the 7th of the present month it was $6,915,000. According to this showing, the reserve will be down to the minimum (25 per cent. of the deposits) before the end of the month, and the banks which are in that condition must then stop the discount of commercial paper.

In other words, the pinch will come not so much on the banks as on the mercantile community, and it will come at the season when the demand for accommodation is strongest and most imperative.

There are but two sources of relief. One is through the importation of gold from abroad, the other by the release of funds locked up in the Treasury. The former is slow, roundabout, and costly. The latter is not precisely easy, but is preferable to the former, since the withdrawal of money from the channels of business by the collections of the Government is an artificial, unnatural process which ought never to occur. The frequency of its occurrence demands a change of system—one which cannot be long delayed; but such a change requires time for discussion, and meanwhile the present pinch calls for an immediate remedy.

The customary methods of getting money which has been needlessly taken by the Treasury from business circles back into commercial uses, are by the purchase of United States bonds in the open market, and by the deposit of money in national banks on the security of United States bonds. Both of these processes are limited by the amount of bonds available. The whole amount outstanding is less than $1,000,000,000, of which about $420,000,000 is already held in the Treasury as security for national banknotes, and for other purposes of the banks; tied up and unavailable. Of the remainder (say $580,000,000) the largest share is held by savings banks and trust companies, and by a class of investors who demand the highest form of security that can be obtained, and are not likely to part with them under any circumstances short of compulsion. There is a certain amount of "floating bonds," held by speculators, who believe that the time will come when the Government will be forced to bid a high price for them in order to disgorge its surplus and avoid a commercial crisis. Such a time seems to be not far distant. How many such bonds are within the Secretary's reach, and at what price, can be learned only by experiment.

At present it would seem preferable for the Secretary to continue the process of depositing his surplus in the banks. There need be no limit to this operation except the power of the banks to furnish bonds required as security. The banks which have not a sufficiency of bonds can usually borrow them from their customers. At all events, it would seem wise to give them the opportunity to do so, treating all alike and avoiding the charge of partiality in the distribution of the deposits.

When Congress assembles, it will be possible to take further steps to reduce the surplus by the abatement of taxes, but that is a tedious process. It could hardly be made effective before midsummer, 1902, and in the meantime much harm might have been done to the business community. There is danger, too, that Congress may take a shorter cut to the depletion of the Treasury by extravagant appropriations. It is always possible to meet the difficulty by increased pensions, river and harbor bills, public-building jobs, battle-ships, etc. Of all the methods of dealing with a surplus, this is the most facile and the most dangerous. Eventually the question of meeting this chronic trouble must be taken up seriously and dealt with scientifically, so that the surplus receipts of the Treasury, when there are any, shall be automatically placed at the service of the money market, as is done in all civilized countries except our own.

THE LATEST ARGUMENT AGAINST THE CANTEEN.

The strongest testimony against the army canteen which has yet appeared is borne by Brig.-Gen. Daggett, who won his promotion to that rank after a service of forty years from second lieutenant up. During the civil war he took part in every important battle of the Army of the Potomac, and since that time he has seen service on the Plains, before Santiago, in the Philippines, and in China, where he commanded the Fourteenth Infantry. When a captain, he had twenty years' experience in the handling of enlisted men. As a result of this long service, Gen. Daggett unequivocally pronounces against the canteen, on purely practical grounds, declaring that "it will be ruinous to the army in the end."

The strongest argument hitherto advanced by those in favor of the canteen relates to its counteracting the attractions of the vile resorts which so rapidly spring up in the vicinity of an army post. To this, Gen. Daggett replies that the viler the dens outside of the Government reservations, "the better for the morals of the garrison, because they keep respectable men away, and the majority are respectable." Equally striking is his assertion that the canteen is a constant temptation to the abstainer to indulge and to the moderate drinker to drink more, and that it is a convenience to the drunkard "to load up on beer when he has not the means to obtain anything stronger." He fortifies this with the statement that it has been no unusual thing to find a majority of a company, when undergoing inspection, more or less under the influence of liquor, but not sufficiently so to subject them to punishment. Similar allegations were made by intelligent enlisted men of the Second Artillery at Fort Warren, Mass., in 1896. They said that the canteen beer stimulated their appetite for stronger drink, and drove them out of the fort in search of it. They cited the violent death of a comrade, and pointed to various prisoners as proof that the canteen did not produce idyllic conditions within this island fortress. A new consideration brought out by Gen. Daggett is his reference to the canteen credit system, which keeps men constantly in debt. About this side of the question both public and press have heard too little.

Admitting that Gen. Daggett's opinions are entitled to great respect, and that his views have given strength and encouragement to the opponents of the canteen, the *Army and Navy Journal* rightly asks the General what his substitute for the canteen would be, and how he would "satisfy the craving" of the enlisted men for sociability and good-fellowship. It is to be hoped that Gen. Daggett, and others who feel like him—among whom, it is understood, was the late Gen. William Ludlow—will take the *Journal* at its word, and tell the public how they would counteract the admitted evils which come from crowding single men in barracks in an utterly unnatural mode of life. The only genuine cure would be the abolition of the army itself; but, this being impossible, the evil should receive careful attention, particularly in view of the great increase in the garrisons of the seacoast fortifications, some extremely dreary and isolated, others close to the temptations of great cities. It is well understood that the War Department is thoroughly committed to the canteen, and, in its efforts to have the law replaced upon the statute book, has called for reports from post commanders and officers in charge of troops in the field. There can be no doubt that the great majority of these reports will favor the restoration of the post bar, not only because of its chief commodity, beer, but also because of the advantages in the way of extra food, billiard tables, dividends, etc., obtained by the various companies through the surplus profits. The canteen, however, was not abolished until last March. Since that time the army has been in the throes of a radical reorganization, during which thousands of extremely youthful and raw recruits have been injected into the service and are not yet digested. Moreover, the morale of the officers and the *esprit* of the regiments are admittedly at a lower ebb, because of two wars, vital changes, and the presence of many hundreds of green or political officers, than for decades past. Under these circumstances, comparisons of 1901 with previous years must be to a certain extent misleading.

The army, then, should be given longer time in which to show the effectiveness of the substitutes for the canteen introduced at several posts. Before final decision is given, it should be clearly shown whether all the good features of the canteen lose their value with the withdrawal of the beer, and whether ad-

ditional attractions not yet thought of cannot be found to keep the enlisted man sober and contented. In this respect the War Department has for years been open to criticism. Such attractions, beyond the sale of beer, as have been held out to enlisted men of a garrison have been largely due to the initiative of company or post commanders, under general authority of the Department. It, so far as we know, has made no earnest efforts to accept loyally the judgment of Congress and to lay far-reaching plans for doing without the canteen. We have yet to hear whether the evils following upon pay-day, now so prominently reported in the anti-canteen newspapers, could not be mitigated by some other system of payment than that which gives a whole garrison its wages on the same day. Nor have we heard of the punishment or reprimand of a single post commander whose troops, granted wholesale leaves of absence on pay-day night, disgrace themselves and the army by public debauchery. One such action might alter the situation materially, and at least lead to a salutary decrease in the sensational reports of pay-day riots which are now so frequent and so injurious to the good name of the army and to the character of its personnel. If the large railroad companies can exercise control over their men when off duty as well as when on, many citizens will ask why the military authorities, with their less limited powers, cannot do likewise.

THE CAUSES OF IMPERIALISM IN ENGLAND.

OXFORD, August 22, 1901.

"Be the King's Ministers Tory or Whig,
They must all be the men to keep England big."

These are the words which the present writer saw the other day printed in a book of nonsense verses for children under a caricature of Ministers. The doggerel is worthless enough in itself. It is, however, exactly one of those straws which show how the wind blows, and tells more of the present condition of opinion than may be gathered from many Blue books. It is the outward sign of predominant Imperialism—a term which is here used by way neither of praise nor of blame, but simply as an expression for the conviction of modern Englishmen that a main, if not the main, object of their Government should be, as the rhyme has it, "to keep England big," or, in other words, to maintain the power and the authority and the greatness of England.

That this is the dominant faith of modern Englishmen cannot be doubted. It is shared not only by the supporters of Lord Salisbury's Ministry (among whom the present writer must be numbered), but also by a great part, probably in one form or another by the majority, of its opponents. The very term "Liberal Imperialists" is intended to signify that an Imperial policy abroad is compatible with liberalism of the kind advocated by the men who followed Mr. Gladstone at home. And politicians who would repudiate the term Imperialist, however qualified, shun for the most part the designation of "Little Englanders." Nor is this a mere matter of words; among members of Parliament who represent British constituencies, it would be hard to find any leading man of weight who openly advocates the withdrawal of English troops from Egypt. To speak the plain truth, the vast majority of Englishmen are determined to keep England big.

This is the fact. The aim of ths letter is neither to eulogize nor to attack the existing condition of public opinion. Its purpose is simply to set down, as far as may be impartially, the apparent causes of a state of feeling which is certain to influence, for some time to come, the policy of Great Britain, and which differs extraordinarily from the sentiment that prevailed throughout the country some forty or fifty years ago. One consideration may give us the measure of this difference. From 1840 to say 1870, the almost universal belief of thoughtful Englishmen was that the colonies contributed nothing or little to the strength of England. We were bound, it was thought, in honor, to protect them; the mother country should see that her children were on the road to become fit for independence; the day for separation would inevitably come; the parting, when it took place, should be on friendly terms; but the separation would be beneficial, for both parent and children. Even a Conservative minister spoke, or wrote, it is said, about our "wretched colonies." To-day the whole tone of feeling is changed; her colonies are, it is constantly asserted, both the glory and the strength of Great Britain. Not the extremest Radical ventures to hint a separation; no man who cared to play a part in public life would be foolish enough to speak of the colonies with disrespect. Conservatives and Liberals alike are more tempted to flatter colonial self-esteem than to utter a word which might imply an underestimate of Greater Britain.

What, then, are the causes of the singular change in public opinion? They may be broadly summed up under three heads.

First, there exists an indubitable fact which, during the last quarter of the nineteenth century, has deeply impressed the speculations of thinkers, and, in England at least, the imagination of the people. This fact is the growth of great empires and the decline of small states. Germany, Russia, the Austrian Empire, the United States, and England are the great and predominant Powers of the modern world. France still plays a great part and may again play a leading part in European politics; but it is vain to deny that the relative power of France is nothing like what it was even at the middle of the nineteenth century. Then the petty states of the world, the dukedoms and kingdoms of the Italian peninsula, the principalities of Germany, and the like, either have vanished or retain little more than a nominal existence. Smaller countries, respectable on account of their historical traditions, of their freedom, and of their good government—such, for example, as Holland or Sweden, Denmark or Switzerland—have ceased to count for much in European politics. We may deplore this change. We may doubt, not without reason, whether the happiness of mankind is promoted by the gradual decline in influence of small countries; but the fact that the smaller states of the world count for less than they used to do is a fact which we must all take into account, and which has assuredly stimulated the desire for Imperial greatness. To this, as far as England is concerned, must be added the consideration that the consolidation of growth of Imperial states has coincided with the development of large armaments. It is difficult to realize, even in imagination, the immense numbers of men who are now, throughout the whole of Europe, trained to arms. Some thirty-five years ago Mr. Helps, if my memory does not deceive me, published the statement that the armed forces of the so-called civilized world equalled the population of London. The number of Londoners has since then greatly increased, but I feel considerable confidence that the number of soldiers has increased at least as rapidly. However this may be, it is certain that the growth of military power has aroused in England a natural feeling that her armed forces must, in some way or other—mainly, of course, by the increase of her navy—be put in a position to resist the armaments of other countries; and this belief directly stimulates Imperialism.

Secondly, this tendency of the modern world towards the consolidation of empires has naturally been reflected, as all patent facts are, in the speculations of contemporary thinkers. Take three writers as different from one another as Sir John Seeley, Mr. Froude, and Capt. Mahan. They have very little in common, yet any thoughtful reader may see at a glance that they have each and all contributed to the glorification—the word is here used in no invidious sense—of the British Empire. No one of the three has, it may be added, produced so immediate an effect upon English opinion as Mahan. He has revived the memories and the glories of Nelson. He has made it part of a modern Englishman's creed that to Nelson, and the sea-captains of whom he was the greatest, England owed her salvation during the contest with Napoleon, and that the naval supremacy of England is an absolute necessity for the maintenance of the British Empire, and even for the safety of England herself. Future historians will probably record that Mahan's writings, both from their great power and from their singular opportuneness, have exerted an influence over English politics as important as the authority of any one among our leading statesmen. To all this we may add that writers of all descriptions are absolutely compelled to insist upon the fact that scientific inventions, by facilitating communication among mankind, have practically made the world smaller. The Channel which divides us from France seems little more than a river. A modern Englishman is nearer to Paris than his grandfather was to Edinburgh. In spite of all the hopes of benevolent optimism, near neighborhood does not of itself increase neighborliness. The sense that the world is small, and that we are all getting jammed close together, increases the desire of every nation to acquire or retain the power which may enable it to make sure of its fair or its unfair share of the good things the earth has to offer.

Thirdly, neither patent facts nor the ingenious speculations of writers and thinkers are in themselves sufficient to turn the current of popular opinion. The es-

sential thing is the existence of an appropriate condition of public sentiment. It may well be doubted, for example, whether a writer who, sixty years ago, should have anticipated the ideas of Mahan, would have produced any great effect on his immediate readers. His doctrine we may feel almost certain would have fallen flat; in the days of Peel and Cobden, the exaltation of England's sea power would not have induced Parliament to add a single man-of-war to the English navy. What is it in the sentiment of to-day which has made his teaching so impressive? It is, I conceive, the combination of two or three favorable conditions. Even the most fervent advocate of Imperialism will not deny that the admiration for bigness which is certainly not actually unknown in the United States, has some real connection with what is vulgar in democratic institutions; and it is hard to doubt that the desire to "keep England big" does exert a certain influence over the English public. Then, again, it is well to note a matter which has received far less attention than it deserves, namely, the way in which certain political ideals or creeds, which at one time had living force, have, under the stress of circumstances, lost (for a time, at any rate) something of their power. Where, for instance, is the fervent belief in democracy? The world is far more democratic than it was sixty years ago. If in England there were the least wish of an effective kind for universal suffrage, or even for a republic, it would probably be easy enough to obtain a vote for every man above the age of twenty-one, or to establish a commonwealth. But every one feels, rather than knows, that for the moment the progress of democracy is arrested, not by the strength of aristocratic resistance, but by the weakness of the democratic impulse. "Republicanism has ceased to be a heresy," writes a Frenchman; but it has also ceased to be a faith.

Where, again, are we to find the enthusiastic Benthamism of which J. S. Mill and his associates were the youthful and enthusiastic apostles? The Utilitarian creed contained an immense amount of truth; it has profoundly modified English legislation; yet Benthamism as a special creed is dead. What, again, are we to say of the belief in nationalities which at one time seemed likely to revolutionize the world, and commanded the fervent allegiance of the youth of England? No one can deny that here, too, faith has declined. Nor is this wonderful. Germany has become a nation, but it is a nation in which soldiers are predominant. Italy has expelled the foreigner, or rather has got him expelled for her. The graceful and learned Italian refugees who excited the admiration and love of Englishmen, have ceased to exist, but the liberation of Italy has scarcely as yet fulfilled the hopes of the generation which admired Cavour, Mazzini, and Garibaldi. Italy, which, when enslaved, produced men of genius, has not, since she was free, given birth (at any rate in the field of politics) to a single man whose name is favorably known throughout Europe. Men, happily, cannot live without some object for enthusiasm; the decline of one faith makes room for another, and it is easy to perceive that English Imperialism is, looked at from its good side, a new form of the undying belief in progress. The fervor with which young men have rushed into the South African war, the delight with which all England has welcomed the coöperation of her colonies, is something much better than a mere desire to keep England big. It means a fervent belief in the unity of the British Empire, and a stern sense of the duty incumbent upon modern Englishmen to keep united what in their eyes is the greatest and freest and best governed state of the modern world. Whether the readers of the *Nation* share this belief I know not. At the present moment I am only concerned to insist upon its existence and its strength. AN OBSERVER.

FROM FRANCE INTO SPAIN.

MADRID, August 15, 1901.

My experience with the French people has been somewhat singular. I left home with a decided prejudice against them—a mental attitude that was certainly not changed by some years' residence in Germany. I entered a French university for the purpose of familiarizing myself with the language and literature, but I did not expect my feelings to undergo a change. I had not been long at Grenoble until I found that I was mistaken; the professors were so amiable, so ready to help in every way, so easy of access, that I was soon completely won over. They showed none of the feeling of superiority that characterizes so many of the professors in German universities; nothing in their attitude toward their students that seems to say, "Don't approach too near a man so wise as I am." Along with some of my fellow-students, I was frequently invited to the homes of members of our faculty, where we were made to feel that we were all on the same social level. The people of the city, too, were so agreeable that I left it with much regret. If I did not leave many friends there, I was made to feel that many of my acquaintances wished me to think so.

At the close of the last school year, ten of us decided to present ourselves before the faculty of belles-lettres for final examination. The procedure was briefly as follows: At eight in the morning we were put to writing an exercise in French on an assigned theme. "Cyrano de Bergerac" fell to me. We were not allowed any helps. This lasted until noon. In the afternoon we were set to translating from our own language into French, an exercise that occupied about four hours. On the following morning we were subjected to a public oral examination in the presence of a considerable company of auditors. We did not get a report upon our work until the third day, when the names of those "reçus définitivement" were posted on the bulletin board. That this examination was not a mere matter of form will be evident from the fact that, of the ten foreign candidates examined with me, but six passed successfully. Of the two Americans one failed—and it was the second time for him—and the one Italian; at which I was much surprised, for he is a fine linguist. Out of seven Germans, two failed. It will be seen from the above that the training we received was literary rather than scientific, especial stress being laid on a good working knowledge of French.

Though the months of July and August are the time of year when there is an exodus of the people from the south towards a more congenial climate, my observation had led me to believe that, by adopting the native costume on going south, I should not find the heat oppressive. This proved to be the case. Before entering Spain, my objective point, I spent a few weeks among the towns and cities of southern France. This was quite time enough. I was naturally much interested in what I saw; but it was chiefly the remains of a former civilization, the Roman, that I found most attractive. It is hard to overdraw the slowness, the deadness, the monotony of the French provincial towns. Every one is just like the other. Every one has a small picture-gallery, a Boulevard Gambetta, a promenade planted with trees and flowers, a Café de la Gare and a Café de la Paix. I suppose after a longer stay I might have discovered some differences, but to me they were not evident. The few residents who have been in Paris find life unendurable. At Perpignan I conversed with a gentleman who told me that he was slowly dying of ennui, and that he would give anything to get back to the capital—though that was impossible, as he could not leave his business. Perpignan, by the way, is one of the most mediæval places I have yet seen. It bears a striking resemblance to Regensburg. The streets are distressingly narrow, while the upper stories of the houses often project far out over the lower. Here one feels himself transported centuries into the past. As it is near the frontier, the city is strongly fortified, and the garrison imparts to it what few signs of life it exhibits. Its environs are very picturesque.

My visit was accidental. I had gone to Cette, the principal port of the French merchant marine on the Mediterranean, expecting to find a steamer for Barcelona. In this I was disappointed, and so was obliged to travel by rail. Cette is reported to be losing ground, year by year, from what cause I do not know. I found that I could not get a ticket into Spanish territory, owing to the depreciated condition of the currency, and so had to make the necessary transfer at Portbou. The train here passes through a wildly picturesque country. The tunnels are almost innumerable, and spoil many a fine view of the sea. The Pyrenees are the bleakest, gloomiest, and most forbidding mountains imaginable. They bear little resemblance to the Alps, which are in many places covered with vegetation to a high altitude. Nothing but blue, barren, rugged rocks, with occasionally a clump of olive trees on the Spanish side or a bit of vineyard on the French side, frown upon the spectator. After one is out of sight of the Pyrenees, the country offers little that is of interest. It is an immense plain under a high state of cultivation, on which grow grapes, figs, and oranges in great profusion. Our train made the run to Barcelona in rather less than seven hours. I had heard so much about the slowness of Spanish railroads that I was agreeably surprised at the time we made. I learned afterward that this is perhaps the best-managed road on the peninsula—a fact that is largely due to French influence. Barcelona, the most flourishing of Spanish cities, is strongly tinctured with French ideas. Even on the streets one hears the language spoken almost as much as Spanish; and the visitor is reminded of Paris on every hand. Many cities of Southern Europe have a monument to Columbus, but none that I have

seen is so magnificent and imposing as that in Barcelona.

I left that city at nine in the morning on what is called an express train; its motion was, however, decidedly slow. The second-class is not what one finds it in France, Germany, or even Italy; for, while fairly comfortable, it is rather dirty. The whole road passes through what seems to be virtually a desert. There are few streams, consequently a scarcity of water, and few inhabitants. There is nothing to relieve the monotony except now and then a small, scraggy vineyard or a cluster of olive trees. Occasionally the train stopped at some hamlet where the wretched inhabitants were assembled to beg. I do not see how they can live except by contributions from travellers. Children, women, and old men all have a hand in the business. At one place where the train stopped I observed an old blind man, who began to play on a violin apparently as old as himself, and about as badly dilapidated, and to accompany himself with his cracked voice. After a little he struck up the "Marseillaise," whereupon the sous and centimes began to fall all over him. Evidently there were many Frenchmen aboard or French sympathizers, like myself. There was something thrilling and at the same time exhilarating in the efforts of that miserable Spaniard at playing the national air of his northern neighbor. At Saragossa we made a long stop, and several Spaniards entered my compartment. Each took off his hat—it was now near midnight—and wished me "Buena noche, señor." Then followed the offer of cigarettes, and an attempt at conversation. Some of them spoke French passably well, and so we managed to make each other understood. By nine the next morning, after a ride of a little less than twenty-four hours, we arrived in Madrid.

RALPH C. SUPER.

Correspondence.

"MALAHACK."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I should like to contribute my mite of information relative to the word "malahack," about which your correspondent from Weld, Me., inquired in the *Nation* of August 22, 1901. I have heard it used a number of times by a gentleman whose birth-place was in Windham County, in northeastern Connecticut. He will say, for instance, either in a jesting tone or in a tone of reproof, "Don't go *malahacking* around here," or "Don't *malahack* all around." I have never heard him use the word in a connection similar in sense to that quoted by your correspondent, but it is evident that "to cut awkwardly" is the literal meaning of the word as he has learned it, and has probably used it, though not in my hearing. During my two years' residence in Lewiston, only a few miles distant from Weld, I have not once heard the word "malahack." I, personally, am interested in the etymology of the word.

Respectfully yours,
A. N. LEONARD.

LEWISTON, ME., August 31, 1901.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: *Malahack* is a word known to me for nearly fifty years. I am not sure that it is in common use in this town (Goffstown, N. H.), which is my native place. I remember that in 1854, in Dover, N. H. (not far from Maine), a person used it, saying of a certain boy under her care that she did not wish to have him *malahacked* by his teacher. The boy had been feruled unjustly, and she was indignant. W. C. P.

GOFFSTOWN, N. H., September 9, 1901.

Notes.

Little, Brown & Co.'s autumn announcements include 'Types of Naval Officers, with Some Remarks on the Development of Naval Warfare during the Eighteenth Century,' by Capt. Mahan; 'Maids and Matrons of New France,' by Mary Sifton Pepper; 'First Principles of Nursing,' by Anne R. Manning; 'Deafness and Cheerfulness,' by the Rev. A. W. Jackson, biographer of James Martineau, whose sister Harriet's deafness and cheerfulness leap to mind; and 'A Japanese Miscellany,' by Lafcadio Hearn.

Books to appear this autumn from Small, Maynard & Co. are 'Church Building,' a study of the principles of architecture in their relations to the church, by Ralph Adams Cram; 'A House Party,' twelve stories anonymously contributed by well-known American writers; 'A Gage of Youth,' lyrics from the *Lark*, and other verses, by Gelett Burgess; and 'To Girls: A Budget of Letters,' by Heloise E. Hersey.

Noyes, Platt & Co., Boston, will issue 'American Mural Painting,' by Pauline King; 'Mother Goose's Menagerie,' by Carolyn Wells; 'A Whist Calendar,' by Mildred Howells; and 'Mr. Munchausen,' by John Kendrick Bangs.

Close upon Stone's newly published 'Mary I., Queen of England,' will follow 'Mary, Queen of Scots, and Who Wrote the Casket Letters?' from the press of James Pott & Co.

A. Wessels Co. will issue 'Philip Freneau, the Poet of the Revolution,' by Mary S. Austin, in collaboration with Mrs. H. K. Vreeland, a great-granddaughter of Freneau; and 'French Cookery for American Homes,' with more than 600 recipes.

Charles Scribner's Sons have almost ready 'The Civil War and the Constitution,' by Prof. John W. Burgess of Columbia University.

'Woman in the Golden Age,' by Mrs. Amelia Gere Mason, is in the press of the Century Company.

Villari's Life of Giovanni Segantini will shortly be published by E. P. Dutton & Co.; as also a new and revised edition of 'Ephemera Critica.'

Ginn & Co. promise soon 'A History and Description of Roman Political Institutions,' by Prof. Frank Abbott of the University of Chicago.

Amid the host of reprints which every autumn ushers in, we may count upon T. Y. Crowell & Co. for their share. Forman's edition of Keats, five handy volumes in a box, calls for no remark except that there has been no attempt at elegance in the typography, and that the condensed type of the footnotes will prove trying to most eyes. The more presentable series, embracing Macaulay's and Bacon's Essays, Southey's Nelson, and Parkman's 'Oregon Trail,' have the distinction of special introductions; but the only one of weight so far is Prof. E. G. Bourne's brief characterization of Parkman and his works. This is noticeably sane and just. Parallel in style with the foregoing are the three volumes reëmbodying Bulfinch's 'Age of Fable,' 'Age of Chivalry,' and 'Legends of Charlemagne,' of long-approved utility.

Mrs. Elizabeth Stoddard's novels, 'Two Men,' 'Temple House,' and 'The Morgesons,' undergo a fresh mutation of publishers. More than thirty-five years have elapsed since we reviewed 'Two Men,' then bearing the imprint of Bunce & Huntington. There was a revival in 1888, with the aid of the Cassells. Now the trio come to us from Henry T. Coates & Co., Philadelphia. This vitality proves that the mixed and contradictory qualities of these highly individual writings are dominated by what is most original and forceful in them. They please and displease, but end by holding their own (as the author can now claim) from generation to generation.

The "College Latin Series," of Allyn & Bacon has added an edition of the odes and epodes of Horace, prepared by Prof. Charles E. Bennett, the general editor of the series. Its contents are, of course, scholarly, but we cannot help feeling that the commentary is a little bare on the literary side. Perhaps the editor feels that literary beauty needs no label, but it must be remembered that, even with the best of preparation, the average freshman does not come to his Horace with the power of grasping its purely literary features unhampered by difficulties with the language. If the notes confine themselves too strictly to clearing up the merely linguistic difficulties, the chances are that the pupil will allow the other side to pass with no earnest attention whatever. Professor Shorey rendered a good service, in his edition of the Odes, in his rich supply of illustrative quotations from other poets, of all ages and lands. The student who can read his notes without the awakening of a real literary interest, has none to be awakened. The Shorey edition leaves no other editor a promising outlook for original achievement in the same line, but some such appeal to the usually dormant faculty of literary appreciation in the college student of Latin poetry is really necessary, if the work is to be done with the highest success. In his introduction Professor Bennett brings forward again his much-discussed position concerning Latin metres, viz., that we are to conceive a Latin verse as merely a certain arrangement of long and short syllables, with no appreciable stress accent whatever; the only accent being the mere "quantitative prominence inherent in the long syllable of every fundamental foot—the iambus, trochee, dactyl, and anapæst." An admirable feature of the edition is the brief introduction accompanying each ode in the text. This consists of a subject-title, a statement of the occasion of the poem, when such is possible, an outline, and the date of composition, if determinable.

The French are rivalling the English in making the archæological finds of Egypt accessible to Western scholars, as is evidenced once more by the new periodical publication, *Le Musée Egyptien*, "recueil de monuments et de notices sur les fouilles d'Égypte." The special purpose of this journal is to reproduce in the best manner possible the literary and archæological trea-

sures of the Bulaq Museum, in order to furnish added material for scientific study. The first volume, containing forty-two plates, has appeared, containing mostly Egyptian inscriptions and pictures, with fresh data on the life and history of the Egyptians.

In the *Revue Universelle*, R. Cagnat, member of the Paris Academy of Inscriptions, has given an excellent summary of the results of the archæological researches which have been so energetically prosecuted by French savants on the site of ancient Carthage, ever since the French protectorate of Tunis began. These investigations have been conducted chiefly by Father Delattre, founder of the Lavigerie Museum in Tunis, and Father Gauckler. On the whole, the results have not come up to expectations, the finds being rather meagre and of comparatively small value, as if bearing witness to the thoroughness with which the Romans destroyed their rival for supremacy. It has not even been possible to trace with certainty the old city walls. The only guide in this particular has been the situation of the Punic cemeteries, which, following the custom of Semitic peoples, were outside of the city. Hence the inference that the old city must have been rather small—confined, indeed, to the space between the sea and the nearest chain of hills. On the Byrsa, the old Acropolis of Carthage, not a single find of the Punic period has occurred, although the diggings have been made to bed rock. A large number of tombs have been discovered, many with female masks, but only one with the life-size figure of a man, who has been variously identified as Hamilcar, Hasdrubal, and Hannibal. Some characteristics in these tombs point to Egyptian, and others to Greek influences. The utensils, vessels, amulets, chains, etc., found have, in both number and value, been somewhat disappointing.

The traditional claim of Crete to have had a hundred cities, Mr. D. G. Hogarth says, in a communication to the London *Times*, "is proving not altogether vain. Remains of primitive settlements too considerable to have been villages are coming to light at far more points of the Cretan coast than bear a name in classical atlases." Among these recent discoveries is Phæstos, on the south of the island, in which the ruins consist mainly of a palace of great extent and in excellent preservation. There are broad staircases and majestic courts, one containing "an altar and tiers of stone seats built up against the rock, evidently to hold an Assembly." Another is Gorynia, "the most perfect example yet discovered of a small 'Mycenæan' town, uncontaminated with later remains. . . . It was discovered by the perseverance of the American lady, Miss Harriet Boyd, who has been directing its excavation. Her workmen have now laid bare two narrow and tortuous streets, paved, and here and there ascending by flights of steps; on either hand of which are preserved to a considerable height houses of stone, with party-walls of brick. This style of structure, often suspected on Aegean sites, has never been actually found before. The two streets converge towards a large building of fine masonry, on the highest point of the knoll, in which it is easy to recognize the house of the local chieftain or governor." In the buildings have been found bronze weapons, tools, and vessels, and clay vases, "complete specimens of types previously inferred from fragments only." At Zakro, where the excavations were conducted by Mr. Hogarth himself, were remains of a still more primitive age, as well as two inscribed tablets and hundreds of impressions of lost signets, of 150 separate types, and illustrating in a remarkable way "not only late 'Mycenæan' glyptic art, but also 'Mycenæan' religious symbolism."

Dr. Sven Hedin's second expedition in Central Asia bids fair to be of greater interest than his first, in 1893-97. He reached Kashgar in September, 1899, and from thence went to the Lob Nor region, in which he has made many excursions of much value to geographical science. In his last letter, dated April 23 of this year, according to the London *Times*, he announces the discovery of an ancient lake-bed near the present Lob Nor, and some ruins on its northern shore. Among these he found a beautiful Buddhist temple, with most artistic wood-carving. But his most curious find was some twelve letters, written on paper, in Chinese. "They were in a marvellous state of preservation, every sign being perfectly distinct and legible." In one of them the place is called Lo-län. He found, also, 30 little pieces of wood, like tickets, each inscribed with the name of some emperor, the year, month, and day of his reign; they are supposed to be at least 800 years old. This ancient lake-bed apparently may soon be filled again, for while Dr. Hedin was making his explorations there "the waters of the present lake were spreading north so rapidly that it was unsafe for the travellers to camp on the shore." Dr. Hedin proposed to cross Tibet to the sources of the Indus, and possibly go to Calcutta, and then to return to Kashgar via Ladak, reaching Europe next spring. At the time of writing, his scientific work was represented by 726 sheets of maps, and geographical, geological, and hydrographical studies which will fill two large volumes of five hundred pages each. The popular narrative of his journey, notwithstanding his wealth of material, he hopes to compress into two volumes of moderate size.

The commerce of China in 1900 is the principal subject treated in the Consular Reports for August, numerous tables of statistics being given from the official report of the imperial maritime customs. According to these figures, writes Consul-General Goodnow of Shanghai, "the United States buys more goods from China than does any other nation, and her total trade with China, imports and exports, equals that of Great Britain (not including colonies), and is far ahead of that of any other country." He adds, however, that, "at the present time, German trade is increasing faster proportionately (not absolutely) than is ours." Another evidence of Germany's commercial activity is to be found in the report of her trade with South America in 1900. This amounted to $154,124,000, an increase of $22,153,000 over that of the previous year. Among the other topics referred to are the establishment of a preparatory school for railroad employees in the state railroad service at Munich, and the Mond fuel gas, "which, it is claimed, can be supplied to customers at four cents per 1,000 cubic feet."

The Iowa Geological Survey has issued its eleventh volume of publications, which is devoted to administrative reports, filling 519 pages, and is illustrated by 43 cuts and 21 plates and folded maps. It includes the Ninth Annual Report of the State Geologist, which shows that, as in previous years, special attention has been paid during 1900 to areal investigation and mapping. The greater part of the volume is taken up by reports on the geology of Louisa, Marion, Pottawattamie, Cedar, Page, Clay, and O'Brien Counties. A special report shows that the value of the mineral production of the State for 1900 exceeded $10,000,000, the value of the coal produced being over $6,000,000, and that of the clay output over $2,000,000.

"The great African arc of meridian" is among the subjects touched upon in the Report of His Majesty's Astronomer at the Cape of Good Hope for 1900. The completion of a geodetic arc along the thirtieth meridian from Gwelo to the Zambesi may be looked upon as the first step in a chain of triangulation which shall extend continuously to the mouth of the Nile. It is hoped that the different nations through whose territory the arc must pass will cooperate in the execution of this project. Such a work will furnish a basis for the much-needed survey of Egypt and the Sudan, and for the determination of the boundaries of German East Africa and the Congo Free State, where they adjoin British territory.

Recent action of the Academic Senate of the Heidelberg University has given official recognition to the agitation looking toward a restriction of the attendance of foreign students at the higher institutions of learning in Germany. The movement began in the schools of technology, where the pressure for admittance on the part of non-Germans has assumed remarkable proportions in recent years. The students of the Polytechnicum at Munich requested the authorities not to be so liberal in opening its doors to outsiders, as this was interfering with the work of the Germans. The granting of this request induced the students of similar schools elsewhere to ask for the same restriction. Some weeks ago, the university students took up the matter, and the Heidelberg men petitioned for similar limitations, and this petition has been granted. It is an open secret that the movement is directed chiefly against the Russian contingent.

Gunnar Wennerberg, who died at Stockholm on August 24, was undoubtedly the most popular Swedish poet and composer of recent times. He may be regarded as the legitimate successor as academic poet-laureate of Bellmann. He was born at Linköping October 2, 1817. After studying at the University of Upsala, he became a docent in æsthetics there and later lector in a gymnasium. In 1870 he was appointed a privy councillor, retaining that position, with one interruption, until 1891. His popularity is based chiefly upon the collection of duets called *Gluntarne*, published in 1851, which depict the joys and sorrows of student life. At all Swedish student gatherings these songs are sure to form a part of the musical programme, and they are hardly less popular in Denmark. His "Hör oss Svea," with which the Swedish students gained a prize at the Paris Exposition in 1878, is now one of the Swedish national songs. In later life Wennerberg composed a number of oratorios and other sacred works.

—We subjoin the latest specimen of literary bribery that has been brought to our notice, suppressing names. It has been sent to us by the recipient, who is unwilling to

acknowledge his profession peculiarly susceptible to this kind of immoral advances:

NEW YORK, August 31, 1901.

Rev. ——.

DEAR SIR: Will you permit me to send you eight volumes of the ——— Library, free of charge, with the understanding that if examination proves satisfactory you send me a brief endorsement similar to the enclosed, in consideration of which the volumes, which are bound and handsomely illustrated, will become your property without any financial consideration or further responsibility on your part.

The introductory advertising of the work has been placed in my hands, and I am making this proposition to a few people preliminary to the general sale.

Will send you sample pages and further information if you want it on receipt of reply.

Yours very truly, ———.

P. S.—Time is money. Kindly sign and mail postal card without delay.

—The leading illustrated article in the *Century* for September is one on "Mid-Air Dining-Clubs," by Cleveland Moffett. "It would seem," says Mr. Moffett, "that we are coming back to the world's ancient wisdom concerning the housetop, which has been neglected these many centuries in Western lands, although once given high honor, as we know, by men of the East, who set it apart in their dwellings as a much prized breathing-place." But there is a radical difference, as this writer clearly sets forth, between the Oriental breathing-place and the mid-air suite of apartments in a New York "sky-scraper." The real analogue of the former was the roof-garden introduced twenty years ago, and found in some respects wanting. Why the roof-garden has not answered all the expectations of its early promoters might be the subject of an essay by itself; but one reason undoubtedly is that the weather of New York is not the weather of the East. It cannot be counted on for very long; and in order to make a roof-garden pay as a commercial enterprise, it must be pretty well filled with people every evening, for several hours. To meet this difficulty, the obvious recourse was to protect the garden against the weather by a sort of roof, and by the time this had been done, the enclosure defeated its object and destroyed the garden. One potential garden at least we have seen destroyed in this way. All these attempts were, so far as we remember, in non-sky-scraping buildings. The invention of the tall building, however, has introduced something of an entirely novel and altogether different order—a suite of apartments roofed in, to be sure, yet so high up in the air as to get a steady breeze, which renders the temperature always tolerable. These are the best conceivable places for clubs in summer in New York, and in this respect the down-town strictly utilitarian clubs are better housed than the fashionable ones up town. Jane Marsh Parker contributes an article on "Louis Philippe in the United States," giving what few facts can be collected about the visit to America, made in 1797, by "Messrs." Orléans, Montpensier, and Beaujolais, and recalls the excellent old story of Mr. Willing's refusing for his daughter the hand of the future King of France, on the ground that in his present situation the latter was not a good match for her; while, should he recover his rights, she would cease to be a suitable match for him. For fiction, *inter alia*, Irving Bachelor's "D'ri and I" comes to an appropriately patriotic conclusion in this number, with President Monroe's eyes filling with tears, the hero kissing his wife, and her declaring that she was never so proud to be an American. Bret Harte furnishes the opening instalment of "Trent's Trust."

—In *Harper's*, Arthur Symons writes on Prague. To un-Bohemianized ears it sounds strange to hear that "the real centre of Prague is the Karluv Most"—in other words, Karlsbrücke; but Prague ceased to be a German city some years ago. The Czech national movement is a good deal of a mystery to a foreigner, no doubt because to the world at large there is little or no Bohemian tradition, or literature, or art, and the Czech type is, to the non-Czech, unattractive. Mr. Symons has evidently "striven" to like it, but his description is decidedly vague. To the German, it is quite clear and distinct. In his eyes the Czech is a sort of wild Irishman of the Continent, quarrelsome, violent (as is shown by his practice of "defenestration"—otherwise, throwing those with whom he quarrels out of any convenient window), and curiously determined upon being a Bohemian when he might perfectly well have remained Teutonized. H. W. Wilson contributes a paper on "The New German Navy," with illustrations. One remarkable fact, certainly not generally known, is referred to, that in Germany the army and navy are regarded to a certain extent as a unit—the navy sending selected officers to serve with the army, and vice versa. This recalls the sixteenth century, when the commander of a fleet might any day be a general ashore. We get from this article the reassuring information that the designs of the German Emperor are not against this country. England is his real objective, but he will not attack until he is ready, which will not be, perhaps, till 1916. Considering, by the way, what a bellicose reign his was to be, and how he has fumed and raged since he came to the throne, it is a little remarkable how careful he has been not to level his mailed fist at any great Power. We know that some potentates make war abroad in order to divert their subjects from domestic questions; but others think that bluster abroad may answer this end as well. The "Cathode Rays" form the subject of an article by Professor Joseph J. Thompson, which has attracted general attention. The layman cannot do more than wonder at speculations which seem to indicate a revival of the corpuscular theory of light and Franklin's theory of the "electric fluid."

—Robert Alston Stevenson has an article in *Scribner's* on "The Poor in Summer," of which the illustrations have an unusual degree of life and "actuality." Mr. Stevenson's remarks on the subject of public baths are worth attention. One of the great difficulties of those who work among the poor is to get them to wash themselves properly. Novices in this sort of charity often begin by preaching the gospel of soap and water. Now, says Mr. Stevenson, a bath-tub in every tenement, though a good thing in itself, will not wash people automatically; the tenement bath-tub is frequently used as a coal-bin. A public bath round the corner is a different thing, as is proved by the fact that last year 130,000 people paid five cents for soap and towel at the People's Baths at Centre Market Place. Water is not avoided by the poor, he thinks, to the extent that many good people suppose; but in a tenement a place apart for dressing and undressing (still more when the whole family live in two rooms) is hard to find. If the tenement bath-tub is not turned into a coal-bin, the bath-tub part of it, being the best, may very likely be let to boarders, and the family then goes without. Public baths furnish not merely the bath, but the privacy in dressing and undressing which for the poor is otherwise an almost unattainable luxury. Of course, it is true that there are very large numbers of people who do not like to take the trouble to keep themselves clean; so there are numbers of people who prefer not to change their clothes at night. It is not this class with which we are concerned, but with the millions who would like to be clean, yet find a dozen obstacles in their way. We may add that this does not really touch the question of free baths at all. It being settled that public baths, provided by the city, are a good thing, it is open to Socialisticus to maintain that they should be entirely supported by taxation, to Economicus that those who use them should pay for the privilege. The question whether public baths can be made self-supporting has, we believe, never been tested. Gen. Francis V. Greene publishes the first of three papers (richly illustrated by many hands) on "The United States Army." Gen. Greene, as the readers of his early book on military matters in Russia will recall, is an agreeable writer, and his papers promise to be interesting.

—The *Atlantic's* "Notes on the Reaction," by an "Emersonian Democrat," refers to the reaction against Democracy so visible throughout the world for some years past; the reaction *to* Democracy will follow (this Democrat thinks), if only on the principle of oscillation in politics. If we turn to another political article—that on "The Future of Political Parties," by Charles A. Conant—we find no suggestion of how the new reaction is to be brought about, except the familiar one, that it is to be socialistic. A modern Imperialist might read either article with a quiet chuckle. He knows well enough what the trouble with modern Democracy is, and what the best means are of retarding oscillations. It is just as true now, as it was in Mirabeau's time, that Privilege is the enemy of Democracy, and Corruption its handmaid. There is no more possibility that we can return to the paths of Democracy under the leadership of Debs, Irons, Shaffer, and Bryan, than there was a possibility of the human race being regenerated a hundred years ago by Anacharsis Clootz. But the *Atlantic's* politics are nothing if not jejune. "The Southern People under Reconstruction," by Thomas Nelson Page, should have been published twenty-five years ago. It has no application to any existing question, and, as history, is trite. Burning at the stake in the South is what we want to hear about now. Among non-political articles we have only space to refer to John Muir's "Hunting Big Redwoods," "Beauty," by the late W. J. Stillman, and Mr. Henry Austin Clapp's "Reminiscences of a Dramatic Critic," of which a second very readable instalment appears in this number.

—The current number of *McClure's Magazine* contains what is stated to be the "only announcement to the public," by Commander Evelyn B. Baldwin, of the plans and purposes of the much-advertised Baldwin-

Ziegler Polar Expedition. This announcement differs broadly from the usual class of parting messages by expedition commanders, and is marked by refreshing assurance, in view of the fact that Arctic exploration depends for its success largely upon fortuitous circumstances. The public is not informed of the precise date on which the Pole is to be discovered, but it is told that on March 22, 1902, the advance may be begun from the northernmost extremity of Franz-Josef Land, and that the magnetic work of the expedition "will comprise absolute readings each Monday," and that readings "of declinations and horizontal intensity will be made at five-minute intervals" every Tuesday. Such a close calculation of the work of the expedition ought certainly to inspire confidence in its outcome, but unfortunately the general tenor of Mr. Baldwin's "announcement" may easily excite suspicion that the exultant commander has not fully mastered the record of experiences in the far North, despite his own service in two explorations under tried leaders. Arctic exploration must, indeed, have made wonderful progress since 1894 and 1899 to permit of the confident prediction that "nothing short of contingencies which no human power could avoid" will prevent the planting this time of "the flag of our country at the northern apex of the earth." It is true, the statement is made that no expedition ever sailed for the North with so comprehensive an equipment as this one, or with prospects half so bright; but unfortunately these superior conditions are thought to be a part of the stock in trade of almost every new expedition, and so far they have generally been found to be subordinate in value to the wits and morale of the expeditionary corps. All will wish the new expedition success, and it will be interesting, a year or two hence, to note in how far prearranged possibilities may find their confirmation in fact. Intelligence has just been received through the returning *Fridtjof*, one of the vessels of the expedition—the others being the *America* and the *Belgica*—of the safe landing of the expeditionary party on Franz-Josef Land. The same source of information brings the intelligence that Admiral Makaroff, in command of the Russian ice-breaker the *Ermak*, has abandoned all thought of being able to break through the great Polar pack by means of his powerful and specially constructed machine. Thus seems to disappear an apparently easy and simple means of reaching the Pole.

—The same number of *McClure's Magazine* contains an interesting illustrated article by Sir Harry H. Johnston, Special Commissioner for Uganda, on the *okapi*, the remarkable hoofed animal that has recently been brought to light from the Congo forest, and for a knowledge of which the scientific world is indebted to the indefatigable Special Commissioner. At a time when destruction threatens the major animal forms of the African continent, this discovery adds an almost unique type to a fauna already distinctive in its salient characteristics, and for the coming of which there had been no herald. The okapi, if it has not turned out to be the extinct *Helladotherium*, which it was first thought (and hoped) it might be, still remains a most interesting quadruped. Roughly, it may be said to be most nearly allied to the giraffe, having three horn-cores and a somewhat elongated neck; but the body build is more distinctly equine, and the size is only that of an ox. Singularly enough, the mount of the single specimen in the British Museum differs considerably in outline from what the discoverer has represented in his own sketch; but, as Sir Harry remarks, "until the okapi has been photographed alive or dead, and its exact shape in the flesh is thus known," it will be impossible to determine upon the precise form of the animal. The okapi seems to offer little as yet towards a solution of the characteristics of the African fauna, beyond the fact that it adds a second member to the camelopardaline group; but its discovery will doubtless lead to a more energetic exploration in the still untrodden wilds of the Dark Continent for types of life that may now be said to be missing from the general chain. "This same forest, I believe," says Sir Harry, "conceals other wonders besides the okapi, not yet brought to light, including enormous gorillas. I have seen photographs of these huge apes, taken from dead animals which have been killed by the natives and brought in to the Belgians. A careful search might reveal several other strange additions to the world's mammalian fauna."

THE CALHOUN CORRESPONDENCE.—I.

Correspondence of John C. Calhoun. Edited by J. Franklin Jameson. [Fourth Annual Report of the Historical Manuscripts Committee of the American Historical Association.] Washington, D. C.

This solid volume falls into two parts: letters written by Calhoun; and nearly 200 addressed to him drawn from a collection of 2,300. It is hard to say which are the more valuable, in spite of the fact that of Calhoun's private letters hardly more than a score had hitherto been printed. About his domestic and plantation life, his treatment of his slaves, his attitude of mind towards the Missouri Compromise (p. 181), about his wire-pulling to make Mississippi take the lead in calling the Nashville Convention in 1849 (pp. 1204, 1206), Von Holst might have gleaned something for his masterly characterization of the South Carolina statesman; but not much. This historian asks (Life, p. 179) if Calhoun had "so entirely forgotten all that he had seen during his college years in New England" that he failed to discern the superior vitality of the North, notwithstanding the labor troubles from which he thought the South happily exempt. We have here a number of letters during his student days in New England, at Litchfield and at Newport, but we see only a youth who knows how to adjust himself to his environment so as to live pleasantly, with never a reflection on contrasted systems of agriculture and industry. He was well on towards middle life when, in 1821, he expressed surprise at the product of a farm in Harrisburg, Pa., not so good land as in Calhoun's neighborhood, and employing steadily only one negro fellow at five dollars a month (p. 196). But in this respect he was blind as a Southerner rather than individually, as may be said of the unconscious humor (the only kind associated with him) of passages like these from letters written in 1831 (p. 301):

"Aleck, our house servant, gave us the slip yesterday, and is now in the woods. . . . He had offended your sister, and she threatened him with a severe whipping. . . . He ran away for no other cause but to avoid a correction for some misconduct."

Proof that Aleck was not only a little lower than the angels, but a good deal less than human!

Much appears to the credit account of Calhoun in his iterated desire to have women take an interest in politics (p. 316), and to have regard in education to health and constitution (p. 459); also, in his consistent detestation of the spoils system (p. 452), and the caucus (p. 530), and of rotation in office, which he will not practise in State Department appointments (p. 586). But amid the riches from which it is embarrassing to choose, we shall follow a rather narrow line relating to slavery. It is three years after the founding of the *Liberator* that any mention is made in this correspondence (p. 327) of the abolition agitation, and it is significant that then Calhoun's outburst was against the Colonization Society, as the putative author of a bill freeing the slaves in the District immediately. This means, he says, immediate emancipation at the South. But he did not know the Society. No notice is taken of the organization of the American Anti-Slavery Society, just a month before. Nor does Calhoun, writing a month after the mails had been rifled by a mob in Charleston for "incendiary" abolition matter, and referring to the Richmond meeting of August 4, 1835, which led to the Boston mob of October 21 in that year, employ any more specific name for the abolitionists than "Northern fanaticks" (p. 345). On June 28, 1836, he records that "the abolitionists are numerous, zealous, and active." In February, 1837, he fears that the "abolition question" "is destined to shake the country to its centre" (p. 368). "They have a powerful press and abundant funds" (p. 361). On July 7, 1837, he classifies himself as "anti-abolition" (p. 376), a pass to which he could not have come without a certain humiliation of spirit. He did not, he said, "intend to go into any move that may be controlled by abolitionists, consolidationists, colonizationists." By May 16, 1840, he felt there was "less to fear at present from the Tariff than either of the others [abolition and currency questions]" (p. 456). By March 5, 1844, "The only two questions of pressing importance, . . . I mean the Tariff and abolition" (p. 572). His all but dying confession was (February 6, 1850): "The slavery question has at length absorbed the entire attention of Congress and the country" (p. 781).

Only one incident of the "martyr age" of the anti-slavery agitation chances to be so much as alluded to in Calhoun's letters, namely, the imprisonment of Torrey. In 1844, November 14, he denies a story of Torrey's about Calhoun's selling his coachman's wife to be a concubine (p. 628), and implies that this clergyman could not justify himself before God for his attempt to run off slaves. He notices Samuel Hoar's errand to protect Massachusetts colored seamen from imprisonment in Southern ports as "Massachusetts sending an emissary to South Carolina" (p. 633). No notice is taken of the disunion policy avowed by Garrisonian abolitionists. Calhoun scented disunion in every manifestation of the Northern conscience against slavery *per se*. He was ready, like the chivalry of Richmond, to resist that to disunion as

early as 1835. In July, 1837, he could not think of going upon a ticket with Gen. Harrison, "who has expressed an opinion in favor of appropriating money to emancipate our slaves by purchase" (p. 376). As Tyler's Secretary of State, in March, 1842, he had scruples about receiving Lord Morpeth, who brought letters to him, seeing that that nobleman had "had so little feeling of propriety as to attend an abolition meeting in Boston, as it is said, and to express himself kindly of them and their movement" (p. 506). In the offering of a petition purporting to be from slaves by John Quincy Adams in the House of Representatives in January, 1837, Calhoun read (p. 368) not merely the right to emancipate, but, "to express myself more strongly, and at the same time more truly, the act of emancipation; for the right to petition Congress is itself emancipation. It would make the masters but overseers, against whom the slave would have a right to appeal to Congress, as the absolute master of all." The presentation by the Massachusetts ex-President of the famous Haverhill petition praying for emancipation in the District of Columbia, in January, 1842, was resented as "the first open development of abolition towards disunion" (p. 504); and that motive was ascribed to Mr. Adams, though he moved reference of the petition for adverse report.

The name of no abolitionist properly so called, meaning the purely moral agitators and disunionists, occurs in Calhoun's own letters. Calhoun made no distinctions among anti-slavery men, and in 1846 he pictured "the abolitionists . . . headed by Adams and Giddings" (p. 679). Torrey was a Liberty Party man, and so was Lewis Tappan, who is mentioned casually in the letter of August 30, 1845 (p. 670). The Liberty Party itself is quite unmentioned. The Buffalo Free-Soil Convention of 1848 appears to Calhoun the possible forerunner of "the formation of two great sectional parties," with results leading to "great changes" (p. 761). Abolitionism, he writes on November 7, 1846, "has been forced into politics with you, and it must now be put down politically, or triumph with you, with all the inevitable consequences that will follow—disunion among others" (p. 711). On the same date he first speaks of "Wilmot's proposition." This, we believe, is the entire abolition gallery labelled by Calhoun, whose preference was ever for impersonal warfare on behalf of leading principles.

While ready to call a slave a slave in these letters, Calhoun resorted freely to the euphemisms of his section. He objected, in 1838, to the name Democrat for his party, signifying "those who are in favor of the government of the absolute numerical majority, to which I am utterly opposed, and the prevalence of which would destroy our *system* and destroy the South" (p. 400). In 1843, Great Britain was interfering in Texas "in order to act on our Southern *institutions*" (p. 555); and presently again, "our *domestic institutions* of the South" (p. 560). In 1846, "No one can realize the disasters which would follow the war [with England over the northwest boundary], should there be one. I fear neither our *liberty* nor Constitution would survive" (p. 677). That "liberty" meant "slavery" appears from a letter just one week later: "The abolitionists are all for war, with the avowed intention of crushing us and our *institutions*" (p. 679). He urged J. H. Hammond, on September 28, 1845, to take the highest ground on the subject of slavery, saying that ten years ago almost everybody defended it "on the ground of a necessary evil, to be got rid of as soon as possible." At that time South Carolina was no sounder on this head than Kentucky (p. 672). His own position had been consistent from 1837, at least: "It [slavery] is the best substratum of population in the world, and one on which great and flourishing Commonwealths may be most easily and safely reared" (p. 369). Three weeks before his death he proclaimed the irrepressible conflict: "It is difficult to see how two peoples so different and hostile can exist together in one common Union" (p. 784).

Von Holst closes his Life of Calhoun by proposing, for "a new edition of works of the greatest and fiercest of pro-slavery fanatics," "a short appendix—the emancipation proclamation of Abraham Lincoln." We close this portion of our review with an appendix from the pen of that unimpeachable Confederate, Col. John S. Mosby:

"The real South is just at its birth. . . . Without the War of Secession the South could never have hoped to attain the future that is now certain. Slavery was a great incubus, paralyzing natural energy. By abolishing this wrong our war benefited every State south of the Mason and Dixon line. The negroes are producing more as free men than they ever did as slaves, and the great mass of the people are vastly better off to-day than they were under the old ante-bellum system. Socially, as well as industrially, the abolition of slavery was highly beneficial in its results to the masses, for slavery was a great wrong, and no community can exist in the highest state of happiness when its system is based on wrong."

THE NEW RUSSIAN NOVELIST.

Fomá Gordyéeff. By Maxim Gorky. Translated from the Russian by Isabel F. Hapgood. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The practised translator, Miss Hapgood, introduces a young Russian writer, Maxim Gorky, to English readers, through a novel entitled 'Fomá Gordyéeff.' From her biographical sketch it appears that Gorky is a son of the proletariat. At the age of fifteen he had already seen enough life to afford material for future volumes of the sterner sort of realistic tales. He had served brief apprenticeships successively to a shoemaker, a draughtsman, and a holy-image maker, had tried gardening and occupied the position of cook's boy on a Volga steamer, where, he says, his superior, the cook, "exercised a lasting influence over my education." In Russia the cook's disciple is now hailed as the peer of Turgeneff and Tolstoy, and his translator advances the opinion that he "may accomplish results in the field of realism combined with lofty idealism and poetry, which will be tremendous additions to the literature of the world"—results which cannot yet be clearly foreseen, "because we have no standard of comparison for such an evenly balanced, powerful writer in whom these great elements have been so wonderfully united."

This opinion exhales that generous enthusiasm with which it is the luck of Russian novelists to inspire their English discoverers. Years ago they awarded to Turgeneff a niche exalted and aloof in the temple of fame. Then they chanted praise of Tolstoy so loud, so long, and with such happy unanimity that few dared to admit a disinclination to accept him unconditionally and set him up above the gods of our own language, our own faith, and our own traditions. The boldest dissenters took refuge in paltry evasions, such as lack of sympathy with Slavic ideals or prejudice against books filled with unpronounceable names. We have suffered a good deal from the Russians and their friends, so when a new one is posted as in the running, we should at once resolve not to be intimidated by the shouting of his backers. Argument about what people may accomplish is never instructive, and no kind of race would be run if records were never broken. In the literature of the world Gorky may establish a record.

So far as he has gone, however, in this his first long work, he is very pointedly Russian. The English reader can hardly fail to feel that he is plunged into a society absolutely foreign, and that the foreignness has roots beneath habits and manners deep in the heart of the people. Gorky has an object in view from which he never flinches: it is to describe a large class of his countrymen, the "merchant class." This class rarely comes in contact with a higher class, and its relation with a lower class is that of a hard master with an unwilling and resentful servant. Its collective energy is given to trade and commerce, to money-getting without reference to honor or honesty or to the fine uses to which accumulated wealth may be put. It has no morals and no sentiment, and its religion is a formal thing, useful for ceremonies, to be had at a price. Its manners are base and its speech coarse to indecency. Gorky's description is a wrathful one; it is an exhibition of realism in an acute phase. Whether it is also truthful we cannot tell, just because in the Western nations, as the translator says of her author's genius, "we have no standard of comparison." Fomá Gordyéeff, in despair for himself, said that no good could be born of his class, and he sometimes took leave of an assembly of merchants with a hearty "Damn you all." The author's selection of such a nature (he is hardly a character) as Fomá, for the purpose of intensifying the impression about the class that he wishes to make, is a stroke of literary genius. Considered as a person, even a Russian person, Fomá is not quite probable; but he achieves the literary purpose perfectly.

The translator says that, in Fomá, Gorky "shows the gilded youth of all climes"; but we cannot agree with her. If this be true, our own "gilded youth" is sadly misunderstood. Fomá, like Cleopatra, had immortal longings in him. "I scold you," said his father, Ignat, a merchant prince, "because there is something in you that you don't get from me, and it is injurious to you." The strange and objectionable something which was really fatal to Fomá, he inherited, presumably, from his mother, a blue-eyed, taciturn woman (belonging to a sect called milk-drinkers) who at her son's birth had passed to the silence of death hardly more profound or mysterious than the silence of her life. Russian writers have familiarized us with this strange attribute, and we call it spirituality. The thing is rare among us, feeble, not disturbing us greatly, easily stifled. In the merchant class in Russia it appears to be rarer still, and a suspicion of its existence raises the cry,

"Crucify him!" Fomá could not even make a creditable fight for his soul. He had no intellect and a strong sensuality, which he did get from his father. Blindly, stupidly, despairingly he strives to break the hateful bonds of birth, condition, custom. When he tries to express himself, the words will not come, there is none to comfort or teach him, none even to listen patiently and try to understand. Once, when the pressure of hatred becomes intolerable, he expresses it by beating almost to death a man who has spoken ill of a woman, though he knows she deserves the opprobrious epithet. Again his loathing breaks out in a mad prank, and he tries to drown a lot of people with whom he has shared a gross and prolonged debauch. Drink is his only refuge from hopeless misery, and his only effective weapon against his enemies is vituperation. Drunk or sober, Fomá speaks his mind to the merchants with appalling directness, and at last they agree solemnly that he is mad, and shut him up in an asylum, where the sound of his ravings cannot shock their respectable ears.

All this seems to us very Russian, and not largely applicable as a criticism of life. This is not to say that the book is an ordinary one, to pass an hour with and forget. It is a remarkable book, because there is a man in it telling a tale of life that he believes, with passion, to be a true tale, telling it without artifice or compunction, and showing himself, too, naked with the rest. It is not a nice novel. It cannot be included among any of the kinds of novels to which the English are accustomed, and which, meaning vaguely many things or nothing at all, we speak of as "nice" or "very good." Yet it is far from being nasty, as D'Annunzio and other Latins dealing with what they are pleased to call life, are nasty. Perhaps no good would be done by the man who should write about us in the way that Gorky writes about Russians, but the experiment would be very interesting—it would make so many of us "sit up."

ANOTHER NOVEL FROM FOGAZZARO.

Piccolo Mondo Moderno: Romanzo di Antonio Fogazzaro. Milan: Hoepli. 1901. Pp. 461.

Were an author to attain great success with a novel entitled, let us say, 'The House that Jack Built,' he would do well not to listen to any suggestion of following it up by 'The House that Gill Built.' He should leave that to the less discreet among his admirers, or, better yet, to those who envy his fortunes. The chances are ten to one against the second work being as good as the first; and even if it be, by way of exception, the former will surely be used to give relief to its shortcomings, whether real or imaginary. It is not pleasant to say it, but this is exactly what has befallen Signor Fogazzaro. No one will ever dream of accusing him of wishing to trade upon the name of 'Piccolo Mondo Antico,' but none the less that charming book is the greatest enemy that 'Piccolo Mondo Moderno' has had to encounter.

The first thing that most readers say of it on finishing its perusal is that it is far from being equal to its predecessor. And it was not at all necessary to provoke the odious comparison; titles are not of divine ordination, and, aside from the suggestion in the names, there is no connection between the two books. Piero Maironi is the son of Franco and Luisa Maironi, but, for any determining influence that such a fact might have, there would have been little difficulty in making him the son of any other father and mother. The setting is not the same; the scene is laid in a city of the Venetian land, instead of upon the Lake of Lugano; the few incidents or details that have their rise in the former volume would have served as well without that connection. Still, there is evidence that the present story was planned as a sequel when the author wrote 'Piccolo Mondo Antico.' We are there told that the fortune of the Maironi family was of tainted origin. Franco Maironi made this discovery, but was prevented by circumstances from acting on it. In the present volume his son renounces all part in the ill-gotten wealth, but a hero may do as much even if he be not called Maironi. Indeed, it seems to us that it would have been better if Piero had not been the son of Franco and Luisa: the relationship only seconds the title in suggesting that unhappy comparison. You are reminded that the parents were both uncommon and interesting characters, while the chances are that you will not be slow in pronouncing the son a "muff."

The continual suggestion of 'Piccolo Mondo Antico' has, however, the advantage that, by dint of keeping the two so constantly together under our eyes, we finally get quite clear in our minds why that book is superior to its successor. Fogazzaro loves the little world of Valsolda with the best of his heart; he laughs tenderly at its foibles, and he grieves personally over what he must condemn. Towards the envy, the hatred, the intrigues, the mockery, the scandal-mongery of a provincial city, he could scarcely be tender, and he shows that, in his case at least, the finest humor is inseparable from love. That in 'Piccolo Mondo Antico' lighted up the depths of human nature; that in 'Piccolo Mondo Moderno' deals more with externals, and, notwithstanding its good nature, is more akin to satire. A similar distinction exists between the more serious parts of the two books. It seems to be an open secret that Franco and Luisa Maironi are drawn from the father and mother of the author. We must not conclude from this that Piero stands for Fogazzaro himself. The creations of the imagination are set around with mystery; they are somehow drawn from that consciousness in which we find within our very selves the possibilities of every crime, as well as of all heroism and devotion. The author's attitude toward his creature is determined by an inner Areopagus, whose decision is sometimes dictated by partiality, sometimes by passion, rarely by pure reason. Why should Barrie pursue with scourges his Sentimental Tommy? Why do we fancy we detect in Fogazzaro something like a shudder of aversion while unfolding the character of Piero, who may be a muff, but who is also a good deal of a saint? He registers without protest the opinion of the director of the insane asylum that the life of Piero will end in an institution such as that he presides over; as well as that of Bassanelli, his father's old friend, that he is daft and dangerous, a degenerate scion of his family. There is such a thing as the impartiality of an historian, but the novelist hardly stands so aloof from the favorites of his creation. The conclusion cannot be avoided that the portrait of Piero is the result of a profound curiosity, as well as of imperfect sympathy.

In the little world of fifty years ago, the least among its denizens comes before us so palpitating with life that we at once accord to him or her our personal good will or our dislike. We accept the characters of 'Piccolo Mondo Moderno' as well observed, perfectly life-like, but we do not identify ourselves with them; the world is too large, and they—many of them—are too small. There are plenty of exceptions. Don Giuseppe Flores, a sort of Bishop Myriel, less dithyrambic and more human, said to have been drawn from a near relative of the author; the Marchesa Scremin, a meticulous housewife to the outer view, known to one or two as sublime in her unselfish devotion and purity; and, above all, the beautiful figure of Jeanne Dessalle, and that, barely shadowed forth, of her brother, would be worthy to rank with the finest creations of the author.

The city where the action passes is Vicenza; although its name is not once given, its identity is by no means disguised. "He entered the deserted Piazza Maggiore, just opposite the spectral magnificence [it is late at night] of the great, dark, many-eyed galleries that a glorious old master has girded about the decrepit and blind work of a more ancient brother, as some humanist might envelop with splendor mediæval ideas." The basilica of Palladio is not to be mistaken. The villa of the Dessalles appears to be the Villa Valmarano, with its wealth of frescoes by Tiepolo, belonging to the family of the author's wife. There is also the visit to the monastery of Praglia, which is described under its proper name, and so described that no reader will ever be wanting to any possible opportunity of visiting it. There is, in fact, so free a use of places, buildings, and people in and about Vicenza that one is tempted to think that this may be a *roman à clef*, and to wonder that the inhabitants of that city have not shown themselves scandalized. But that would be doing injustice to the author's delicacy and discretion: he has managed to give a picture of life in a provincial city that is far from flattering, and the city recognizes the portrait without being offended. It is as with the sermon of a popular preacher, the truth of which every one praises, as well as its adaptability to one's neighbors.

The humorous scenes and characters are, however, not the greater part in the novels of Fogazzaro: they are merely the ornaments and foil that set off the serious figures and their action. There is a purpose in 'Piccolo Mondo Moderno,' and one not altogether new with our author; it is in fact essentially that of 'Daniele Cortis,' which was to show that a man may resist a love which is not countenanced by the constitution of society. Piero Maironi, whose wife (with whom he was never really in sympathy) is now hopelessly insane, meets and loves Jeanne Dessalle, separated, by no fault of hers, from a brutal husband. He struggles obstinately against his passion, not like a Titan, as did Daniele Cortis, but rather like a monk; and, notwithstanding all his efforts, is in danger of finding it too strong for him. Indeed, he had yielded had it not been for the superior purity of Jeanne. In the circumstances, had they fallen, many would have thought with the director of the insane asylum, "che forse tutto il male non veniva per nuocere." They did not yield, how-

ever, and we, at least, will not agree with the French critic who thought the similar result in 'Daniele Cortis' of immoral teaching—probably because it seemed to him that to celebrate such victories was an encouragement to young people to love where they ought not.

An Anglo-Saxon might not give to Fogazzaro full credit for the nobility of his thesis. The Latin novelist in general takes it for granted that when a man or woman is tempted to an illicit passion, he or she will inevitably fall, no matter how desperate his resistance. An Anglo-Saxon, on the other hand, would take it for granted that duty *must* win in such a contest—at least, in a book. But the most uncompromising Anglo-Saxon would doubt of the sanity of Piero when, to escape from temptation, he gives all his wealth toward an experiment in coöperative agriculture, and then disappears from the world, probably into a convent. Property is not to be thrown away lightly, and a monastic life is but the sanctification of laziness; and in this view we are pretty nearly all Anglo-Saxons together. Piero, from beginning to end, has in him something of the mediæval saint, but sanctity is the crown of the struggle, and the rebellious flesh was for a long time strong enough to make of him an uncertain, wavering person, thoroughly uncomfortable and disappointing both to himself and to every one about him. The modern protagonist is seldom a hero, but the humanity of this one is put together in a way to make one sigh for Pelham or any of the portentous perfections of the past. In comparison, he could not fail to be amusing.

And yet, when all has been said, it must be owned that the inferiority of 'Piccolo Mondo Moderno' is not so evident when it is not confronted with its immediate predecessor, just as one might own that Thackeray's 'Virginians' was not equal to 'Henry Esmond,' but none the less was a novel that needed not to fear comparison with any other of that time. The appearance of 'Piccolo Mondo Moderno' was a literary event; it was eagerly waited for, and the number of the *Nuova Antologia* containing the first instalment was bought with avidity—for Italy, that is, where the literary appetite does not indulge in excesses. And it is only gradually, hesitatingly, that the judgment asserts itself, ranking it below its predecessor. During the reading, one is carried on by the charm of the style, the sober beauty of the descriptions, the interest that invests the character of Jeanne, and that is somehow extended to that *mauvais coucheur*, Piero, whose nature is indeed made up of heavenly harmonies, every chord in which is, however, somehow a quarter of a note out. And more than all, the volume is rich in amusement. The missing egg that deranges the domestic economy and serenity of the Marchesa Scremin, the clandestine meeting of the town council without its sindaco, the Commendatore's coffee, the affair of the assistant librarian's trousers, the great reception at Villa Diedo, are so many chapters of humor from the hand of a master. We have said that the humor of this volume is inferior to that of 'Piccolo Mondo Antico,' and we have since been informed by an Italian critic that we are wofully wrong in our judgment. Without having changed our opinion, we gladly record the contrary one, partly that we may give the benefit of a doubt to an author whom, even in his less successful works, we always find so charming, and partly because we have an inner conviction that to a large class of readers, the class that in a novel look chiefly to the story, the sentence of our critic will be sustained. The narration in 'Piccolo Mondo Moderno' runs more smoothly from beginning to end than in its predecessor; in that, we may confess, we felt at times that the various phases of Luisa's grief after the loss of her child were somehow a "hitch" in the story. However that may be, there can be no doubt that, if Fogazzaro's last work does not shake the supremacy of 'Piccolo Mondo Antico' and of 'Daniele Cortis,' it has yet added another to the number of books that no student of the Italian literature of our day can leave unread.

Bolingbroke and his Times. By Walter Sichel. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901.

Mr. Sichel has evidently set out to write a history of English society, politics, and thought during the first half of the eighteenth century, with Henry St. John, Viscount Bolingbroke, for the central figure of his study. On the reverse of the title-page, and facing an impressive dedication, appears the heading, "Part I. The Reign of Queen Anne." And, though this volume is complete in itself, there is a hint in the last pages that the author will proceed to carry forward Bolingbroke's career after the date of the flight from England. The present part of the work deals largely with politics. We infer from Mr. Sichel's words that when he resumes the subject he will keep Bolingbroke's writings and intellectual influence in full view. Perhaps he will then attempt to do for Bolingbroke what M. Texte has succeeded in doing for Rousseau. At any rate, he gives promise of estimating the debt which Voltaire owed to the English deist.

"Most of the light and leading of those times will pass before us—Pope, Swift, Voltaire, Walpole, Carteret, Pulteney, Chesterfield, Bathurst, Cobham, Chetwynd, Cornbury, with all their brilliant galaxy. Above all, the great Pitt, rehearsing as a youth the greater part which was to rouse England hereafter to some of Bolingbroke's ideals. We shall find how largely Burke, who repudiated the fountain-head, has drawn from Bolingbroke, especially in his 'Appeal from the New to the Old Whigs'; how much Gibbon borrows in his History."

We make this forecast of Mr. Sichel's second volume because we have a strong impression that it will be a more satisfactory effort than the book which is now before us. The intellectual achievements of Bolingbroke, whether as an orator or as a writer, are great beyond all cavil, and can be appreciated without regard to the quality of his character. His admirer, therefore, will find it less hard to enlist sympathy when he writes of the 'Letters on History,' the 'Patriot King,' and the 'Craftsman' than when he is defending a tortuous course of political action. The weight of opinion against Bolingbroke's straightforwardness is now, and has long been, very heavy. The leading historians and men of letters who have had occasion to pass judgment agree in calling him clever but corrupt, clear-sighted but regardless of the public interest when it clashed with his own ambitions. Leaving out Johnson and Burke in the eighteenth century, he has for his unfriendly critics Hallam, Macaulay, Carlyle, John Morley, Goldwin Smith, and S. R. Gardiner. A single sentence from Gardiner's elementary text-book on English history will show how he is dismissed when an estimate of his public life must be crowded into the fewest possible words: "St. John was a man of very great ability, who could make better speeches than any one in the House of Commons, and who looked on politics as a very amusing game, which was particularly amusing if it brought riches and power to himself."

Mr. Sichel takes exception to the general verdict and attacks the competence of the judges. "Throughout—as Lytton so justly observes in his 'Devereux'—he has been more discussed and less read than any great figure of the past." "Once more, to implicate Bolingbroke, he [Hallam] cites the false memoirs of Mesnager, which he himself discredits, and letters from Jacobite agents quoted in Macpherson, uncorrected by the much more important disclaimers included in the same collection. But the partiality of Hallam's account is as nothing in the scales when we weigh it against his misconceptions and lack of insight." "And yet Prof. Goldwin Smith has the hardihood to declare that Bolingbroke 'stood forth to uphold the prerogative of a corrupt and tyrannical House of Commons against the freedom of election,' and argues, from the absence on both sides of any scheme for suffrage, against the Tories, who alone at this juncture endeavored to amend the representation." The above quotations disclose the nature of the tone which Mr. Sichel often takes when referring to the statements of his predecessors. He feels that Bolingbroke has suffered from both ignorance and malice; and to render justice he comes forward not only with special information but with a new standpoint. "All our influential historians have been Whigs. Some vindication of Tory principles seemed, on an impartial review, indispensable. In every case I have cited authorities; and, if my assertions are impugned, my authorities must be rebutted also."

No one can call Mr. Sichel guilty of rashness for attacking the accepted idea of Bolingbroke's motives, and, on the whole, he fights his battle without showing undue confidence. He has studied the period with minute care, and also in a spirit which rises above disagreeable narrowness. Considered simply as a monograph on Bolingbroke, this book is the most elaborate study of his political record during the reign of Anne which has yet been published. It is marked by decided talent. It has fire and force. It contains passages which must reach the author's high standard of expectation. Yet to us it has not carried conviction, although from our delight in Bolingbroke's writings we should gladly see his political honor established.

We shall only express the opinion which we have just announced and let the matter rest there. Mr. Sichel's pages are packed close with detail, and cannot be fitly discussed unless one is willing to take sides and to justify one's position in a long controversial article. The reason why we have not been converted by his marshalling of circumstances and foot-notes can, however, be briefly explained. For one thing, he does not evince the "robust impartiality" which consists in allowing your opponent's posi-

tion its full strength, and, for another, he proves too much. He is so completely persuaded of Bolingbroke's sincerity that he assigns to the language of self-defence the same authority which the most impersonal evidence would carry. He has been captivated by the eloquence of genius, and carries a strain of partisanship into his task of vindicating an ancient wrong. His merit (and it is one which will insure the volume wide attention) consists in his thorough grasp of English life and politics during the reign of Queen Anne. His shortcoming is an interpretation of the feuds of Whigs and Tories (and even of the different factions among the Tories), which makes the political history of the period hinge upon the superior patriotism of Bolingbroke.

Mr. Sichel has not, we think, been able to reverse the judgment of history upon Bolingbroke any further than Mr. Legge reversed its judgment upon Richard III., or Mr. Irving upon Judge Jeffreys. Still, he is an approved scholar and a coiner of striking phrases after the Balliol manner. His plea does not run to the length of extenuating Bolingbroke from the charges of libertinism, hot-headedness, and hardness. "Bolingbroke was not a tender man. It is a blot on his character. She [his first wife] must have been much fonder of him than he of her, and there were doubtless bickerings between them." As a forensic effort, the weakest feature of the book is lack of skill in presenting the leading issues. The attention is dissipated among a good many insignificant particulars, and the main points of the brief are not raised into sufficiently high relief.

Notwithstanding our unwillingness to accept Mr. Sichel's new portrait of Bolingbroke, we must conclude by saying that for a first venture this is a very promising work.

Calendar of Letter Books: Archives of the City of London. Letter Book C, *circa* 1291-1309. Edited by Reginald R. Sharpe, D.C.L. London. 1901.

The period dealt with in this volume, as the editor tells us, is "covered jointly by the two previous letter books"; but the contents of this are of more varied interest. It has much that illustrates the troubles attending the closing years of Edward I., and the sturdy efforts of the Londoners to recover and secure their rights; much also which relates to the commerce and trade of the period, the status of foreign merchants in England, the Jews, and the perplexities about coined money; and many illustrations of legal usages.

The study of these London records is amusing, as well as instructive to the legal and historical student. In the introduction one may read of the custom of "pin-drinking"; and, in the text, of efforts to prevent the sending of cloth to "the mills at Stratford to be fulled," instead of following the good old custom by which they were " to be fulled by the feet of men of the craft or their servants in their houses within the city"; and of the rules for keeping the city gates. "All gates of the city," runs an ordinance of 1282, "shall be open by day, and at each gate there shall be two serjeants of experience and eloquence *(scientes et eloquentes)*, who shall keep careful watch," etc. Interesting is it, also, to observe the origin and long persistence of a usage in the English tea trade, which resisted "vigorous efforts . . . in 1899 to abolish the custom," viz., that of allowing to a buyer four pounds in every hundredweight, or one pound to every chest of twenty-eight pounds. Such had been the general London usage, in all wholesale trade (p. 128 n.), when, in 1303, in the interest of foreign merchants, the King undertook to abolish it. The expulsion of the Jews in 1290, we are told, had driven the King into the hands of the Lombard merchants for pecuniary assistance. His new "statute" was not obeyed, and in 1305 he issued a writ to the Mayor and Sheriffs of London reciting his order that "the weigher should weigh equally, and that when he had placed the balance evenly he should remove his hands so that it remained even," and directing that it be strictly observed, or cause shown. Upon this writ return was made as follows:

"The manner of weighing heavy goods *(averiä ponderis)* [and so our *aver* (or *avoir*) *du pois*] coming to the city of London from time immemorial was, and still is, that the balance shall always draw towards the better, that is to say, towards the thing bought, and in that way the said goods are sold to archbishops, bishops, earls, barons, and other soever buying goods of that kind in the said city; and this custom and manner of weighing our ancestors have used, and we hitherto have used; and our lord the King has confirmed to us by his charter our liberties and free customs which we have hitherto used by grant of his predecessors the Kings of England. Wherefore we cannot nor ought to change the customs of his city used and approved by reason of the grant now made to merchant strangers to the injury and prejudice of his citizens, and also of the magnates and commonalty of his realm, especially since in the charter granted to them it is contained that weighing should be done in the manner in the said charter contained, when it is not against the lord of the place, or contrary to the liberty granted by the lord the King himself or his ancestors, or contrary to the custom of the vills and fairs hitherto observed."

A few years later, in 1311, as the editor tells us, the *Statutum de Nova Custuma* of 1303 "was declared illegal" and the ancient "liberties" of the great army of buyers were vindicated; and these still survive in London, as it would seem, at least in the single case of the comparatively modern trade in tea.

Encyclopædia Medica. Under the general editorship of Chalmers Watson, M.B., M.R.C.P.E. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. Vols I. to VI. 1899, 1900.

These six handsomely printed and illustrated volumes, which form, presumably, nearly one-half the series, should be welcomed in this country as a presentation of the views of some of the best physicians in Great Britain, upon a wide range of important subjects. Each volume comprises 500 to 600 pages, and contains treatises upon twenty-five to fifty subjects. These treatises vary in merit and in thoroughness, but many of them are of great value, and of sufficient length to stand as adequate presentations of the subjects treated. The special articles are too numerous to be reviewed in detail, but some mention may be made of a few of those which are of more general interest. Thus, in the first volume, the chapter on *adolescent insanity*, by the widely known Dr. Clouston of Edinburgh, is a thoughtful and interesting presentation of facts and arguments which are of vast importance to every one, lay as well as medical; so much so, that one could wish that more than ten pages had been allotted to them. The therapeutic suggestions are excellent, but more thorough discussion of what to do and what to avoid, in the way of the moral and intellectual treatment of these youthful patients, would have been welcome, especially as giving hints for prevention. The important subject of *alcoholism*, and the various physiological and clinical questions related thereto are thoroughly and ably treated, though under a variety of headings. We note in passing that although, on the whole, a very temperate and reasonable attitude is maintained as regards the usefulness of alcohol, yet the current view is adhered to, that in so far as it is consumed in the body it is to be regarded as a food—a proposition which of late has been called in question. The subject of *surgical anæsthesia* also receives thorough attention in thirty-three pages, by Buxton, Ogston, and Teale, all thoroughly competent authorities. The American reader becomes aware of a slight shock on seeing it stated, in the paragraph on "Rival Anæsthetics," among which ether is the first to be mentioned, that, although these agents can be used with benefit under special circumstances, they are "unsuitable in the hands of the general practitioner, the country doctor, etc., etc., where chloroform is the only drug that can be advantageously employed." But the balance is righted by the next article, on *ether*, written by a convert to our ideas, which he presents with clearness and force. Even in the first of these two papers the dangerousness of chloroform is admitted, but the almost complete absence of danger attending the use of ether is not recognized as it should be.

The second volume contains a very full discussion of the *physiology*, and certain aspects of the *pathology and surgery, of the brain*, by men of the best reputation, in a series of articles covering 96 pages; and also a good review of *diet and digestion*, in 40 pages. One hundred and thirty-nine pages of the fourth volume are devoted to the *heart*, and in the sixth volume nearly 200 pages to the subject of *labour*.

The editor-in-chief contributes a number of important articles, among them one of 53 pages, upon *gout*. It is these long papers by competent authorities that give this Encyclopædia a good part of its strength and distinctive character. On the other hand, it will be felt by many readers as a defect that special subjects are so often treated apart from the main topic from which they really derive, though it should be said that in many cases local indexes and cross-references fully supply the missing links. The problem of the arrangement of a large encyclopædia is, of course, a difficult one. It is doubtless a mistake to be too formal and inelastic in classifying every special topic under some more general category; nevertheless, in this case, the editor has, perhaps, gone too far in the opposite direction. Thus, the article on *hydropathy*, rather inadequate at best, is in a different volume from that on *balneology*, though a closely kindred subject. So, too, the *gastro-intestinal disorders of infancy* are described in admirable detail, but in connection neither with intestinal disorders in general, nor with infancy in general; and the same may be

said of *adolescent insanity* and various other topics.

The work of the editors, proofreaders, and printers is of the best quality, and deserves all praise.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adler, C. American Jewish Year-book. Sept. 14, 1901-Oct. 1, 1902. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America.
Antrobus, Suzanne. The King's Messenger. Harpers. $1.50.
Arnold, Sir E. The Voyage of Ithobal. London: Murray; New York: G. W. Dillingham Co.
Artigues, A. D. de. New Method of Geography and Mapping. Louis Weiss & Co.
Babcock, Bernie. Justice to the Woman. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Balzac, Honoré de. The Chouans. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Bates, Arlo. Talks on Writing English. Second Series. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.30.
Bennett, C. E. Horace: Odes and Epodes. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.40.
Besant, Sir Walter. The Lady of Lynn. New ed. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Bloundelle-Burton, John. The Year One. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Boies, H. M. The Science of Penology. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Bourinot, J. G. A Manual of the Constitutional History of Canada. New ed. Toronto: The Copp, Clark Co.
Brooks, Amy. A Jolly Cat Tale. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Brown, Abbie F. The Lonesomest Doll. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 85 cents.
Browning, Robert. Saul. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 60 cents.
Bullock, S. F. Irish Pastorals. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.
Chefs d'Œuvres of the Exposition Universelle, Parts 14 and 15. Philadelphia: George Barrie & Son. $1 each.
Church, A. J. (1) Stories from Homer; (2) Stories from Virgil. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 60 cents each.
Crosby, J. S. Government. (Library of Liberal Classics.) Peter Eckler. 25 cents.
Dickinson, M. F. John Marshall. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Dodge, Mary Mapes. Hans Brinker. New ed. Scribners.
Emerson, Edwin. Poems. Denver: The Carson-Harper Co.
Fraser, Mrs. Hugh. Marna's Mutiny. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Genung, J. F. Stevenson's Attitude to Life. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 60 cents.
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Grey, J. G. Australasia, Old and New. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Hobbes, John Oliver. The Serious Wooing. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.25.
Hocking, J. "Lest We Forget." Chicago: Advance Publishing Co. $1.25.
Hollander, Bernard. The Mental Functions of the Brain. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Hood, Paxton. Christmas Evans: The Preacher of Wild Wales. American Tract Society. 75 cents.
Hope, Anthony. Tristram of Blent. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.
Jekyll, Gertrude. Wall and Water Gardens. (The "Country Life" Library.) Scribners. $3.75.
John, Alix. The Nighthawk. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.25.
Kaerss, Julius. Geschichte des Hellenistischen Zeitalters. Erster Band. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner. 12 marks.
Kirk, Ellen O. Our Lady Vanity. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Krauskopf, J. A Rabbi's Impressions of the Oberammergau Passion Pay. Philadelphia: Edward Stern & Co. $1.25.
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Mason, H. L. American Literature—A Laboratory Method. Philadelphia: Published by the Author.
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Murray, D. A. Atoms and Energies. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.25.
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Naoroji, Dadabhai. Poverty and Un-British Rule in India. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
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Somerville, Henry. Jack Racer. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.
Stanley, H. A. The Backwoodsman. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Steinmann, Ernst. Botticelli. (Monographs on Artists.) Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. $1.50.
Stoddard, Elizabeth. (1) Two Men; (2) Temple House; and (3) The Morgesons. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co.
Stone, J. M. The History of Mary I., Queen of England. London: Sands & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $4.
Sutcliffe, Halliwell. Mistress Barbara. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
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Van Dyke, J. C. The Desert. Scribners. $1.25.
Viller, Fredrik. The Black Tortoise. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 19, 1901.

The Week.

The prompt recovery on the Stock Exchange on Monday morning was hardly needed as evidence that the feeling of panicky apprehension which immediately followed the attack on President McKinley and the news that he could not survive, had no basis in sound judgment of the general situation. It was inevitable that an event which so profoundly shocked the entire civilized world should shake also the security and money markets. Part of the function of these markets, indeed, is to express in tangible shape, with matters of this sort, the sentiment of the hour. Precisely, therefore, as last Friday's excited drop in prices reflected the dismay with which the news from Buffalo was received, so the rise on Monday was in a way the voice of public confidence and reassurance. There was all along, in fact, as little warrant for the free-handed predictions of "money-market panic" as there would have been for predictions that the American people generally would break out into the lynching of anarchists, or into wild and senseless fright over the country's future. Its own problems the money market still has to meet, and it will meet them as they arise. But these are quite independent of such a collapse and recovery as have followed the incidents of the few past days.

The comments of the English press on Mr. Roosevelt's accession to the Presidency are generally complimentary and hopeful. The *Chronicle* alone thinks that he will out-Monroe the Monroe Doctrine in his interpretation of the policy which goes by that name, and adds that his attitude toward the Isthmian Canal question can be inferred accordingly. A safer augury as to his position on the canal question can perhaps be drawn from the few words which he pronounced when he took the oath of office almost at the bedside of the dead President. He said, with much solemnity:

> "I wish to state that it shall be my aim to continue absolutely unbroken the policy of President McKinley for the peace, the prosperity, and the honor of our beloved country."

This promise does not commit Mr. Roosevelt to a slavish imitation of his predecessor. It does not require him to find out in every instance and in minute detail what Mr. McKinley would have done, and then to do the same things; but it does commit him to Mr. McKinley's policy of honorable peace with other nations, so far as it has been made clear. In no other way has that policy been made so clear as in respect of the Isthmian Canal treaty. It was reduced to writing and sent to the Senate. After amendment by that body, it was referred to the British Government, and some of the amendments were objected to. Since that time there have been negotiations, which are likewise in writing but have not yet been made public. All that need be said now is that a conscientious adherence by President Roosevelt to the promise he made at Buffalo, will satisfy every patriotic desire as to the Isthmian Canal on this side of the water, and relieve all apprehensions on the other side.

The outline of the President's policy telegraphed from Buffalo is as encouraging for what it omits as for what it contains. There is not a line in it which "breathes short-winded accents of new broils." On the contrary, it contains the promise to "use all conciliatory methods of arbitration in all disputes with foreign nations, so as to avoid armed strife." The spirit of Jingoism is not only wanting from it, but is expressly cast out. This is the most admirable feature of the communication. Next to this assurance of peace (for it is certain that no nation is going to seek a quarrel with us) is the declaration of the trade policy which the new Administration will favor, namely, "a more liberal and extensive reciprocity in the purchase and sale of commodities," and the "abolition entirely of commercial war with other countries, and the adoption of reciprocity treaties." This is identical with the policy already adopted by President McKinley and advocated by him in his last public speech, as well as in many previous ones. Mr. Roosevelt has been a consistent Republican through all his political career, and has perhaps felt constrained at times to accept a protective policy more extreme than he would have liked. He has never been reckoned, however, as a high-tariff man. His language, on the other hand, respecting the merchant marine will perhaps be interpreted as favoring the Hanna-Payne ship-subsidy scheme. Yet it does not really commit him to any particular method of "encouraging" the merchant-marine. Neither the Republican platform of 1900 nor that of 1896 commits the party to any particular method of doing so. Most gratifying is the closing paragraph in the Buffalo declaration which promises "the placing in positions of trust men of only the highest integrity." This, we will not doubt, is the firm and honest purpose of the new President.

Senator Wellington of Maryland was expelled last week from a club in Baltimore of which he was a member, for some very unfeeling remarks about the attempted assassination of President McKinley, while the issue was still undecided. Those remarks, he says, were not intended for publication, but, having been published, he wishes it to be understood that they express his sentiments. The sentiments of his fellow club members are that they do not want his company any longer, and public sentiment concurs with them. Every club has its own rules and regulations concerning membership, resignation, and expulsion, and it is presumed that these rules have been followed in Wellington's case. If not, he has his remedy in the courts of law. As to the suggestion made by ex-Senator Chandler's paper, the Concord (N. H.) *Monitor*, that Mr. Wellington be expelled from the Senate of the United States for the same offence, the Constitution says that each house of Congress may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member. The matter of expulsion is left to the discretion of the Senate, for, although disorderly behavior is mentioned in connection with it, the power of expulsion is not restricted thereby. Evidently the framers of the Constitution intended to place no limitation on the power to expel except that a mere majority should not exercise it.

It is pretty certain that two-thirds of the Senate will not concur in expelling a member for words spoken outside of the Senate, not accompanied by any overt act. Jesse D. Bright, a Senator from Indiana, was expelled in 1862 for writing a letter to Jefferson Davis, whom he addressed as "President of the Confederation of States," introducing a man who desired to sell to the Confederate Government a new and improved fire-arm, this fact being mentioned in the letter. It was held that this was dangerously near to the crime of treason. it was certainly holding correspondence with a public enemy, and giving countenance to the assumption that Jefferson Davis was the head of an independent government; either of which acts was intolerable in a Senator of the United States. It was not contended that Bright intended to put an improved weapon into the hands of the Confederates, because he knew nothing about the particular weapon referred to, but the other offences embraced in the writing of the letter were too glaring to be condoned. Bright was accordingly expelled, and rightly so. This case, which the Concord *Monitor* cites as a precedent for the expulsion of Wellington, is entirely dissimilar. It has no more likeness to the

affair of the latter than the trial of Aaron Burr or the impeachment of Andrew Jackson would have.

Secretary Gage has very properly extended the time of the Treasury's offer to holders of Government bonds, and he may receive more tenders later. But the offer of barely one-third of the total amount asked for has confirmed the rather general financial view that bonds cannot easily be obtained for redemption purposes. The trouble is not that bonds available for sale do not exist; at least half of the public debt is in other hands than those of the national banks, and could hence, if its owners chose, be surrendered. But the inducement to sell does not exist. For one thing, the Treasury's public bid for bonds tends in a way to defeat its own purposes. On the open market, prices for the class of bonds most readily available moved up 2½ points within forty-eight hours after the Treasury circular was issued. This, of course, tends to make prospective sellers hesitate. The well-known fact, moreover, that capital released from Government bonds cannot easily at the present time find secure investment except on very exacting terms, removes another possible inducement. Therefore, we do not think the financial public will find it wise to rest in fancied assurance that bond-buying ends and settles the whole embarrassment. Some much more radical measures, in the way of permanent reform in the system of the Treasury, must soon be taken. In the meantime, however, there is this much of comfort in the existing situation: that really urgent needs, which would presumably be reflected in higher money rates and lower prices for securities in general, always go a good way towards removing automatically the obstacles in the way of more liberal offering of bonds to the Treasury.

One fact ought to be scrupulously insisted on, in all discussion of present complications between the Treasury and the money market. This is, that the duty of Congress, when it is able to act on the situation, is to reduce the surplus, not by increasing public expenditure, but by decreasing taxes. On the face of things, this would appear to be a self-evident conclusion. Unfortunately, it has not been so at numerous similar junctures in the past—notably in the period of 1886-1890, when an increase of $66,000,000 in the year's Federal receipts caused an increase of $65,000,000 in the annual pension appropriation, and nearly doubled the size of river and harbor bills. The consequences of that experiment in reducing a current surplus by forcing the Government to spend it, taught their own lesson, and taught it quite as effectively as in the earlier experiment of reducing a national surplus by giving it to the States. In 1894, as in 1837, the Government was almost on the verge of bankruptcy before its experiment was fairly under way. Only the indirect nature of the Federal Government's largest taxes, and hence the absence of an immediate pinch upon the taxpayer, has made such attempts to solve the problem possible. To appreciate fully their injustice and absurdity, it is necessary only to imagine a similar course of action in State or city finances—an eager search for new means of expenditure, with the avowed purpose of getting rid of the proceeds of too high taxation. When the private schemers and subsidy-hunters besiege the Capitol next December, as they will, with appeals for Congress to relieve them only in order to relieve the money market, it will be wise to remember that the taxpayer has some rights in the premises.

The Agricultural Department's figures of last week seem to show that the corn crop, taken as a whole, will be the smallest with two exceptions in twenty-five years; those exceptions being 1894 and 1881. The natural result has been a rise in the price of corn to a figure something like one-third higher than the price a year ago, and this in turn has already cut down exports of corn from this country, since the 1st of August, some fifteen million bushels. Our readers are, however, already familiar with the remarkable offset which the chances of nature have granted to this country through the wheat crop's great good fortune. It is true that the same Government report reduces to some extent its August estimate even on the yield of wheat. But, after making this allowance, the indicated crop will still be the largest with one exception in our history. This huge product has already been assured a ready market more quickly than ever before in a year of abundant harvest. Europe's crops have turned out as a whole deficient, Russia in particular failing to make good its earlier promise; and the Continent has been forced to buy wheat from America on an absolutely unexampled scale. Not only did last month's exports of wheat and flour surpass those of any previous August, but they have never been approached in the most active shipping period of the past. The increase during last month in wheat and flour exported has been greater by fully $8,000,000 than the decrease in corn, and the crowning fact of this singular harvest outcome is that the largest profit from the wheat trade's good fortune has been enjoyed by farmers in the very States where the corn crop failed.

The terms dictated on Saturday to Shaffer and his associates of the Amalgamated Association Board by the Steel Corporation, evidence an even more utter defeat than had been anticipated. Not only have nine mills been lost by the Amalgamated, but—most important of all—the annual conference between the employers and the union has been sacrificed. The present terms are to be of permanent validity, unless the Trust sees fit to terminate them by giving ninety days' notice of its intention. In losing the right to discuss the scale at the beginning of each year, the Amalgamated practically gives up all claims to recognition. So long as it retained this right, it fulfilled a definite economic function that was of considerable importance. By giving it up, the Amalgamated degenerates into a mere association of workingmen without official status. As such, its utility will be of doubtful value. At best a long time must elapse before it can recover the position which it has lost.

The action last week of a body of South Carolina mill presidents, in voting to ask for legislation on the subject of child labor, indicates appreciation of the needs of employees as unusual as gratifying. There is now very little factory legislation of any sort in the Southern States, and hardly any organization of labor. The rapid growth of manufacturing, however, is likely to produce a great transformation in this state of things, and it will probably not be long before a system of labor and factory legislation similar to that prevailing in the North will be introduced. In the present transitional stage a sympathetic attitude on the part of capitalists may result in giving a right direction to enactments and preventing unwise restrictions upon production. The South Carolina mill-owners will ask that the age of factory children be not less than ten and twelve years for day and night work respectively, and that a compulsory school law be passed. These ages seem early as compared with those prescribed by the legislation of New York, Massachusetts, and other Northern States. This restriction will, however, make a beginning, and further acts can follow when there has been time to readjust the conditions of production and the supply of labor.

In view of the testimony presented by Rear-Admiral Schley, his Court of Inquiry was eminently justified in sustaining his challenge of Rear-Admiral Howison. Even had the testimony against Rear-Admiral Howison's fitness been far less convincing, the Court would have been justified in asking him to retire. So momentous to the navy are the issues involved, that neither the Court nor the Navy Department should fail to do everything in its power to make it plain to the country that Rear-Admiral Schley is receiving the fairest possible

treatment at the hands of a perfectly open-minded court. The substitution of Rear-Admiral Francis M. Ramsay, on the other hand, can hardly be said to add much strength to the personnel of the Court. For ten years before his retirement, this officer saw no sea service, his last command being that of a cruiser in the early days of the new navy. It was generally expected that an officer would be chosen who, like Admirals Dewey, Benham, and Howison, had commanded a fleet, and was therefore in some degree familiar with the difficulties of a fleet or squadron commander. As a young officer, Rear-Admiral Ramsay saw, however, considerable active service during the civil war, having been for two years commander of an ironclad in the operations before Vicksburg and in the Red River, and also having figured as commander of the gunboat *Unadilla* during the attacks on Fort Fisher in 1864 and 1865, and the capture of Richmond. As head of the Bureau of Navigation for two terms, he came in contact with practically every officer in the navy, and has therefore a wide experience of men to aid him in the responsible duties before him. And it must be noted that Admiral Ramsay's name was on the list of those which Rear-Admiral Schley declared would be satisfactory to him.

That the supervision of the new Hall of Records should, after the death of the architect, John R. Thomas, be turned over to our "official" architects, Horgan & Slattery, is not so strange when it is remembered that the job is worth $100,000 as it stands, and can easily be made worth more. Mayor Van Wyck's action, too, in disregarding the claim of the deceased architect's estate in order to favor the Tammany candidates, was most characteristic of the man and of the "organization" in its present emergency. Take the chances of the law, is now the motto, from top to bottom. You can at worst only lose, and you may win. Horgan & Slattery, be it remembered, began life as architects about four years ago. They testified a year later, in view of a judicial order, that neither of them possessed any property, and, under cross-examination, it appeared also that neither of them possessed any architecture. They have learned their trade by finishing for the city such monuments as the new Tombs Prison. That they should now inherit a $6,000,000 contract, unless, indeed, the courts should think less slightingly than Mayor Van Wyck of the claims of Mr. Thomas's estate, is quite in line with their swift rise in the profession. How the decorators of the Democratic Club will distribute the $1,000,000 which is to be devoted to the ornamentation of the new Hall of Records, is a matter of curiosity rather than of hopeful anticipation. It would show a fine sense of the fitness of things if, mindful of their own origin, Horgan & Slattery should pick up two or three bankrupt "boys" who have decorated, say, prison cells, and put them in training for the position of "official artists."

It will doubtless surprise many persons to learn that Mayor Ashbridge of Philadelphia has discovered a waste of the city's money, and that he has promptly set out to verify his conclusion and to effect a cure. The fact is, however, that there are various kinds of waste, and the sort which Mayor Ashbridge has discovered is abhorrent to all good machine men, whether in Philadelphia or elsewhere. It seems that city salaries are being paid in Philadelphia to Republican municipal officeholders who are suspected of not controlling any votes. What sort of management has permitted an outrage like this, we are unable to imagine, but from the moment the horrid suspicion entered the Mayor's mind he has been determined and alert. As a result, it has been ordered that each Republican in the city's service must show that he controls at least ten votes. If not, the order, "Off with his head" will go forth as promptly as if it came from the Queen in 'Alice in Wonderland,' and more conclusively. Some of the city servants, especially in divisions where, owing to the Philadelphia system, almost every householder is a city servant, consider the order a hardship, but this is nothing to the Mayor. If city money is being paid out to men who do not control votes, it must be stopped, whoever suffers. The 3 per cent. assessment of all municipal employees for Republican machine campaign purposes, with the prospect of an additional 2 per cent. before the campaign is over, might be considered by some weak persons as mitigating the waste which the Mayor has discovered, but his is no such spiritless attitude. So the officeholders are carrying papers about in their neighborhoods seeking signatures. Mayor Ashbridge is nothing if not systematic. He demands the pledges in writing.

The extent of the harm done to the trade of foreign countries with China by the disturbances of the past year and a half clearly appears from the Chinese tariff report of which a summary appears in the current number of the *Monde Économique*. For the three chief ports the volume of trade has on the whole fallen off about one-half. More damage was probably done by the war to native firms than to foreigners who were conducting establishments in China, since the latter made a good traffic in supplying provisions, clothing and other things to the soldiery. The total tonnage entering the northern ports declined from 5,316,384 in 1899 to 3,538,607 in 1900, the loss falling rather unevenly. England suffered more than others, while Korean and American shipping in Chinese ports did not decline, but increased. Nevertheless, English vessels retained their former vast preponderance over others in the trade. One especially interesting development is the rise of the port of Kiao-Tchau, to which little importance has hitherto been attached by the European press. Its European trade has now risen from practically nothing to a very respectable figure.

A dispatch from London announces that a delegate of the British Trade-Union Congress will visit some Continental cities in order to ascertain where the funds of English trades-unions can be most safely invested in foreign securities. It was felt by the Congress that the recent decisions on trades-union responsibility, and the suits now pending for damages done to manufacturers by last year's strikes, have seriously jeopardized the resources of the unions. The course they propose in safeguarding their funds recalls the methods employed by American investors in evading State mortgage taxation. Taken in connection with the recent developments in the United States as to regard for union contracts, the outlook for enforcing responsibility upon the unions is not reassuring. The proposed incorporation of such bodies in the United States would do little good if they should try to evade the consequences of their acts as English unions are now doing.

Excellent evidence as to the general prosperity of the past year is furnished by the recent report of the Labor Department of the British Board of Trade. From this document it appears that during the year 1900 there has been a gross gain by British wage-earners of considerably over $1,000,000 per week for an aggregate of 1,135,786 persons. The annual addition to the income of the working classes is estimated at fully $30,000,000, and while the increase in pay has not been evenly distributed throughout all trades, there has been a very general upward tendency. The year 1900 comes as the climax of a five-year period of continuous increase in wages. Since the opening of 1901 a slight reaction seems to have set in, and for the first half of the current year there has been some decrease in rates of pay. This decline, however, seems to have been local, being probably due to a temporary stagnation in the iron and steel industries, which is now practically over. In the textile industries wages are now higher and employment more abundant than at any time during the past fifteen years. On the other hand, the past eighteen months have seen a gratifying decrease in the number of strikes and labor disputes. Vastly more has been done by conciliation boards than ever before. Comparatively little time has been lost in controversies, and only an insignificant proportion of the working population has been affected.

PRESIDENT M'KINLEY'S DEATH.

The rational hope with which we wrote last week of the President's condition was quickly falsified. On Friday the reaction set in, and on Saturday, in the early morning, he passed away pathetically, without a struggle. Already his successor is at the helm, and the ship of state is on its way to unknown ports.

It is not our purpose formally to review now or hereafter Mr. McKinley's career, in its three main divisions of soldier, lawyer, and politician. So far as he has been under our observation in the past quarter of a century, we have discharged our duty towards him as towards other public men. Our censure and our approbation alike had in view the practical end of all independent criticism, the moulding of public opinion in favor of certain ideals of citizenship and government. Those to which we have steadfastly held for more than a generation, posterity will judge along with the character of the late President himself. Lives of him are sure to be written, some catchpenny, some in good faith; all, probably, prematurely. We doubt if any Administration was ever marked by so much secretiveness as his, although the events directed by it were of transcendent and revolutionary importance. Years must elapse before even the inception of the Spanish war can be authoritatively worked out by the historian; and who could now intimately and with particularity narrate Major McKinley's rise to political prominence and office? Neither his friends nor his opponents should be in haste to compose his biography.

In his build, in the shape of his head and the cast of his countenance, Mr. McKinley recalled the generation of Cass and Webster, and in any gallery of statesmen of their day his portrait might hang without discordance. His mouth betokened the ready speaker, and his gift of speech was, indeed, nature's passport to distinction in a country where oratory has such a hold on the popular affection as it has in ours; but his imperfect education deprived his addresses of all grace or literary quality. The one collected volume of his speeches shares the unreadability which even the greatest orators seldom escape. His amiability, suavity, and impersonality in debate preserved him from making enemies, and these traits were of the utmost value at all stages of his political advancement. He had also, in the beginning, as aids to his ambition, his honorable service in the army and his choice of the legal profession. His protectionism was, clearly enough, a mere adoption of the views in which he was bred, for there is nothing in his utterances on the subject that will bear examination for originality or even logical consistency. He was born in the Ohio town of Niles, which, like that of the same name in Michigan, presumably commemorated the great Baltimore protectionist, editor of *Niles' Register*. From such a community an apostle might naturally proceed. He profited finally by the remarkable lead which his native State acquired in national affairs on the accession of Hayes, and he had neither training nor scruple to keep him from joining that disastrous silver movement which was denominated the "Ohio idea." He had no hand, either, in our deliverance, and his conversion to the gold standard was reached by considerations anything but economic. In times of doubt on which side to throw himself, he maintained as long as possible a religious silence. And whereas Lincoln, with whom he is now freely ranked, was ready to express himself in writing to individual inquirers as to his policy—often enigmatically, it is true, yet with apparent frankness and simplicity—Mr. McKinley never courted such opportunities. He chose to deal with his fellow-citizens in the mass. The accessibility which contributed so much to his popularity, he exhibited by preference on occasions when he could speak and not write, and when his presence substantiated the generalities which were his delight and refuge.

If President McKinley's rôle was opportunism, his successor's is strenuousness. This doctrine, long preached by Mr. Roosevelt, he was given the chance of his life to put in practice by the bringing on of the Spanish war; and his military prominence won him, by steps needless to enumerate, the place he now occupies. How far strenuousness may carry him, especially in foreign affairs, we shall not venture to predict. Visions of what is possible have mingled with the humane and sympathetic motives for desiring President McKinley's recovery. It would be idle at this time to retrace Mr. Roosevelt's career as a ground for apprehension. Erratic he may be pronounced, but while no one would think of applying that epithet to Mr. McKinley, his movements, too, were not always rectilinear; and Mr. Roosevelt's defections from civil-service-reform principles have been, if not more excusable, less signal than Mr. McKinley's. The Imperialism of both had a common aim, and though Roosevelt's has been that of action, McKinley's that of "destiny," it was under the latter's lead, none the less, that, in Goldwin Smith's pregnant phrase, we "burnt the Declaration." In other words, the "safe" President did not keep us from our present un-American pass. It remains to be seen if the "unsafe" will prevent us from ever emerging.

Those whom this problem interests cannot restrict themselves to studying Mr. Roosevelt's past alone. They must weigh the sobering circumstances under which he is suddenly exalted, the responsibilities of office, the force of public opinion, the check which the McKinley wing of the Republican party is sure to exercise, and that which we may expect from the Democratic opposition, no longer contending against the prestige of the twice victorious candidate. Mr. Arthur's example furnishes a cheering precedent, and it depends upon President Roosevelt himself to what extent the country will forget what has gone before in judging his conduct as Chief Magistrate, or remember it to his honor on seeing how much he surpasses it. A supreme act of courage would be to restore to the classified service those thousands of offices reconverted into spoils by President McKinley; but we cannot look for this, if at all, amid the funeral discourses of the present or the eulogies of the near future.

President Roosevelt's private reflections on the extraordinary cause of his elevation to power are easy to imagine. The same malign influence that helped prepare the situation of which Guiteau availed himself, forced Gov. Roosevelt, against his will—against his vehement pledge—to accept the Vice-Presidential nomination. Should the result, as some fear, prove a national misfortune, it must not be added to the sins of the miserable Czolgosz, who violently altered the natural course of events; it must rest on the shoulders of the New York Republican boss, the real king-maker, though in spite. The regicide anarchist against whom, the moment he strikes, every voice in the country is raised to denounce and every hand to crush, is but as the flea to our republican organism; Platt is the white ant who leaves us the form of our liberties, and eats the heart-wood out of them. The sincerest mourner for the murdered President cannot affirm that he was sensible of this corruption, or gave any support to those who are seeking to eradicate it. The sincerest admirer of President Roosevelt cannot justify an expectation that he will assume a different attitude towards it and towards reformers. Yet here, if anywhere, is a chance for strenuousness to outshine opportunism, and to lay the foundation of lasting civic renown.

THE EVOLUTION OF THE STRIKE.

Perhaps the most important question opened by the steel strike, now languishing to a close, is whether the organization of industry in the United States shall follow the English system or continue on its own lines. In England the whole history of unionism has been that of slow progress toward a state of things where individual unions, federated throughout a single industry, could be brought into contact with the employers of that industry, united in a trade association. This process has been carried almost to completion in coal-mining, where the trade organiza-

tion now includes nearly all the capitalists. Almost as much progress has been made in some of the textile industries. At the annual conferences between the representatives of capital and labor all the facts necessary to form a judgment as to the fairness of rates of wages are set forth, and the "scale" for the following year is fixed accordingly.

Quite a different condition of things has prevailed in the United States. Until the coming of Trusts, independent producers dealt with trade and labor conditions as best they could. For a long time even the unions themselves had no such central organization as in England. They were comparatively local and restricted in their scope. Wages and prices, instead of being the outcome of a yearly trade conference, were settled by ordinary competition between the employers and by bargains with the men. Gradually these conditions disappeared as labor-unions began to feel greater community of interest and to unite together in national associations. These associations had certain distinctly beneficial effects. They tended to make the conditions of employment uniform throughout the trade, and, when many different mill-owners were competing together, they helped to assure equality in the conditions of competition. This was particularly the case in the steel industry, where information concerning production was easily available, and where an extremely useful function was served by the Amalgamated Association as an agency in bargaining.

The whole face of affairs was changed by the increasing consolidation of business. It was inevitable that united capital should come face to face with a body which claimed the right to stand for united labor. The real question involved in the strike has therefore been whether or not the English system of collective bargaining should be adopted, and thus the Amalgamated Association be recognized as the arbiter not merely of men in "union" plants, but of all labor employed in the industry; or whether united capital now in control of nearly all the plants should retain the right to make individual bargains with groups of men who, for one reason or another, would not be ruled by the Amalgamated Association. That this question has an ethical aspect when viewed from the standpoint of individual freedom, cannot be denied. But it has also an economic significance of great moment. The cry for the official fixing of prices is paralleled by the cry for the universal and uniform fixing of wages by conferences between united labor and united capital. Consolidation of capital we now have. If the last vestiges of competition disappear by the recognition of a labor trust as rigid as that of capital, they must do so at the expense of the consumer and of the non-union laborer. Whether the English system of collective bargaining or the American competitive system, as now modified by the growth of combinations, is to prevail, must be settled in the last resort by a trial of strength in the markets of the world.

The evidence disclosed by the strike as to the strength of combined capital in bargaining, as compared with separate establishments, is noteworthy. Not only has unity of action been attained by the combination of executive control, but certain hitherto unknown advantages have been gained. Vastly greater mobility has been shown by capital than ever before, and the transfer of plants from places where men were well organized to points where the conditions were more controllable, has presented a difficulty to the trades-unions previously unknown. The increased knowledge of the situation and the ability to supply the market, in part at least, from such mills as could be kept in operation, have greatly strengthened the side of capital, while losses from a lessened output have been to some extent recouped by the higher prices thus secured. Again, unity of control has wholly done away with the dangers which ordinarily arise from mutual suspicion among the owners of competing plants.

On the whole, the strike has demonstrated an enormous increase in bargaining power on the part of capital. If this increase is to be met by a similar increase in the power of labor, it can be only by a reorganization of unionism. The narrow policy of restricting output and ruling out unskilled men must be abandoned. The organization must be made more inclusive and more generous, and thus greatly enlarge its membership, if it is to force the English system of collective bargaining upon the Trust. It cannot be recognized as representing labor unless it does so in fact as well as in theory.

A PROBLEM FOR TRUSTS.

The difficulties under which the English Sewing-Cotton Company is now laboring contrast strikingly with the high anticipations entertained not long ago, when the enterprise was launched with a great flourish, and they suggest the possibility of complete collapse. The original objects of the consolidation were to avoid competition and to economize production, and nearly all of the firms competing in this line of industry were absorbed. It had a capital of $15,000,000, and apparently enjoyed every prospect of success. Yet, after a very brief career, it now appears to be thoroughly rotten. A recent report shows that, after paying interest on debentures and preferred stock for the year ending March 31, 1901, there was practically nothing left in the way of earnings for division among the holders of common stock, and, in order to pay them the regular 7½ per cent. dividend, it was necessary to draw $250,000 from a reserve fund which had amounted to only $1,000,000 in the beginning. Nor do these figures state the full danger of the situation. During the year, a considerable sum had been realized from the sale of securities which were on hand at the outset, and money obtained from this source must, of course, be regarded as equivalent to a further reduction in the reserve.

If the present troubles were confined solely to the Sewing-Cotton Company, they might indicate nothing more than poor management—a danger to which every industry, whether a Trust or not, is subject. Their importance is found in the fact that they foreshadow similar developments in allied lines of work, and that the great trouble with all of them seems to lie in difficulties of organization. How general this trouble is may be readily understood from a table of relative values of the stocks of six large combinations, compiled by the London *Economist*, from which it appears that, with a total capital of $137,100,000, the six companies can show an estimated market value for their securities of only $113,525,000. That such a state of things must be a serious disappointment to those who put the combinations on the market in the beginning, is demonstrated by the former high quotations of the shares, nearly all of them having been at a premium at one time or another. The highest market values of the same stocks aggregated no less than $153,954,500, showing a difference between former estimates and present actual values of more than $40,000,000. It would seem clear that the difficulties of the English combines are the outcome of general conditions, although doubtless due, as we have intimated, in some degree to bad management.

Discussion of the textile situation in England has developed two very instructive facts. The combinations have been weakened by taking in a crowd of badly organized or unprofitable plants, and they have not succeeded in annihilating competition. On the first of these points unexpected evidence was afforded by Mr. Lawton, the Vice-Chairman of the English Sewing-Cotton Company, at a recent stockholders' meeting. He remarked that the combine had brought together "a number of businesses which were confessedly in serious difficulties," and he threw valuable light on the question of management when he said that "it was an awful mistake to put into control of the various businesses purchased by the company the men from whom the businesses were purchased, because these men had got into one groove and could not get out of it." Yet, notwithstanding the purchase of unprofitable plants in order to exclude competition, it is now complained that small

establishments, many of them new, are injuring the business of the combination. Perhaps an explanation of the inroads of small makers may be found in Mr. Lawton's explanation that men "who had got into one groove" have been left in control.

Granting, however, the existence of weakness in the executive control, it must be admitted that the competition of small dealers has not gone far enough to produce the serious decline in the company's shares. The really instructive feature of the situation is the disparity between earnings and capital—a disparity due beyond question to the excessive price paid for unprofitable plants at the outset. The company has been trying to pay dividends upon too large a capitalization, and the shrinkage in quotations indicates that the public has learned the facts. There is a lesson here for investors in American industrials. Nearly all of our Trusts have been organized on precisely the principle of the English combinations. The same weakness inheres in them, and it must have the same result—a struggle to pay dividends on an immense volume of stock after huge issues of bonds have been cared for, a gradual deterioration of plant, and ultimately, of course, a reorganization.

Valuable inferences as to the probable course of events may be drawn from the history of American railways. From 1873 to 1893, connecting links of road were in process of consolidation under one management, and companies were being formed with capitals calling for dividends far in excess of their earning power. In the effort to maintain dividends, road and equipment were allowed to deteriorate. The panic of 1893 and the subsequent years of depression forced the radical reorganization of a large number of roads, and the elimination of unprofitable business. In this process, many stockholders lost their holdings, or were required to make large payments in order to share the benefits of reorganization plans. Much the same experience may be confidently predicted for many of the present industrials. Where an era of competition has resulted in an excessive investment in fixed capital, much of which is of low competitive power, little can be gained by a mere combination of plants and an effort to pay dividends on the whole volume of stock. If prices are kept high enough to pay such dividends, the inevitable result is fresh competition from the outside. If dividends are paid without proper provision for betterments, the result is disaster. If no dividends are paid, there is dissatisfaction. The remedy in either case is found in reorganization, which means the elimination of fictitious values. The experience of the English sewing-cotton combination shows the natural course of events.

THE DUTCH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE CONGRESS.

NYMEGEN, August 31, 1901.

The beautiful city of Charlemagne, on the banks of the Waal, one of the branches of the much-split-up Rhine in its course through the Netherlands, has been for the past four days *en fête*, for it has entertained the Dutch Language and Literature Congress in its biennial session. The inhabitants realized that more than one thousand people from their own country and from Belgium would be their guests, and so they hung out flags and gave their houses and streets an extra scrubbing. The Government recognized the importance of this body of literary men for maintaining the purity of the Dutch language by sending to the meeting an official representative.

The congress met in three divisions: (1) Language and Literature; (2) History and Antiquities; (3) Music, the Drama, and Book-Trade; and, besides, held a general meeting each day. In these general meetings the most important papers were presented, and they proved so attractive that the hall provided by the Committee on Arrangements had to be exchanged for the largest auditorium in the city. While it would be interesting to give brief abstracts of the round dozen communications presented, it may perhaps be more profitable to state some of the impressions made upon one who has become somewhat familiar with the Dutch language, life, and institutions during five visits to the country. A fear was apparent that other languages may, because of the richness of their literature, crowd out the Dutch language; and a corresponding insistence that a strenuous effort should be made to increase the people's interest and pride in their language, and to stimulate the writing and publication of Dutch works. To this end were discussed the most attractive methods of presenting lessons in syntax, possible improvements in spelling, modifications in pronunciation, and the preparation of a comprehensive dictionary. Statistics were given regarding the publication and sale of Dutch books, from which it appeared that from Amsterdam alone $15,000 worth of Dutch works were sent annually to the United States; and various proposals were presented looking towards the popularizing of books by cheaper editions. In this connection, mention was made of the difficulties that confronted such an undertaking in a country of five millions of people, where the percentage of book-buyers is small because of the low average possessions. Perhaps when the new law regarding compulsory education shall have had time to indicate its beneficence, the number of book-readers may be enlarged.

The paper that aroused the greatest discussion was on the advisability of establishing courses of instruction in comparative literature. The proposer of this suggestion called attention to the impulse that had been given to the study of natural history by the adoption of the comparative method, and urged that similar processes were possible in the study of literature, and that thereby a greater interest in the native literature would be developed. The opposition was prompted by the well-defined yet seldom recognized characteristic of the Dutch—idealism. It was contended that the native literature possessed enough merit and attractiveness to warrant study in itself, by means of itself, and with no further end in view than itself. One speaker declared that it would be debased by the use of the scalpel and microscope process of study, and would be classed by students among the dead and soulless materials for investigation. This view was held by such a majority of the participants in the discussion that if comparative literature shall be taken up seriously in the Netherlands, it manifestly will not be because of the encouragement given by this Congress.

One of the entertainments provided by the local committee was a concert at which nothing but folk-songs were sung. Quite recently a collection of these songs was published, and their value in preserving an interest in the language was the subject of one of the best papers prepared for the Congress. Nearly three thousand people attended this concert, and while one might be tempted to ascribe this to the participation of three of the most famous soloists in the country, those of us who attended the social reunions held every night, and saw old and young, student and professor, sing from beginning to end song after song from the above collection, knew that inherent interest in these lays of the land held the great audience through forty numbers.

Closely related to this topic was the paper on the value of the lighter drama as a part of school exercise in arousing an interest in pure literature and correct forms of speech. The last-named desideratum is difficult to attain in this country, with its large floating population (literally speaking). It is known that more than fifteen thousand people live on boats in the Netherland waterways. On these boats many have been born, and here they grow up without attending school. They migrate like the storks, and carry between the north and the south their errors of speech and pronunciation. It is, therefore, necessary that special efforts should be made to preserve the language in its purity.

Only two historical communications were presented. Every one recognizes the importance of the study of history, and all appreciate the part that Holland played in shaping the destinies of more than one nation; but it was felt that this appreciation could not be rendered keener by extended discussion. It was urged in more than one informal meeting that interest in the Dutch language abroad, especially in the United States, could be most effectively awakened by a more extended study of the history and institutions of the Netherlands. This was recognized, and the present writer's publications on the social organizations of Holland were commended as assisting towards this end, while the remarks of Mr. L. C. van Noppen, the clever translator of Vondel's 'Lucifer,' were received in a way that showed how grateful Dutch scholars are for efforts that others are making to popularize their language and literature in foreign lands.

Dutch patriotism and fraternal affection stood revealed most clearly in the manner in which every person present greeted even the slightest reference to the Transvaal or Orange Free State. The telegrams of greeting sent out at the opening session included one to "Oom Paul"; the representative of the Orange Free State had a seat of honor at the final banquet, and President Steyn was toasted next to King Leopold. This was to be expected; nor was there cause for surprise when, in the midst

of some festivity, a collection for the Boer women and children was proposed. To the credit of all it should be said, that not a single unkind or vindictive word was uttered publicly regarding the past or present conduct of the English people or Government. The remark of Charles Boissevain, the scholarly editor of the *Handelsblad*, "South Africa is lost to England. Even should she banish all other governments she will never possess the people," was emphasized in every sentence of the communication on the condition of the Dutch language in South Africa, by Dr. Mansvelt, Superintendent of Public Instruction in the South African Republic; it found support in the brilliant speech of Dr. Muller, the diplomatic representative at The Hague of the Orange Free State; and the applause that followed every mention of the loyalty of the Boers to their Government proved that the audience believed that their language would dominate South Africa. Prior to the war there were state jealousies and many conflicting local interests, which would have increased with time, rather than lessened; but now it seems, from the Dutch point of view, that those elements have, in the fires of adversity, become fused in singleness of purpose. J. H. Gore.

CIVILIZATION AND BARBARISM IN LUZON.

Manila, July 24, 1901.

Curious contrasts are presented in our Oriental capital. After running the gauntlet of getting into the city at all, past the strict customs inspection, the quarantine, the baggage barges which unblushingly demand a dollar (gold) apiece for conveying impedimenta ashore, and the hundreds of craft in the Pasig River, all flying the stars and stripes, one finds himself in the midst of a transition picture. The old and the new, the ruts of ancient custom run over by the tearing wheels of American modernness, the moss of ages being rapidly effaced by the whitewash of to-day—side by side the double lives go on, both yet neither.

For a few days one looks only; taking in the superficial impression of it all, drawing no conclusions, making no deductions; driving happily on the Luneta at five o'clock as if to Manila born, where all the world may be seen for the two hours before dinner, listening to the military band, and enjoying cool evening breezes as they blow over the rippling bay straight from the gorgeous sunsets. A pretty and a tropical picture, this fine esplanade, where rows of palms have been planted to replace the grand old trees sacrificed by the Spaniards for the freer use of their guns during the war, and where, by careful sodding and cutting, a smooth lawn is already nearly evolved.

It is said that an attempt has been made to have the walls of the old city torn down, for what purpose does not appear—let us hope that it was not to make way for straight American streets and blocks; but a vigorous protest was heard, and the most picturesque feature of Manila still stands. While the present Commission is in power there is little danger that such a vandal proceeding can succeed, but the walls should be protected by legislation for all time. The moat, said to be dangerously unsanitary, is probably to be filled up, and a park will be laid out on its site; its clearing and preservation by inflowing tide-water is perhaps too much to expect.

The city is remarkably clean and its police force is one to be proud of. Its members are picked men, selected for especial qualifications from soldiers mustered out of volunteer regiments, and recommended by their officers. Tall, manly, handsome in their khaki uniform, and thickly distributed throughout the city, they manage the slow and irregular street traffic with enviable ease, preventing blockades, even when the unhurried water-buffalo is the cause, and making the narrow streets safe driving for ladies in their *calesas*. Not wholly slow, however, is progress through Manila thoroughfares, for one can become bruised more quickly in several varieties of the prevalent two-wheeled cart than in any other known method. The drivers, recklessly beating the small ponies, dash around corners, catching their wheels in street-railway tracks, plunging into depressions, rattling over cobblestones, until the helpless fare, aching in every joint, and clinging for safety to any projection of his prison that offers, is fain to protest in English of a vigorous character, however unintelligible. Unless one speaks Spanish or Tagalog the *cochero* is impregnable. One sighs for the smoothly rolling jinrikisha of China and Japan, or even for the much-maligned *gharrie* of Singapore. The problem of transportation in Manila is a serious one, perhaps partly to be solved by the projected electric railway.

American social life transferred to the tropics is a pleasant growth. To the graceful entertaining always carried on by army and navy officers and their families, are now added official festivities by the civil Government; and over the sober questions confronting our new colonial venture, of which all are conscious, is laid a lighter cover of dining and dancing, driving and sailing. American ladies here have not yet learned the lesson so thoroughly acquired by the English in India—that constant, even strong, exercise is an absolute necessity in hot climates, so that tennis courts and golf links, horseback riding and bowls, so integral a part of British life in the tropics, are yet in the future for Manila. Gov. Taft, strong, tactful, and genial, is giving, with Mrs. Taft, in his fine mansion in Malacañan, the former residence of the Spanish Governors, a series of receptions, where one may meet many of those now making island history—not only Americans, but leading Filipinos and their charmingly dressed wives. Sometimes a military band plays during these afternoons, while one strolls through the airy rooms or out on the tiled terrace overlooking the Pasig River; often the famous Filipino orchestra of seventy musicians may be heard there. Music is as natural as breathing to the Filipino.

In this first comprehensive, if superficial, glance over the more salient features of life here, the visitor will probably sail down the bay to the island of Corregidor, where the military hospital offers the most modern treatment for all physical ills, from medicine and instruments to trained nurses. At the entrance to the harbor of Manila, ships to and from Hong Kong pass through the northern channel, those from Singapore the southern; and from the old Spanish fort high above the buildings a magnificent view may be seen on all sides, while a constant breeze flutters the American flag mounted on its parapet and draws through the hospital wards below in refreshing coolness. Another launch-trip must be taken to the naval station at Cavité, where one passes the seven immortal wrecks left by our Admiral one famous May morning, now raising their rusty and twisted members above the gently rising tide. Here also, at the Yard, are curious contrasts. The sound of active hammers reveals many old Spanish craft being restored to American usefulness; Filipinos, Chinese, and our own countrymen working together amicably for this result. Capt. Hanford, the efficient commander of the station, has his office in the old Spanish building, with a pretty park shading its façade, and a statue of the doughty navigator second in command to Magellan, four hundred years ago, looking benignly down upon marvellous changes; while stenographers, telephones, typewriters have converted the sleepy old palace into a modern naval office for the most modern of nations. Just beyond is the beautiful wall, centuries old, in which are now stored shot and shell, while a broad terrace on top affords incomparable views across the harbor to Manila or out into the native town. Gateways, corners draped in vines, Spanish inscriptions, piles of cannon-balls—and American sentries pacing back and forth under the southern sun.

Education according to our methods, under the admirable organizing power of Mr. F. W. Atkinson, Commissioner of Education, is already well established. Only a week ago, six hundred additional teachers were dispatched from the States in the transport *Logan*. Where possible, Filipino teachers are employed; and when it becomes advisable to send an American woman into remote towns, two are always sent together, not only for mutual society, but that they may keep house comfortably. Filipino children are easily taught and are hungry for education. Results thus far are more than encouraging.

In our first visit at Manila we were especially favored in being able to see many members of one of the few still uncivilized tribes, the Negritos, true aborigines. Professor Worcester of the Commission is now beginning his seventh year in the islands. He has been in close touch with many native tribes, and they like and respect him, so that when he sent a messenger to the Negritos of Bataan province, that he and a few friends would like to cross the bay to Mariveles and call on them, if they would consent to come down out of their mountain retreat, they replied that when we arrived they would be there to greet us. Ordinarily reluctant to approach the seashore, they remembered his former presents and kindness, and their fears dispersed. When our launch reached the little wharf at Mariveles a singular spectacle appeared. Under the Spanish régime these wild tribes were never allowed to approach any village without a full costume of some kind. Remembering these unpleasant restrictions, about thirty members of the tribe appeared, arrayed in some peculiar combinations. Only about four feet four inches in height, the miniature procession was led by the chief, a tiny black man with fuzzy wool, an obsolete tall hat, a soiled white coat, under which a long shirt flapped down to his knees. He was followed by an array of clothes fearful and wonderful, covering, under protest, men,

women, and children, many with babies strapped on their hips. A capering little fellow danced about the moving line of dwarfs, back and forth, crouching on his heels, yet still moving with incredible rapidity, and beating meanwhile on a tom-tom. Rising to his feet now and then, he took waltz steps, once in a while reverting to a two-step; but for every mile the procession walked he must have covered at least six. All smiling and bowing to us, the troop advanced, the leader, with a familiarity born of old acquaintance, putting out his little black paw to Professor Worcester, who shook it in most approved fashion. Seeing how pleased the attention seemed to make the chief, I too shook hands with him, whereupon every man came up, some a little uncertainly, but all with friendly smiles, to go through the same unusual ceremony. Then, placing us in the centre of their procession, they formed an escort of honor, the tom-tom artist redoubled his speed, introduced new steps, and flashed like a black meteor from side to side, while interested Filipinos gazed from the doorways of their *nipa* shacks, in evident astonishment at the spectacle.

Through the native village, past a Spanish church built in 1729, over a river on one log, where *carabaos* stood luxuriously in water to their wide, flat horns, and along a hard sand beach, we finally turned off into the woods, up a small valley, and along a swift stream. Here the trail grew very narrow and slippery with recent rains, and we could by no means keep up with our expeditious little guide, who pushed ahead with unabated enthusiasm. Slipping into bogs, stumbling over roots, hit by wet branches on either side, we scrambled on, and finally emerged at a flat and open space in the dense undergrowth, shaded by one or two pine trees, where the main body of Negritos had assembled, coming down thus far to meet us from their mountain habitat. Of this particular tribe or family of Negritos there are only about one hundred and twenty-five, utterly barbarian, but not cruel or bloodthirsty. Altogether there may be twenty-five thousand, other sections of the race living in the province of Zambeles, and in Cagayan and Isabela on the Pacific Coast of Luzon, as well as in the south at Tayabas. They are found also in the islands of Negros, Mindanao, and Panay, but, like many aboriginal races, are gradually dying out.

On reaching their little clearing, those who had ventured down to proximity with civilization first made themselves comfortable by removing all the superfluous clothing they had donned in our honor; but the three proud possessors of hats retained those evidences of a superior culture. Habited once more in their happy brown skin, they began the famous circle dance, one of their distinctive ceremonies, which has worn many a round pathway in the forest. Each man holding to the waistband of the one in front, the tom-tom beating a vigorous tattoo, they stamped in time, swaying their heads and bodies in unison, while of two women standing in the centre, one old and wrinkled hag seemed to have charge of most things, and screamed directions and orders in violent tones. A woman or two joined the circle later, babies strapped on their hips, poor little black mites who wrinkled their noses and closed their eyes when the drum came too near. And all, men and women, and babies as well, were smoking long brown cigars. Round and round they went at increasing speed, stamping and humming a weird chant, while the gong-beater squirmed on the ground in amazing contortions, grovelling, dancing, capering like a wild man.

Under a large tree near by had been erected a high platform of sticks, with a steep inclined plane leading up to it. This was to play an important part in the wedding which had been arranged to occur that day, that we might be guests. The little men soon began active preparations for this interesting but often superfluous ceremony. With their long arms and protruding chins they seemed like friendly imps of the forest, half man, half animal. Back in woodland depths the bride was hidden, her family soon filing off in search of her. Then came the thrilling moment when the bridegroom, too, might begin his search, and he bounded off in high spirits. All too soon the coy maiden was discovered, and the tedious process of dragging her into camp began, an old woman and a sturdy little man urging her forward with strong arms. Her head modestly covered by a piece of cotton, and crouched upon her heels, the gong-player executing a marvellous series of steps and sounds around her, she advanced a few feet at a time, the bridegroom preceding, and coaxing her forward with various presents thrown in her pathway from time to time. Thus enticed, she crept forward, picking up her presents, and reaching us at last, when her attendants began to dress her in garments presented by the future husband.

Meantime the circle dance had broken up, its performers making two long lines, with the end couple joining hands high above their heads, all the others having provided themselves with sticks and whips. One man then rushed to the little bride, and, catching her in his arms, ran through the lines, under the raised hands, and, with his long start, managed to convey her, though with evident effort, up the inclined plane to the little platform, where he deposited her securely if somewhat suddenly. Thereupon the bridegroom, elaborately dressed in a white head handkerchief, came running to the waiting lines and between them, each man giving him a stinging blow with his stick; but he quickly passed the ordeal, dashed under the joined hands, ran lightly up the incline, and reached the side of his bride. Here they both crouched upon their heels, while she affectionately took his arm, and there they remained for fifteen minutes, the gong sounding deafeningly all this time. When they descended, the ceremony was essentially over, but during the day other characteristic performances occurred. "Making fire" from bamboo sticks was a curious but certain effort, smoke rising in fifty seconds of rubbing.

Most of these people were decorated with vines of a conventional pattern in raised ridges of flesh. And upon being asked if no one was to receive additional ornament that day, they cheerfully replied that one woman would very gladly have another long pattern upon her back, whereupon, smiling amiably, she stooped down before us that we might watch the process. It appeared a questionable privilege while the old woman, artist of the tribe, split her bamboo into sharp edges, and prepared her tortures. But a dreadful fascination prevented one movement from escaping the spectators. Picking up a fold of flesh, the old crone deftly drew her sharp bamboo diagonally across, the surprised flesh showing white under the black skin for an instant, while another and yet another slash followed in quick succession, forty in all, from shoulder to waistline, the victim meantime chatting gayly with her friends, laughing and smoking a huge cigar. Was it stolidity or bravado, or do these people possess few nerves of sensation? With the blood running down in streams, dyeing her black back a sombre scarlet, this highly decorated lady joined the circle dance, stamping and singing with the rest.

It was a unique experience, this visiting the Negritos in their native wilds, and the traveller might haunt the region of Mariveles for months without ever seeing one. Their personal confidence in Professor Worcester alone enabled us to approach them, with him. In a similar though less advanced state of development than the Ainus of Yezo, their characteristics are as interesting, and their number is scarcely greater.

In our trip with Gen. Corbin, on his official tour of investigation around the islands, we shall have an opportunity of seeing the Mohammedan Moros of the South.

MABEL LOOMIS TODD.

Correspondence.

CONFEREES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The word *conferees*, which at this season of New York politics is much in use, is rather curious to the linguistic student. The passive termination *-ee* is correlative, and a word so formed does not exist independently, but as partner and complement of a word from the same stem used in the active sense, usually with the suffix *-er* or *-or*, as employer, employee; assignor, assignee; *cestui que trust*, trustee. But *conferrer*, which once existed in the sense of a member of a conference or a body of persons who confer, has had its place taken, strange to say, by *conferee*. Then why not *conferrer*, why *conferee?* May not this be the explanation, that conferee is not passive, but reciprocal? The verb is not confer, but confer with, and conferees are persons who confer with one another. In that case, the word, strictly, would be used only in the plural, but for symmetry's sake the singular has been formed, so that conferee does not mean one who is conferred with, is not the correlative of conferrer, but means one of a number who confer with one another.

In reciprocal relations each party is active and passive at the same time, so that this reciprocal meaning might have been committed to conferrer as well as to conferee, but it seems more natural for a passive form to bear the reciprocal meaning. The reflexive verb, in which, too, the same person is at once subject and object, is frequently interchangeable in meaning with the passive. In French and German, and still more in Italian, an active verb attended by a reflexive pronoun is constantly used where we, in English, should employ the passive. In Latin, also, we see the same intimacy between reflexive and passive. The Latin passive is believed to have grown out of an ancient middle voice (an independent

form having reflexive meaning); at any rate, many verbs of passive form make better sense when understood as reflexive in idea. In fine, "conferees" seems to be reciprocal and not passive, and thus a correct formation. If the meaning were passive, it would be a blunder for conferrer.

If so, this is only another instance of unconscious action in language, or, rather, the slight depth to which consciousness penetrates. Although high-minded teachers tell their pupils that, if they cannot define a word, it is a proof they do not know its meaning, nevertheless it is the fact that thousands of people use hundreds of words correctly, and yet could not give an account of them without long and hard thinking. It is really like walking and running. What is the nature of each, and what is the difference of both? We are conscious of movements, but what are they? What are the component parts of these complexes of movements? Few of us could say off-hand.

A. D. SAVAGE.

NEW YORK, September 13, 1901.

A TENNYSONIAN ALLUSION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Tennyson's poem "Columbus" we have the lines:

"and besides
The great Augustine wrote that none could breathe
Within the zone of heat; so might there be
Two Adams, two mankinds, and that was clean
Against God's word."

Can any of your readers point out the passage to which the poet alludes?

Yours truly, W. P. M.

UXBRIDGE, ONT., September 12, 1901.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. are on the point of publishing 'The Private Life of the Sultan,' by George Dorys; 'General McClellan,' by Gen. Peter S. Michie; and 'Dragons of the Air,' an account of extinct flying reptiles, by Prof. H. G. Seeley.

Thomas B. Mosher, Portland, Me., will include in his "Old World Series of reprints" 'The Poems of Edgar Allan Poe,' with an essay on his poetry by Andrew Lang, and 'From the Hills of Dream,' mountain songs and island runes by Fiona Macleod. He will also publish Edward FitzGerald's 'Polonius: A Collection of Wise Saws and Modern Instances,' from a copy with marginal annotations by the author; these will be reproduced along with the text. All the above editions are limited.

Charles Scribner's Sons will soon issue 'The Education of the American Citizen,' by President Hadley of Yale; 'A Day with a Tramp, and Other Days,' by Prof. Walter A. Wyckoff; and 'All the Russias,' by Henry Norman.

In preparation by Thomas Whittaker is the 'American Church Dictionary and Encyclopædia,' by the Rev. W. J. Miller.

'Where the Sugar Maple Grows,' sketches of Canada, by Adeline M. Teskey, is in the press of R. F. Fenno & Co.

Francis Gerard's 'Wagner at Bayreuth, and the Festival Plays,' is all but ready to appear with the imprint of E. P. Dutton & Co.

The new issue of 'Who's Who in America' (Chicago: A. N. Marquis & Co.) confirms our inference from the first that this eminently useful dictionary is in good hands. Though death and sundry arbitrary determinations have caused the dropping out of 752 names, a more generous inclusion has swollen the total to 11,551, as contrasted with the 8,602 of 1899. Authorship has had much to do with this increase, and the editor justly claims to have compiled the completest list extant of living American writers and their (dated) works, the publishers of which, by the way, are indicated by a very simple and ingenious symbol. The overhauling has been most thorough, and a new and valuable feature of the revision is the record of parentage. Many women still fight shy of revealing their age. The color line is honorably disregarded in this gathering of the talents. The new necrology contains some names not in the former edition, and, of course, deaths have occurred while the present volume was passing into print or circulation—*e. g.*, Miss Garland, John Fiske, Gen. Ludlow. A few slips and errors we have detected, and some want of uniformity, but these are of no moment. The typography is remarkably accurate. Subjects born in New York number 2,066, in Massachusetts 1,130, in Pennsylvania 1,020, in Ohio 806—a cool 5,000, or nearly one-half the total, which embraces some persons of foreign birth identified with this country.

Sir J. G. Bourinot's 'Manual of the Constitutional History of Canada' (Toronto: Copp, Clark Company) is a revision and extension of a work bearing the same title published in 1888, and itself a making-over of certain parts of the same author's 'Parliamentary Procedure in Canada.' The 16mo. of 238 pages has now become an octavo of a few more pages, and is brought down to the end of the past century. The chapters have been recast into sections, without much alteration till the Constitution of Parliament is reached, when extensive omissions are observable, including the table of franchise under the superseded Dominion act of 1885. Wholly new is a third and valuable chapter, "General Observations on the Practical Operation of Parliamentary Government in Canada," and the appendix is enlarged by the text of the act respecting the representation in Parliament of Territories temporarily part of the Dominion of Canada, but not included in any province.

Thirty-five years have elapsed since we praised on its first appearance Mrs. Mary Mapes Dodge's charming Dutch story for the young, 'Hans Brinker; or the Silver Skates.' From edition to edition it was more adorned, at last with excellent illustrations; and now its most perfect form has been brought out anew by Messrs. Scribner at a lowered price. The public demand for the story has been remarkably sustained, and no doubt this happy invention will some day celebrate its half-century.

A new edition of M. Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu's 'Les Nouvelles Sociétés Anglo-Saxonnes' (Paris: Armand Colin) treats of the recent tendencies and changes in Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa, in a very instructive manner. The policy of England towards the Boers is reviewed dispassionately, but with severe condemnation. The Socialism now established in Australia is critically examined, and the decline of the prosperity of the colonies is traced to the oppressiveness of Government. M. Leroy-Beaulieu has followed the course of events in Australasia with care, and his book, as now revised, is a useful manual.

A series of hand-books of practical gardening is announced by John Lane, the first volume being 'The Book of Asparagus,' by Charles Ilott, with sections on celery, salsify, scorzonera, and sea-kale. Chapters on the history, decorative uses, and cookery of these vegetables are added by the editor, Harry Roberts. Although the practical suggestions of the author are addressed to English gardeners, some of them are of interest to Americans, and the book itself is of a form attractive to amateurs.

Messrs. Sampson Low, Marston & Co. send us the first number of the *Connoisseur*, a magazine for collectors. This new monthly, says the introduction, "will include in its scope anything that any reasonable person collects—not only furniture, porcelain, pottery, prints, books, manuscripts, fiddles, and old silver, but also coins and medals, autographs, posters, and even stamps." The first number keeps this promise well, describing "The Picture Collection of Sir Charles Tennant," and—under the rubrics "Silver Coins, etc.," "Engravings," "Old Furniture," and "Old Books"—offering reproductions of rare examples in private hands, or notes on sales and prices. Even old lace, gems, and South African war-stamps are the subject of brief articles, while a facsimile of a page of the rare "San Graal" MS. sold recently at the Ashburnham sale is a welcome feature. A department "In the Sale Room" takes cognizance of English sales only. The letter-press and the quality of the reproductions are not extraordinary, while such typographical errors as "Marcet" for Manet indicate a lax editorial supervision. At the price of a shilling a number, however, the *Connoisseur* is good value, and will no doubt commend itself to American collectors.

The *New England Magazine* has had a place apart, and if its scope was broader than the import of its title, its quality was still raciness, and it had given no signs of exhaustion in a restricted field. New Englanders, therefore, may regret its transfer from Boston to New York, and such transformation in its appearance as throws down the glove to the three chief illustrated magazines of this metropolis. But we chronicle the fact as in duty bound.

Were the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for September competing with the politico-literary quarterlies, it would achieve distinction by its first two papers—one, Mr. Wayne MacVeagh's admirable Phi Beta Kappa address in June; the other, Professor Royce's analysis of John Fiske as a thinker. The manner of this last is as remarkable as its matter. A portrait of the lamented historian accompanies this article and the Editor's account of Mr. Fiske's career. Other illustrations are of Harvard's new gates and Stillman Infirmary. The whole number possesses decided interest. A novel feature is a list of "lost men" among the graduates—that is, of men with whom the class secretaries utterly fail to keep in touch, and whose whereabouts or end it is desired to ascertain. One member of the class of 1833 is in the vocative, and then the search is suspended till 1864. No fewer than twenty-one of so recent a class as 1895 are "wanted." But many of these were temporary members.

The initial number of the Transactions of the Korea Branch of the Royal Asiatic

Society comes to us from Seoul. The Society was instituted June 11, 1900, and its first volume is issued with commendable promptness. Besides constitution, list of members, minutes of meetings, etc., there are three articles rich in just the sort of illuminating information which the student of Korean life and history desires to possess. The Rev. J. S. Gale, already known by his grammar and lexicon, writes upon "The Influence of China upon Korea." Of this he dates the beginning in 1122 B.C., with the incoming of Ki-ja, the founder of social order in the little kingdom; hence a stream of influences during three thousand years. This paper shows that "Korea is Little China," as even pro-Chinese natives say. Even in his general deportment, the Korean gentleman follows the "nine forms" of Confucius—the Stately walk, Humble hand, Straight eye, Circumspect [*sic*] mouth, Low voice, Erect head, Dignified manner, Respectful poise, Serene countenance. The other side of the shield is shown in the paper on "Korean Survivals," by Prof. H. B. Hulbert, who declares that, so far from Korean life being a replica of that in China, "the points of similarity with the Chinese are the exception, and that the survivals of things purely native and indigenous are the rule." Both papers show acute observation and deep learning, and are fortified with many concrete examples. The Rev. George Heber Jones translates the inscriptions on the tablets before the Buddhist colossus at Eun-jin. From personal visitation he describes this image, fifty feet high and cut out of native rock. It required thirty-seven years to finish the work, which commemorates the landing near by of the first missionary of the India faith, over seventeen centuries ago. An excellent summary of the superstitions and local legends concerning the image is also given, showing how similarly in all parts of the world the human mind works. In times of calamity the image sweats and the brilliant colors fade from the lotos flower carried in the Buddha's hand. The Rev. James S. Gale, Seoul, is Honorary Secretary of the Society. The cost of each volume of the Transactions is three yen ($1.50), and the New York agent is G. E. Stechert.

The number of languages or distinct dialects of the world, according to the British and Foreign Bible Society's last Report, is about 2,000. Into 373 the whole Bible or portions have been translated, and the number of copies issued by the Society last year exceeded five million.

Among the recent vacation schools, not the least interesting was that held at Bloemfontein under the direction of the Educational Department of the Orange River Colony. Seventy-five teachers were present from various parts of the colony, and passed a pleasant and profitable fortnight in attending courses of lectures; the amusements furnished being tennis, "at homes," concerts, the theatre, and a reception at Government House. At the latter an address was made by the Lieutenant-Governor, pointing out the lines on which public education would be conducted. To meet the great difficulty of reaching the children on the isolated farms, who have no opportunity of attending the regular schools to be established in every village, it is proposed to adopt a system of travelling teachers, who will visit these farms twice a week. The English language will be the chief medium of education, but the religious instruction of Dutch children will be given in their own tongue, unless the parents elect otherwise. There are many native schools, but the education of the native is a vexed question. The course open to the least objection seems to be to provide him with a practical technical education fitting him for certain trades.

The New Jersey State Geological Survey has issued from its office at Trenton two more sheets of its revised contour atlas, on a scale of 2,000 feet to the inch. These are the contiguous Navesink and Long Branch sheets. They are procurable at the same price (twenty-five cents each) as the sheets of the original atlas on a scale of one inch to the mile, and will appeal to a peculiarly wide circle of summer seashore visitors and residents.

—We noted lately that the New York Public Library now possesses four sets of the autographs of all signers of the Declaration of Independence. Apropos of this, a correspondent writes:

"Of the twenty-two files which are known to be perfect, one is in England and one west of the Alleghanies. Eight of the remaining twenty are in New York, five in Pennsylvania, four in New England, two in Georgia, and one in Maryland. The heart's desire of collectors is for autograph signatures written on autograph letters; but this consummation has not been vouchsafed to any one of them, for no letter in the handwriting of Gwinnett has ever been detected, and the single letter written and signed by Lynch is a lone star that hath no fellow in the firmament. Autograph public documents with signatures have been sought with more success, and their value is next to that of letters, while signatures on documents not written by the signers form a third class. The only Western full file of Declaration signers was the fruit of twenty-five years' watching and waiting by the State Historical Society of Wisconsin, and is kept in the safety vault of its fireproof library, built largely for safeguarding this and other treasures which cannot be duplicated. Measured by the standard above mentioned, this set is outranked by only five others. Its signed autograph letters are fifty. The numbers in its five superiors are: Emmet fifty-four, Gratz fifty-three, Dreer fifty-three, Leffingwell fifty-one, and Fogg fifty. It may be classed below the Fogg collection (which has no more letters) partly owing to the character of the letters, and partly because it has no letters not autograph but signed, of which the Fogg has two."

—Sir Michael Foster of the University of Cambridge last autumn delivered before the Cooper Medical College in San Francisco ten "Lane" lectures upon the 'History of Physiology' in the 16th, 17th, and 18th centuries, which now have the deserved distinction of publication as one of the Cambridge Natural Science Manuals (New York: The Macmillan Co.). Like all true history, the book is interesting in showing the development of a science which four hundred years ago did not exist. The "practical" man cares little about the steps leading to a conclusion, if he is sure that the result may be depended upon. And such may be the attitude of the busy practitioner worn with his daily work. Fortunately, the student not too much drawn from his books to the bedside is led to consider the ways, sometimes tortuous and sometimes leading into *culs de sac*, that his predecessors trod; and when it appears that men of other callings contributed their incidental labor, the review is the more fascinating. Servetus, the theological martyr, was a zealous anatomist, and indirectly a physiologist, seeking to know the spirit of God through what he hoped to learn of the spirit of man. Descartes, mathematician and philosopher, wrote a treatise on physiology. Von Hohenheim, better known as Paracelsus, stood where the road forked between alchemy and chemistry, and as a pharmacologist influenced physiology. Steno passed from anatomy into the Roman hierarchy, Réaumur, educated for the bar, a student of many sciences, wrote upon digestion. And these men and others like them are necessarily coupled with Vesalius, Harvey, Malpighi, Leuwenhoek and the other discoverers of the methods of physical life. Professor Foster has brought together many of these makers of history, and, in describing their services to science, has made a valuable and attractive work. It occasionally happens that, in his interest in the subject, he loses sight of the clear construction of his sentences, but there is little else to cavil at.

—W. Fletcher Moss, the author of 'Pilgrimages in Cheshire and Shropshire,' performs the functions of publisher also, issuing the volume from his home, the Old Parsonage, Didsbury, and from his town office in the Spread Eagle Hotel, Hanging Ditch, Manchester. There is nothing amateurish about the printing, which is executed at the Ballantyne Press, or about the illustrations, the reproduction of which, we are told, cost more than the price of the book. These pictures—sixty-eight full-page and sixty-seven inserted in the text—constitute the most interesting result of Mr. Moss's investigations. Ancient churches, abbeys, inns, halls, bridges, monuments, and country roads are represented in a series of delightful photographs. The region here depicted, which was explored by Mr. Moss and a friend on bicycles, well deserves such ample record, for it is full of memorials of mediæval history as well as of attractive natural scenery. The letterpress, which is compiled in a very gossiping style, is scarcely of as high merit as the illustrations; even the author's witticisms on the stone effigies in the churches and on other subjects provoking mirth in men of taste, are not likely to be a permanent joy. There is a notable lack of sparkle in the sentences in which he institutes a comparison between aerated waters and a passage in the book of Job. His Biblical lore, in spite of this recondite allusion, is not very exact, as he refers to Esau's bartering his birthright for "porridge." Still, in view of his having provided us with so charming an album of pictures, we can even forgive him his fling at our own national imperfections. "Americans," he says, "may boast of their cities which are only ten years old and have ten thousand inhabitants; I prefer those which are ten thousand years old, with only ten inhabitants."

—The August number of the *National Geographic Magazine* contains a brief notice, by Mr. Robert Muldrow, of measurements made by him of Mount McKinley (found on the older maps under the Russian name of Bulshaia, "big" mountain), in Alaska, which would tend to make that mountain the culminating point of the North American continent. The results of these measurements, carried out by angles taken from points removed from 44 to 89 miles from the summit, give an absolute elevation of 20,464 feet, or about 2,600 feet less than that of Aconcagua, in Argen-

tina, reputed to-day to be the monarch of the Western Hemisphere. Since the publication by Professor Heilprin, in 1890, of his barometric observations in Mexico, and the determination, since confirmed by an official Mexican survey, that in the peak of Orizaba (18,250 feet), our sister republic has a mountain that overtops the famous Popocatepetl by 700 feet or more, it has been a mooted point with American geographers as to which peak constituted the true continental *tour de cime*. Mount St. Elias, which has been credited with an elevation, as determined by officers of the United States Coast Survey, of 19,000 to 20,000 feet, fell, on closer study, to about 18,026 feet, and it may now be assumed that the closely corresponding measurements of Prof. Israel Russell and Prince Luigi Amadeo of Savoy are accurate within a narrow margin. The deposition of this mountain to a second place among the American giants was followed almost immediately by the discovery, "browsing about among logarithms," of a new claimant to honors, the now famous Mount Logan, a mountain standing on Canadian territory, about 23 miles in a direct line from St. Elias. Its office-determined height is 19,500 feet. It is interesting to note that the surveyors of Prince Luigi's party are skeptical as to this figure; and their levels from the summit of St. Elias, as we are informed in the official report of the expedition by Dr. Filippo de Filippi, failed to establish the superiority of Mount Logan. It may almost positively be assumed, therefore, that, so far as these two mountains are concerned, they take rank after the Mexican volcano. One could readily wish, in the case of Mount McKinley, that positions of nearer measurement might have been attained than was found possible at the time of the Muldrow survey, for, even from the nearest point of angulation—which, singularly enough, gave the most divergent result from the mean that has been adopted—an error of considerable magnitude, due to the "looming" of the summit snows, if to no other cause, might readily have found its way into the calculation. What lends some suspicion to the measurement is the statement that the mountain descends 20,000 feet in a horizontal distance of 30 miles—a condition which, we believe, is not even approximated by any other mountain on the globe.

—Few authors have had such a tragic fate as Hieronymus Lorm, the Austrian novelist, poet, and philosopher, who celebrated his eightieth birthday on August 9. His name originally was Heinrich Landesmann; he changed it in order to save his relatives from annoyance after he began his criticisms of Metternich, which made it advisable for him to leave Vienna and take up his abode in Berlin. His misfortunes began in childhood. He was so delicate that it was not supposed he would live many years. At thirteen he was paralyzed for a time, and although the baths of Teplitz cured this affliction, his general state of health remained poor. At sixteen he became entirely deaf. This was a terrible blow to him, the more so as he was passionately fond of music and had already acquired great proficiency on the pianoforte, to which he would probably have devoted himself professionally. His sight also was poor, and twenty years ago he lost it entirely. Too active mentally to be satisfied with such books as have been printed for the blind in raised letters, he invented an ingenious device which has enabled his daughter ever since to keep him abreast of the latest literary and political news. Every letter of the alphabet has its place in his hand, the first joints of the fingers being reserved for the five vowels. A stroke across the hand means *l*, a circle *s*, a cross *ch*, and so on. Thus he is enabled to converse on current topics, and his friends declare that his talk is still as remarkable for its wit and good sense as his personal appearance is for its vigor, his beard being still dark. Of his wit Mirza Schaffy (Friedrich Bodenstedt) has preserved an amusing specimen. One day Lorm called on him, but found him asleep on the sofa. Taking a sheet of paper and a pencil, he dashed off this quatrain:

AN MIRZA SCHAFFY.

Im Schlafe noch voll Geist,
Voll Weisheit noch im Träumen,
Da Du im Schlafe zu versäumen
Die lästigsten Besuche weisst.

—Goethe-worship has reached a climax in Germany, and it is difficult to take up a newspaper without finding in its feuilleton some reference to the poet. It therefore required some courage on the part of Leopold Ziegler to pen an article like that on "Goethe und der Typus des Germanischen Genius" which appeared in No. 180 of the Munich *Allegemeine Zeitung*, the Supplement of which is perhaps the principal literary organ in Germany. The editor, too, appears to have felt that he was doing a bold thing in printing this article, for he practically apologizes for it in a footnote and admits that it will "arouse passionate opposition." What seems to have aroused the opposition of Herr Ziegler is the keynote of the Goethe festivities two years ago, that this poet is destined to be the teacher and educator of coming generations. "Too long," he says, "the admiration which has been bestowed on Goethe, the poet, has been transferred to his whole mental activity, the result being a ludicrous overrating of his cosmic ideas (*Weltanschauung*) in general." He denies that Goethe is the typical German genius in the sense in which Æschylus is among the Greeks, Dante among the Italians, Shakspere in England; and expresses his surprise that a nation which has for its greatest tragedians such men as Schiller and Richard Wagner should look on Goethe as its leading poet. The Goethe-worship began only about the middle of the last century. Before that, during the metaphysical period, Schiller was supreme. Herr Ziegler discusses the causes which led to the change, and concludes that the Goethe craze will eventually subside. His novels, indeed, are already not admired honestly, but only under pressure of public opinion. His plays, with the exception of "Goetz von Berlichingen" and "Faust," are products of talent, not of genius; and it is only in "Hermann und Dorothea" and his lyrics that he is not overrated. In these lyrics, Herr Ziegler admits also, Goethe is at one with his nation, and its spokesman. But a genuine representative and complete mirror of its characteristics the German nation has not had, he concludes, since Luther.

"AMERINDS" AND OTHERS.

Better printed, better written, and better digested than the sad majority of popular works upon the Indian, Mr. F. S. Dellenbaugh's personable volume of 'The North Americans of Yesterday' (Putnam) is further distinguished by having a central idea and by following it forth with more than a little clarity and consistency. Its temper is equitable, its major contentions are sane, its medium is agreeable and adequate. In sixteen chapters, covering nearly 500 pages, Mr. Dellenbaugh reckons with language, picture-writing, basketry, pottery, carvings, architecture, weapons and implements, transportation, mining, agriculture, customs, myths, organization, origin, migrations, and history, under these general heads and in this order; handling each topic reasonably, and finding in each some confirmation of his central argument—the "ethnic unity" of all American tribes. Incidentally, too, he manifests their concurrent humanity. We cannot be too frequently reminded that the Indian "hath eyes, hands, organs, dimensions, senses, affections, passions." It is only since his abundant humanness has come to be discerned through the fogs of race prejudice that ethnology has risen to be a competent science; and this discernment comes best by contact.

The author's personal experience stands him in excellent stead, and is given its best foot forward. He was one of Major Powell's party in the exploration of the Colorado River and its great cañon, and had considerable (if not at all intimate) touch with several divisions of the Utes and Moquis. He was also a member of the Harriman outing to Alaska in 1899. These and some other field experiences have given him a sober datum-plane amid the innumerable theories which loom along the horizons of our ethnology. He falls victim to very few mirages, and overestimates few of the shadowy peaks. His book runs a good average level of practical common sense. It mildly ridicules the closeted tendency to find, in every strange architecture or unique artifect, proof of a "mysterious race," or a distinctive culture-stage, or a conclusive token and measure of antiquity. Nor is it superfluous to insist still that the merely empiric culture differences between the Incas or the Mayas and the Pueblos or even the Navajos are of degree and not of kind; that the aboriginal occupation of the New World is of a serious antiquity, and that all theories of migration from the Old World are pure speculation, as yet unclinched by any proof of full modern acceptance.

Between the author's reasonable main contention for the practical homogeneity of the tribes and his personal theory to account for their manifold differentiation, is a considerable step, in which he will have less following. Briefly, he holds that man has inhabited this continent since long before the glacial obsession. The Ice Age, anyhow, was "not more than 5,000 years ago"; and probably only 1,000 years ago the climate even of Yucatan was still seriously affected. The glacial march huddled man into the throat of the Central American funnel; and there, warm and crowded, man came to his highest aboriginal development. The tribes that, by being elbowed off or by natural bent to vagrancy, most slowly receded before the encroaching cold and most readily pursued its recession, remained least civilized, and in general proportion to their remoteness from the Isthmian hothouse. The aboriginal cultures of the whole continent

were, Mr. Dellenbaugh believes, poured up through the small end of the funnel. "In Yucatan seems to have sprung the living fountain that watered all the desolation of the New World" (p. 188). Naturally, then, he will none of Morgan's and Bandelier's perception that the Pueblos, some 2,000 miles north from the Mayas, and the Iroquois, 2,000 miles remoter yet, were in effect as advanced as the befabled southern tribes. The adventitious and empiric possession of metals, though it lent the Peruvians and Mexicans a superior halo in the eyes of their despoilers, did not, in fact, indicate an essential difference in culture. Not only has the "Empire of Montezuma" gone its ways—and Mr. Dellenbaugh justly smiles at Prescott's beautiful romance—but it is already full late to hold that the Aztec confederacy was a whit higher in the scale of political organization than the League of the Iroquois. The Pueblos had solved every problem of architectural construction that the Yucatecs had. They were as sound in their theories of foundation, roofing, breaking joints, lateral strain, adaptation of material, defensive site, as Incas, Mayas, or Aztecs. Their only shortcoming was in failure to add the carvings, the stuccos, and the "mosaics" which inevitably so impress us in the "palaces" of Uxmal, Xochicalco, or Mitla. They had no stone-cutting tools—but they made a shrewd tool of cleavage. Ornamentation, too, is a matter of taste as well as capacity; and, with the aborigine, was as beholden to the superstitious as to the artistic impulse. Nor have we evidence whatever that the religious organization of the Nahuatl was a shade more complex than that of the Pueblos, though it was certainly far more abhorrent to civilized standards.

Mr. Dellenbaugh does not attempt to account, in his scale of cultures descending up the parallels of latitude, for the phenomenon of the Incas, 3,000 miles south of the Yucatecs, and with savages intervening, but with a higher "civilization"—if we may take as indices a fully equal social and religious organization, a great superiority in the military arm by invention of the pack-beast, which made the Incas the first American aborigines capable of carrying on an actual campaign, and thereby of giving a vastly greater extension to their "empire" than any other tribe on the continent achieved; an architecture greater in all dimensions; as elaborate stone-cutting, and of incomparably larger stones; the development of mechanical skill to move these enormous masses of rock; and a very notable superiority in metal-working, indicated not only by the far greater richness of the Peruvians in gold and silver, but by the engraving of amethysts and emeralds with bronze tools.

There is always significance in one's choice of authorities. Mr. Dellenbaugh leans most devoutly, perhaps (and, of course, with general profit), upon the Bureau of Ethnology. He accounts Major Powell "the foremost student of Amerindian affairs," a category which the gallant and learned conqueror of the Grand Cañon and organizing genius of the Bureau would himself perhaps disclaim. Quoting with apparent approval Donnelly's 'Atlantis,' R. I. Dodge's subscription-books (inexpert, and often absurd, even in their class), and H. H. Bancroft's anonymous patchwork, and with tolerance Goodman's 280,000-year chronology for the Mayas, Mr. Dellenbaugh's most frequent and most serious dissensions are with Bandelier, Brinton, and Lewis H. Morgan. Cushing and Hodge are hardly consulted, and Dr. Matthews rather perfunctorily. Nor is Fillmore's conclusive illumination of the folk-music of the aborigine assimilated, though quoted. The fantastic theory of the vicuña in the Southwest as a contemporary of man and his possible wool-giver and "beast of burden" (the latter, the vicuña never was, even at home in Peru and Bolivia), is here admitted to counsel. There is no just appreciation of the fact that not more than three aboriginal peoples in the New World had achieved land "transportation." Of the antiquity of the Eskimo sledge, we have no final knowledge, but it had nothing the better of the Inca caravan of llamas or the plains Indian *requa* of wolfish dogs—often 500 in a train, as Benavides noted in 1630—hauling their owner's equipage on the *travois*. There is generic misapprehension of the *repartimiento*, which is here declared to have "placed every Amerind in bondage." Aside from the fact that three-fourths of the Indians of its time never came in contact with the *repartimiento*, nor ever heard of it, the 'Nueva Recopilacion,' for instance, is a better source for learning the true nature of this *encomienda*, or trusteeship, than are the uninspired guesses of the closet historian. The "Gilded Man" is put in Peru by Mr. Dellenbaugh; he fancies an interoceanic strait in old days "along the line of the Nicaragua Canal" (in which Senator Morgan might see the prevision of Providence); and advances a theory that the Mexican teocallis were estufas—or kivas, as he prefers to call them, after another upstart substitute for a word in technical use for over three centuries. Moqui, by the way, is here spelled with the indefensible *k;* while, with a welcome inconsistency, Navajo is written historically, even in quoting titles of Bureau works which employ the odious "Navaho."

It is seldom that a single word can disfigure a book from cover to cover; but here it comes very near to being done. On every page of this handsome and sober volume one's teeth are set on edge by the unspeakable word "Amerind," an inspiration of the Anthropological Society of Washington, for short of "American Indian." With cable tolls at their present figure, there is reason why "the *Independent*, Fulton Street, N. Y.," should become, to remote and hasty communicants, "Indefult." But there is no serious reason why science should acquire a cipher terminology. "Indian" has been a reasonably intelligible word on this continent for some centuries. Even abroad, the class of people who are likely to read scientific books at all do not go far down the page without knowing whether the natives of America or Asia are in question. We are all aware that "las Indias" and "los Indios" were a blunder. So was "America." But it was all some 400 years ago, and we are not only habituated, by now, but willing to forgive. Mr. Dellenbaugh had planned to use "Redskins" for inclusion of all and several the American tribes—and that would have been absurd enough, since the Indian skin is brown, never red—but, learning betimes of this egregious coinage, he has used it exclusively. "Indian" occurs but three or four times in the book, and with apologetic quotation marks. "Amerind peoples," "Amerindian affairs," "Amerind continent," "captured two Amerinds from a party of Arikarees"—these are examples in making a bad matter worse. "Amerind" is perhaps the most extraordinary, and perhaps the most wanton, offence yet to be recorded against the vice of multiplying scientific words beyond need. It is impertinent, in the first place, and in the second it is ridiculous. If the Indian is not an Indian, neither is he an American Indian. He certainly is an American aborigine. Why not call him, then—if one must needs rabbit mongrel words at all, and construct a scientific nomenclature on the scholarly lines of Chinook—an "Amerab"? Or, though not so brief, when one can take it trippingly upon the tongue, "Ameraborig" has almost as Scriptural a twang as that blessed word Mesopotamia.

A book ordinarily so sane would better have omitted the repeated and unrepentant recurrence to Mr. Dellenbaugh's grotesque earlier paper on "The True Route of Coronado." That has been sufficiently ticketed by at least two experts in the case. The lamented Dr. Elliott Coues says (Garcés, p. 514): "This is not simply erroneous, it is preposterous." And Mr. F. W. Hodge (Harahey, p. 30): "In support of this argument towns are made to change their location, tribes their habitat, and streams their courses, in startling manner, while evidence incontrovertible . . . is completely ignored." The itinerary of Coronado from Culiacan in Sinaloa, Mex., to central Kansas, was first defined, almost in full, in some splendid inspiration of Gen. J. H. Simpson. It has since been absolutely established by the documentary and field researches of Bandelier, the esoteric travails of Cushing, and here and there a finishing touch by another. It is now one of the few large things in early Southwestern history which have been definitively delimited; and the identification of "Cibola" with Zuñi, of "Tusayan" with Moqui, of Acuco with Acoma, of "Cicuye" with Pecos, and so on, is as final as anything in American research.

In no wise to be coupled with Mr. Dellenbaugh's ponderable volume, except as another book "about Indians," Mr. Carl Eickemeyer's 'Over the Great Navajo Trail' portends its quality in its title. If there were a Great Navajo Trail at all, it would hardly be traversed in a Studebaker wagon. Rather attractively printed, at author's cost, the book is good-natured, immaterial, and absurd. So far from being "an account of the life, manners, customs, traditions, and industries of the Navajos, with a complete description of the physical characteristics of the country and an historical sketch of the early white settlers, with interesting accounts of their personal characteristics and politics, . . . of value to the students of ethnology and folklore," it is none of these things. The "early white settlers" are not touched. The physical characteristics of the country are not only not "described," they are not even intelligently hinted; and the "account" of the Navajos is of the sort a merchant would mark "uncollectible." Outside of four entirely trivial references to Matthews, not a "tradition" is mentioned, nor a fact of weight. How structurally ignorant of the Navajos the work is, may be fairly inferred from its statement that these Indians are "unaffected by the influences of civilization or by contact with white settlers," and that they are in "a perfectly natural state." As a matter of fact and rec-

ord, the Navajos are the great standing example, in North America, of a powerful tribe whose vital industries are all derived from civilization. They are now professional and famous stock-raisers, blanket-makers, and silversmiths. Their blanketry, their metal-working, their two million sheep and hundred thousand horses, of course come from their early contact with Europeans—though Mr. Eickemeyer sagely counts their blankets as "evidently traceable to the Aztecs." The Pueblos, on the other hand, though evangelized, still live (as they did in pre-Columbian days) mainly by agriculture with irrigation; their active habit but superficially changed by civilization.

The author's impressions of the Mexican and "American" life of the territory are no less futile. His concept of the Mexican character is pitifully shallow; and in materialities there could hardly be a more sweeping ignorance than (for example) his statement: "No cattle roam at large over the country here, as they do on the plains of Colorado and Texas; and the round-up is unknown." Cattle inhabit here no otherhow than at large; and, for more than a century longer than in Texas or in Colorado, the New Mexicans have been making what all parties concerned took to be round-ups. The excommunicated Penitentes become in Mr. Eickemeyer's hands "an order of the Franciscan Friars." He holds that the Santa Fé Trail was "opened in 1805"; that gold and silver as well as turquoise were mined by the Pueblos before the arrival of the Spaniards; that the Pueblos disprize girl babies and are "very reluctant to divulge their sex"; that the Pueblos are "noted for bead-work," and so on. Despite his dictum, San Mateo does not exactly mean "Sacred Mountain," but St. Matthew. It is not "of black lava," nor is any other mountain in New Mexico.

Of the fifty "half-tones" in the book (all from very amateur "kodaks"), not one is of consequence, and more than 30 per cent. of them are consecrated to the author and his three-horse "outfit." We have him for frontispiece, sejant affronté, arms folded; later, counterpassant on a bale of alfalfa at the wagon-tail, "waiting for a coyote"; montant, beside the ineluctable wagon; statant regardant, shaving himself, and so forth. The book would have made, at best, indifferent "letters" to a "home paper."

THE CALHOUN CORRESPONDENCE.—II.

Correspondence of John C. Calhoun. Edited by J. Franklin Jameson. [Fourth Annual Report of the Historical Manuscripts Committee of the American Historical Association.] Washington, D. C.

The letters addressed to Calhoun extend from 1827 to 1850, when J. H. Hammond expresses his disposition to "kick [the North] out of the Capitol and set it on fire" (p. 1211). But there is a gap from 1829 to 1840 which covers the rise of abolitionism. Texas leaps to the front as the immediate question of prime importance to the South. England's selfish trade machinations for emancipation in Texas are a frequent theme. Duff Green in London keeps Calhoun posted as to the contents of the *Anti-Slavery Reporter*, and gets James Gordon Bennett to lay in a stock of British anti-slavery documents for ammunition on his return to the *Herald* (p. 872). Green also uses the *Examiner* for the ventilation of apologies for American slavery (p. 884). M. P. Norton, writing from Houston, April 29, 1844, predicts that the line between Texas and the United States will form the "*Slave line*" within five years after a commercial treaty with Great Britain. Left alone, he says, we cannot go into another war with Mexico "and leave our families at home exposed to the dangers of a slave population" (p. 952). Hammond, praising Secretary Calhoun for his note to Pakenham on slavery, says his negroes are aware of the opinions of Presidential candidates on that subject, and doubtless of the doings of the abolitionists. He is "astonished and shocked" at this discovery, and fancies a growing insubordination and incendiarism (p. 955). Benjamin E. Green, writing from Mexico, says that that country calculates on internal dissension in the United States over slavery (p. 961). J. Hamilton, at New Orleans, February 18, 1845, believes the immense European immigration to Texas will abolish slavery there by popular vote in five years, and this alone reconciles him to annexation; otherwise, Galveston as a free port would prove a powerful engine for free trade in the United States (p. 1026). R. M. T. Hunter, December 19, 1843, thinks the annexation movement useful "to make an issue with the anti-slavery feeling" (p. 906). And Hammond, in the letter already cited, says, "If the Union is to break, there could not be a better pretext" than annexation (p. 954). "From this time forward," writes Wilson Lumpkin from Georgia, January 6, 1847, "we may expect the Slave question to be the great and vital one, which will override every other question. Our divisions will be sectional" (p. 1103).

On the other hand, from Mobile, November 20, 1847, John A. Campbell deplores the Mexican war as a stupendous folly, and charges Polk with invasion (pp. 1139, 1141). Added territory, he argues, will inure to the benefit of the non-slaveholding States (p.1140). Waddy Thompson, too, December 18, 1847, speaks of "this ill-advised Mexican war," and opposes Mexican annexation (p. 1149). A Quaker doughface, Ellwood Fisher of Cincinnati, tells of two long talks with Clay in the fall of 1847, when the Senator held that the law of nations would exclude slavery from the territory to be acquired, unless Congress instituted it. The only alternative was a decision by the inhabitants —Mexicans opposed to slavery. Fisher was ready with a way out. He believed that Mexicans would not be allowed to vote on the subject (pp. 1145, 1146). Fisher evidently had no such doubts as beset Dr. Nathan Lord, Dartmouth's President, who besought Calhoun for references to authorities in the "argument for the Divine Right of Slavery in general or Negro Slavery in particular," where he himself saw dimly (p. 1168). Calhoun's own view was not dependent on the Bible, any more than was that of his correspondent, FitzWilliam Byrdsall, March 18, 1844, who wrote: "Titles or rights to Slaves are as good as titles to lands; both are creations of human law. Why not have petitions for the abolition of land titles?" (p. 942).

If Calhoun never condescended to make direct acquaintance with those whom R. B. Rhett called "the Zealots at the North" (p. 888), some of his correspondents did, following Duff Green's example abroad. "Lewis Tappan and I are corresponding, and have been for some time," wrote J. H. Hammond, August 18, 1845; but the South Carolinian was afraid of having his part published, lest he be served "as Birney served Elmore" (p. 1048), and Calhoun bade him be cautious about such an entanglement. John A. Campbell, in 1847, got nearer to the adversary (p. 1143). He perceived the schools and colleges of the North to be "tinctured with the stain of abolitionism," not "in the sense that it is applied to Garrison and Phillips, but in a sense that embraces a very large proportion of the population." Garrison and Phillips declare the Constitution a pro-slavery contract, as witness an able pamphlet by the latter in support of this proposition. "Their remedy is to make a *revolution*. Now all this is better to me than the course of those other men who deny your rights or who disregard them while claiming to be the friends of the Constitution." He refers Calhoun to the report of the Massachusetts Anti-Slavery Society at its fifteenth anniversary. "I made it a point to go over the different offices of publication of the Society [meaning the American A.-S. Society] and to examine their publications." Their press is not very active. Their New York office is a poor affair. Their publications are of a low order—tales of cruelty to slaves. "You hear but little of *this sect*. They do not enter much into the general movements of society." What does the work is the persistent condemnation of slavery in pulpit and school, in the oratory and the poetry of anniversary occasions. "The abolitionists profess a revolutionary purpose. They openly promulgate a design to subvert the Union. The other classes of the North are people who perform all the acts of the abolitionists without avowing the same purposes."

This recalls Howell Cobb's comparison, when addressing a Democratic meeting at Portland, Me., nine years later. To the Republicans he said: "The only difference between you and Garrison is—he goes at the question boldly, like a man, and you are sneaking around it. Garrison says your Constitution protects slavery, and he is against the Constitution. Well, I admit that he is foolish, but, at the same time, you are obliged to admit that he is bolder and honester than you are." It recalls, too, Wendell Phillips in 1860 (he was then gunning for Mr. Seward): "The fault I find with the Republicans is that they are such children, that they are such infants, as to suppose that, with their past behind them, and with their future looking out of their eyes, the slaveholder, or the abolitionist either, believes the lies that they call speeches."

The last appearance of the abolitionists by name in this correspondence is in a letter from R. K. Crallé at Lynchburg, July 25, 1849: "At this moment I am sure the leading Editors of the two Parties in Virginia hate the people of South Carolina with a more intense spirit than Garrison, Tappan, or Giddings" (p. 1201). In the same year, J. H. Hammond affirmed that "the discussion of the Abolition question has eased nearly every conscience in the South about holding slaves" (p. 1193). Inasmuch as it was a standing marvel and regret to Calhoun that there should be any such conscience, this charge, even if true, could hardly have seemed either weighty or opprobrious in his eyes.

SOME ASTRONOMICAL WORKS.

The Elements of Astronomy. By Sir Robert Ball, LL.D., F.R.S. The Macmillan Co.

Elementary Astronomy: A Beginner's Textbook. By Edward S. Holden, M.A., Sc.D., LL.D. Henry Holt & Co.

The Reports of the Magicians and Astrologers of Nineveh and Babylon in the British Museum. By R. Campbell Thompson, B.A. (Cantab.). London: Luzac & Co.

No new celestial happening without a new astronomy to match; that is a proposition which the publishers of astronomical texts the past few years have evinced little difficulty in living up to. For many of these books there can exist no demand whatever; but if their multiplication would only insure a crop of earnest, cultured, and painstaking astronomers, they might be given a hearty welcome, as a favorable augury for the future of a science whose problems are expanding with far greater rapidity than the little army of investigators are at present able to cope with. Now it is the philosophy of the science, in an attractive and popular setting, which must be depended upon for replenishment of the ranks of astronomers; rarely do they enter upon their work in mature years—the science must, as a rule, have attracted them in early life. But this philosophy has been almost wholly ignored, except by two or three writers, since Sir John Herschel's time.

Sir Robert Ball's 'Elements' is an example to the contrary. It is in itself an attractive book, and makes the science appear more so through the apt felicity of style of a fluent lecturer, a practised writer, and an expert investigator. That Sir Robert well knows how to put things is evident in every chapter. Many of them possess a charm akin to the fairy tale. Accurate presentation of the prevailing views of living astronomers is rarely sacrificed, and the sins of the author are rather those of omission than commission. His reference to the interior of the sun as non-luminous (p. 43) is far from supported by modern measures of spot luminosity; indeed, Sir Robert, on the following page, appears to contradict flatly this statement by citing the "extraordinary fervor which prevails in the interior." The planetary chapters are the best in the book—the fullest and nearest to date. In especial, those on Venus and Mars are most excellent, with a comprehensive and judicial statement of the observations of Schiaparelli and Lowell, and an analysis of their views as to the physical condition of these planets. The astonishing peculiarity of revolution of Mars's inner satellite is remarked—why not have added the dynamical explanation also? There are timely paragraphs on ascertaining the actual distance of Eros from us, and so of the earth from the sun. Jupiter and Saturn are treated in very rational and philosophic fashion, with an especial tribute to the late lamented Keeler in the clear presentation of his striking verification of the meteoric constitution of the Saturnian ring system. The supposed trans-Neptunian planet is cavalierly tossed into thin air, as if Neptune were the snap end of the whip: "Nor is there any reason for thinking that there are any planets beyond it." A century and a quarter ago, was there "any reason for thinking" that there were any planets beyond Saturn? Readers who expect to find out much about comets and meteors had best buy some other book; for Sir Robert has singularly neglected these interesting bodies. More marked still is the total omission of several very significant subjects in relation to the stellar universe—new stars just now to the fore, the sun's motion in space, the spectra and constitution of the stars, the nebular hypothesis also. And although we are told (p. 180) that the nearest star yet found is 25 billions (English) of miles distant, space is not even taken to add that Alpha Centauri is that star. As a whole, the illustrations are of unusual excellence, being taken from the beautiful series in the archives of the Royal Astronomical Society. The innovation of noting craters of the moon is an improvement. The technical execution, however, of the plates of total eclipses and Swift's comet is a failure well worth remedying in subsequent editions of this entertaining book in Sir Robert Ball's characteristic style.

Might not one rationally expect a sometime director of the Lick Observatory, Foreign Associate of the Royal Astronomical Society, and member of the National Academy of Sciences, to know thoroughly the lesser technicalities of his science? Yet a brief inspection of Holden's 'Elementary Astronomy' reveals the fact that it is not only difficult, inedited, and slipshod, but in several important particulars actually erroneous. To specify in part: (p. 49) the second of the so-called "laws of the diurnal motion" is true for only half of the stars in the firmament; (p. 143-4) the method of getting the screw value of the micrometer is wrong for all stars not located on the equinoctial, and the illustrative example is embellished with two numerical blunders besides; (p. 215) why not have taught the student to make the very proper distinction between gravity and gravitation? At page 305: "Observers [of Mars] are all but unanimous in their report that no clouds are visible over the surface"—a rash misstatement of the fact; Schiaparelli, Perrotin, Pickering, Lowell, Douglass, and others all reporting the practical certainty of clouds. The first named, the Nestor of Martian observers, has kept the planet pretty continuously under observation for more than twenty years. Professor Holden, himself no spectroscopist, regards the spectroscopic evidence of absence of Martian atmosphere conclusive; is not Sir William Huggins's view worthy of more weight—simply that the spectroscope is insufficiently delicate to test this question? No less questionable is Professor Holden's opinion about the canals; and his remarks about their gemination, as due to "fatigue of the eye and bad focussing," are sufficiently disposed of by the fact that all the canals seen at any given time must then appear double, and such is not the case. Again (p. 324), Professor Holden is in error in stating that "it is impossible to make any precise measurement of the diameters of the minor planets," as every astronomer knows since Professor Barnard's trustworthy measures of the larger ones.

Upon consideration of the illustrations, we find them no less deficient and misleading: (p. 27) the unnecessary attempt to illustrate terrestrial longitudes from a figure of the celestial sphere can only confuse the student, because of the unavoidable interchange of directions; (p. 114) the sundial is a fatal agglomeration of carelessness, both the circle being divided wrongly, and the lettering of the graduation reversed; (p. 152) the method of finding a meridian line illustrates the determinant star in its zenithal position, the one place where its use for this purpose would be indeterminate; (p. 302) the planetary terminators can never be circular arcs; (p. 397) even supposing that the moon were not egregiously out of figure, it must have drifted southward into the Pleiades from the direction of the north pole. The frontispiece, the portraits, the lunar map, the planetary drawings made at the Lick Observatory, are, however, excellent.

Following up the excellent work of Fathers Epping and Strassmaier in their 'Astronomisches aus Babylon,' Mr. Campbell Thompson, assistant in the British Museum in the department of Egyptian and Assyrian antiquities, has presented in two fine volumes the reprints in cuneiform characters, almost as if in facsimile, of the original texts of the reports of the magicians and astrologers of ancient Nineveh and Babylon, as preserved in the Museum; with translations of them, notes, vocabulary, index, and an able historical introduction. Faithful transliterations, too, are given; but whether the astronomer, the historian, or the philologist will derive the most from this scholarly piece of work, it is hardly yet possible to say. Certain it is, however, that Mr. Thompson deserves the thanks of all historians of the origins of astrology for this painstaking resurrection of a vast accumulation of highly instructive material from that permanent entombment which is apt to follow its deposition in a great national museum.

Early writers, among whom are Strabo, Ælian, Achilles Tatius, and Diodorus Siculus, indicate with much certainty that astrology formed part of the religious system of the Babylonians, and that it largely influenced the minds of the ancient peoples who dwelt between the Tigris and the Euphrates. So widespread was the reputation of the Chaldeans for possessing magic power that the very name Chaldean became synonymous with magician at a comparatively early date. From Mesopotamia, by way of Greece and Rome, says Mr. Thompson, "a certain amount of Babylonian astrology made its way among the nations of the West, and it is quite probable that many superstitions which were commonly regarded as the peculiar product of Western civilization, took their origin from those of the early dwellers on the alluvial lands of Mesopotamia." Ancient Babylon was open to invasion on every side; and the words of the prophet who could succeed in foretelling prosperity for the nation, or calamity for its enemies, were perforce reverenced with awe. That they were treasured in clay to endure for the ages is the reason why we have them at the present day; and no doubt they served as models for successive soothsayers, who, being politicians as well as statesmen, were by no means tardy in pointing the moral of astrological observations from the indications of political upheavals. Every event, from a national calamity like famine or disaster to the army, down to the appearance of the latest born of an humble peasant, not only was considered seriously, but proved by this high political functionary to be the result of causes already duly recognized. We cite a strange omen from births: "When a fœtus has eight legs and two tails,

the prince of the kingdom will seize power. A certain butcher whose name is Uddanu has said, 'When my sow littered, a fœtus had eight legs and two tails, so I preserved it in brine, and put it in the house.'" Nothing was too great or too small to become the subject of an astrological forecast; and many of them embody elements that it will be impossible for the modern student to explain until the history of the political relationship of Babylonia with her neighbors has been completely unravelled.

The exact physical description of these tablets is not without interest. Rectangular clay tablets they were, varying in size from 1½ by ¾ inch, to nearly three times that size, and generally bearing the sender's name. From remote cities, as Assur in the north and Erech in the south, they were dispatched, probably by runners, or men mounted on swift horses, so that the King was well acquainted with the general course of events in his empire. For more than 2,000 years these records of the Babylonian astronomy have lain buried and forgotten underneath the ruins of Assyrian palaces. The heads of the astrological profession were men of high rank and position, and, according to Diodorus (ii., 29), their office was hereditary. When Assurbanipal, King of Assyria, B. C. 668-626, added to the royal library at Nineveh, his contribution of tablets comprised many series of documents relating exclusively to the astrology of the ancient Babylonians, who, in turn, had borrowed it from the Sumerian invaders of the country. One of these was thought to have been written no later than the time of the great Sargon I., King of Agade, not far from B. C. 3800. With this and less ancient works as a guide, it is clear how the profession of deducing omens from daily events had attained high importance in the last Assyrian empire. The magicians who calculated the months formed a significant section of the Assyrian and Babylonian priesthood, and from the denunciations hurled against them by Isaiah (xlvii., 13), it is evident that they had come to occupy a most prominent place in the hierarchy of Babylon.

While the Mesopotamian astrologers deduced omens from all the celestial bodies then known, Mr. Thompson regards it as clear that the moon was the chief source. In particular its horns were examined with great care, and halos of both moon and sun were fruitful sources for the derivation of omens. Especially was the presence of planets or constellations within the lunar halo significant. Also, the astrologers took the greatest care to observe and record the direction and extent of all partial eclipses; and as the calculation of times and seasons was among the chief duties of the astrologer of that day, it seems to Mr. Thompson highly probable that they were acquainted with some type of machine for carrying along the time. It is probable, says Mr. Thompson, in conclusion, that many of the difficulties encompassing the study of Babylonian magic, astrology, and sorcery, will disappear on the publication of abundant material; so that we may at length obtain a knowledge of the general principles that guided the astrologer in formulating his decisions as to the future, which are known to have exercised a great and lasting influence over the minds of the ancient dwellers in Mesopotamia.

China: Her History, Diplomacy, and Commerce. By E. H. Parker. E. P. Dutton & Co.

Mr. Parker holds up a mirror in which we can see ourselves, as well as the sons of Han. Probably no book yet written on China holds the balance so justly between the Chinese and their critics, and when we think of Mr. Parker's qualifications, we had better give him heed. Twenty-five years spent in a dozen or so of the Chinese ports, journeys extending through seven thousand miles in the provinces and adjoining countries, with residence therein, a scholar's knowledge of the Chinese language and literature, and a strong grip on both the comparative philology and ethnology of eastern Asia, are among Mr. Parker's qualifications. He has read and digested the voluminous Chinese records, and here, in a very condensed form, gives us the result of many years of research and experience. Persistence in this research has strengthened his faith in the credibility of the Chinese annals written since the time of Confucius, but he handles them with the critical spirit of one loving truth above all things. No one could possibly have even sketched the dozen and a half maps included in this volume who had not by long, painful study gained the data on which they are based. At a glance they give one the exact information which the student of China desires.

Mr. Parker's chapters are models of condensed information. His style is a free and easy one, and his reverence for Western traditions and prejudices seems to be no greater than for those of the East. He is, however, almost unconsciously, a Briton to the core, for his convictions on the subject of "British interests" are hardly to be distinguished from those of religion. Without being anti-American, his ideas of the United States and the inhabitants thereof seem rather traditional and inherited than based on observation and reality. His deep sympathy with human nature in general, and his determination to know the Chinese as they are, make this book, not indeed one for popular reading, but a delight to the impartial student. He shows, by pointing out their intellectual approach to a subject, how the ideas of the Chinese have come to be what they are. He is one of the leaders in that newer school of writers on China who, because they have studied and observed widely, show us the striking variations which exist among the Chinese themselves. Indeed, the Middle Kingdom is in many respects one vast republic, in which personal restraints have no existence.

"There is no snobbery in China, though there is plenty of priggishness. Any peasant or green-grocer can study or bribe his way up, and no Chinaman is ashamed of his poor relations. Thus there is a sort of live-and-let-live feeling all around. The fat is there, and the fire is there; it is for each man to burn his fingers or feast withal, as luck and wriggling may have it. There are no passports, no restraints on liberty, no frontiers, no food scruples, no sanitary measures, no laws except popular customs and criminal statutes."

In a word, while China has no political system worth speaking of and no central government worthy of the name, it has a very ancient social system which is the solvent of all elements, native and heterogeneous. To understand individual Chinamen, Mr. Parker tells us that we must ignore petty details, both in ourselves and in them, and try to understand them by first seeing ourselves as the Chinese see us. To them, we—that is, the various white folks of the Western world—are all "barbarians," whose clothes fit tightly instead of being baggy, whose noses are long and eyes deep-sunken, who, instead of an elegant pigtail, have mop-like hair, who eat ox-meat, cheese, and other coarse things, instead of rice and a scrap of pork or fish, and who, because of their strong food, smell strongly. Indeed, it is conceded that the foreigner's chief personal offence against the native's nose is his odor. Furthermore, these strange beings who invade China ogle the women, put on the attitude of a bully, and are prone to violence when misunderstandings occur, besides getting drunk and doing many other strange things. On the other hand, the Western man in the street sees yellow-skinned men with long shoes, women with stumpy feet, and swarms of half-naked children, who yell out appropriate epithets at Europeans.

"These people squat on the ground as often as they sit on chairs; are totally indifferent about air and smells; shovel their food down with chopsticks; are always scratching their persons; have slobbery mouths and plenty of vermin; get the best of every bargain; tell a lie whenever they speak at all; wear paper shoes and baggy trousers; steal everything they can sneak away; drown their babies; smoke opium; practise the most fearful immorality; never wash, etc., etc."

Having thus caught the reflection of the average imaginary Chinaman as he is conjured up in Western minds, Mr. Parker goes on to describe the real Chinaman. He acknowledges that he is a liar, but only in ways and forms different from ours. With our lying we are able to apply the grain (or the bucket) of salt, but John Chinaman cannot see as we see. "He does his lying in a different way altogether; and so we call him a liar. He calls us liars, too, and believes it." Mr. Parker thinks he is not, in matters of truth, so nice and particular as we think we are, but, on the other hand, he is not nearly so hypocritical. A Chinaman is thought to be a thief, yet in all the course of his life Mr. Parker was never robbed of anything, except in an inn, when the thieves stole bed, bedstead and all, leaving him in a secure place. True, he was surprised to find spots on his forks and spoons, and discovered that various underservants had tested the electro, "each on his own account, as a businesslike act." When he would lock up the same electro box, his "boy" said, "Not at all; if you lock it up, some one will mistake the contents for silver and carry the whole box away or break it open; whereas if you leave it open, each thief will be able to ascertain for himself that it is not worth stealing." While Chinamen are always regarded as being dirty, he refuses to call them so, "beyond the ordinary rancidity of poverty all over the world." Not eating such strong food as we do, the Chinese are not ranker and dirtier than we are ourselves, the nastiness being in form rather than fact. He totally denies that the Chinese are ungrateful, praises their fidelity, and declares that "nothing makes a more powerful impression on the Chinese mind than impartial justice." Indeed, this gratitude for kindness often deceives missionaries into the belief that "faith" has been aroused in the Celestial mind. Chinese politeness is not hollow. Its rules, absolutely fixed, save the trouble of thinking, and pre-

vent the *gaucherie*, or external "sin," in any form. The natural ease of manner among all degrees is something which the "classified" British mind cannot even conceive.

Mr. Parker concedes that the Chinese are cruel; one reason being that the standard of bodily comfort is so low in China that the slightest divergence from it in an unfavorable direction means cruelty. As to mercantile honor, it is so universally admitted that the author says nothing about it, except to contrast it with the low credit of the Government. The question of "morals" he discusses with the broad tolerance of a man of the world. "The depressing spectacle of 2,000,000 old maids in England (the proportion would be 20,000,000 in China)" has no counterpart there, on account of the universal practice of early marriage. Strange as the opinion may seem, the author declares that the Chinese do not treat their children well. The mothers are essentially "spankers"; the fathers do not beat much, reserving their castigations for their wives. As for temperance, it is a Chinese virtue. Drunkenness is so rare that it is not regarded as a vice at all, but rather good form, to get tipsy at a feast. As for industry, it is the ruling virtue of the Chinese from the top of the scale to the bottom. As for handiness, the western "jack-of-all-trades" is nothing to a Chinaman; he can do everything except shave himself, do up his own hair, cure his own maladies, keep off vermin, fight with his fist, manage a steamer, keep military or naval discipline, handle trust money honestly, tell a plain unvarnished story, be punctual, show nerve in times of sudden danger, eat cheese, or tolerate a female "master."

These extracts and suggestions give but a good sample of the author's habit of mind, his fairness, and we may add his marked abilities. His chapters on geography, history, trade routes, government, population, revenue, etc., etc., really contain the distilled essence of what is known about China. He discusses ably the present situation and problems, pleading for more generous allowance to human nature. The text, maps, and glossary present to the student, in much more easy and accessible form, what the two great volumes of Dr. S. Wells Williams's book on 'The Middle Kingdom,' by a less critical method, contains. In this respect, it is hard to praise the work too highly.

The Life and Literature of the Ancient Hebrews. By Lyman Abbott. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901.

Dr. Abbott's book remarkably reveals the popular change which has taken place in the relative standing of the Bible during the last fifty years. For it is not as if we had here the advance guard of a radical and destructive criticism: the book does not represent the most revolutionary opinions of the later critics. While accepting, as he tells us, "fully, frankly, and without reserve" the modern criticism as opposed to the traditional, Dr. Abbott does this with the reserves and hesitations of a mind naturally conservative and a temper extremely sensitive to popular inclinations. The significant thing, therefore, is that the new criticism has risen so high as a popular opinion as to sweep Dr. Abbott from his traditional moorings, or, at least, to make him drag his anchor far and away from its original bed. Here are opinions which, for all their conservative limitations and regrets, are, as regards the general structure of the Old Testament and the character of its particular books, far more radical than those expressed by Theodore Parker. Nevertheless, they are to-day the comfortable possession of a preacher in good orthodox standing, a favored preacher at Harvard University, who embodies them in Lowell Lectures and in a book which, while exciting little adverse comment in orthodox circles, will commend itself confidently to the Protestant community at large.

Those who go to Dr. Abbott's book expecting to find in it a brief popular introduction to the Old Testament—Canon Driver's 'Introduction,' for example, thrown into a more popular form—will be disappointed. There is much less than there might easily have been concerning the structure of the various books of the Old Testament. Those not before instructed as to the way in which the Hexateuch was put together, and Isaiah and Job, etc., will not be much wiser when they lay down Dr. Abbott's book than when they took it up. It will add even less to the student, and nothing to the scholar, on these lines. If Dr. Abbott's footnote references to Old Testament critics and those imbedded in his text are fairly indicative of the extent of his critical apparatus, it must have been meagre in the extreme. At every turn we miss the names that we expect to find. If there is a single reference to Kuenen, it has escaped our scrutiny. There is one reference to Cheyne touching the Psalms, and that misleading; not a syllable as regards his splendid work upon Isaiah; not a hint that he has discovered lines of cleavage in the Deutero-Isaiah almost or quite as plain as those which separate this section from the earlier chapters. The German works referred to by Dr. Abbott appear to be exclusively those which have been translated.

Canon Driver's 'Introduction' is commended cordially, and, in a list of the Old Testament writings in the order of their composition, that excellent and extremely cautious book is followed in the main. But such is Dr. Abbott's manipulation of his material that in his exposition the comparative frankness of Canon Driver's facts and figures is a good deal disguised. Where dates are doubtful, he has a marked predilection for the earlier of those permitted by scholars who are modern in the most genially inclusive sense of that discriminating term. Moreover, nothing is more conspicuous than the rhetorical recovery of ground which has been critically ceded to the modern spirit. It might be an exaggeration to say that Dr. Abbott is a traditionalist, with a leaning to scientific criticism, rather than a scientific critic with a leaning to the traditional forms. It is, however, certain that his book abounds in survivals of his traditional inheritance. We find him quoting Abraham as if Abraham were an accredited writer of the patriarchal times. Of Job Dr. Abbott writes as if he were himself a Hebrew patriarch, assuring us that the book reproduces the patriarchal society with photographic fidelity.

The arrangement of the chapters does not reflect the method of the Higher Criticism, which, taking the Prophets for its *terra firma*, relates the outlying lands and seas to that as best it can. Dr. Abbott saves the Prophets, presumably because they are the best wine of his feast, until the last, and begins with "Hebrew History," explaining that the difference between Chronicles and Kings, as priestly and prophetic *Tendenz* writings, extends to all the other historic parts of the Old Testament. "Prehistoric Traditions Rewritten" is a less satisfactory chapter. The loose rhetorical expansion of the popular preacher buries the critic out of sight. Not only is the story of Eden treated as an early myth, but abstract ideas are imputed to it entirely foreign to its simplicity, in the same spirit that declares the story of Pocahontas (p. 75) to be "a precursor of the cosmopolitan character, overrunning all lines of race and of religion, which has characterized the American people in its history from that time to this." A chapter on the "Book of the Covenant" (Ex. xx.-xxiii. 8) exaggerates the degree to which that noble fragment speaks of Moses and his time.

Everywhere didactic, homiletic, Dr. Abbott is prone to make the subject of his criticism a stalking-horse from behind which to discharge his favorite weapons at the objects of his severe disapprobation. Consequently, at this point he gets in another shot at the Declaration of Independence, which he holds in particular abhorrence, and to the attack on which he has many times returned. Moses, we are assured, and, with him, the ancient Hebrews, were much wiser than the writers of the Declaration, for they held the source of government to be the divine will and not the consent of the governed. But what was the divine will for them but the projection of their own moral ideal, and what but "the consent of the governed" was the people's acceptance of the divine will as proclaimed by Moses? Dr. Abbott's worst example in the way of dragooning the ancient Scriptures into his service is afforded by his treatment of the Song of Songs. From out this "Drama of Love" an argument is drawn against the larger womanhood of the present time. The ambition to achieve this is compared to the ambition which the Shulamite woman did *not* have to become a king's mistress. The analogue is a daring one, but not happily conceived. The comparison of their wider life to a royal harem is hardly flattering to the women who are bent on widening their sphere, and it will be news to these that they are being "tempted to take ambition in the place of love."

Dr. Abbott's chapter on the "Deuteronomic Code" agrees with the criticism which, since De Wette, has assigned Deuteronomy to the time of Josiah, 621 B. C. He makes nothing of that aspect of it of which Kuenen made so much—its attempted reconciliation of priestly and prophetic elements. Its confinement of sacrifice to Jerusalem, its most significant feature, is not named, but, further on, is made a feature of the legislation of the priestly code, which Dr. Abbott prefers to call "The Canon Law." In his discussion of the relation of Deuteronomy and the later priestly code to actual Hebrew legislation, he quite overrates their character as a mere embodiment of legislation already well in vogue. Nothing is surer than that the construction of new documents with a supposed authority was a favorite method of initiating new legislation, and Dr. Abbott's hesitation to characterize it as "pious fraud" smacks more

of his personal kindness than of his critical severity. "Some Hebrew Stories Retold" is a chapter that embraces the stories of Ruth and Esther and Jonah. In the former we miss the point of the argument —that, if the great King David had descended from a Moabitish marriage, foreign marriages could not be so dreadful as Nehemiah made them out. The book of Jonah receives the lofty praise which it deserves as a gospel of tolerance, but the alternative narrowness of Esther gets no corresponding condemnation. On the contrary, we read of "the moral inspiration of the story," in painful contrast with Canon Driver's frank disapprobation.

Coming to Job, Dr. Abbott passes lightly over the vexed questions of its integrity and the relation of the prologue and epilogue to the dialogue. The young Elihu, who comes in such a questionable shape, he neglects as sovereignly as does the Almighty, who pays not the least attention to his speech. In regard to the crucial passage, "I know that my Vindicator liveth," there is no frank exposure of the popular misunderstanding, but an unfortunate concession to it. "Out of his very despair a hope of immortality is struck." Obviously, the meaning of the passage is that the fleshless Job will be vindicated ere he dies. The exposition of Job's self-defence is warm with cordial sympathy. Neither the Proverbs nor the Psalms are related to the times producing them, as we could wish they might have been, but their character is presented in an excellent and engaging manner. The omission is of a piece with a general aspect of the book, which is what we should least expect from Dr. Abbott's well-known devotion to the evolutionary idea. There was ample opportunity for the illustration of that idea, and it has been little used. The phase of *monolatry* through which the Hebrews passed into monotheism is barely touched. The explanation of this phenomenon is plainly enough discerned in the apologetic purpose of Dr. Abbott's book, which is, he tells us, to show that the results of modern criticism "do not imperil spiritual faith," but, "on the contrary, enhance the value of the Bible as an instrument for the cultivation of that faith." This purpose is throughout the book more dominant than the other which is avowed—to explain the spirit and methods of the new criticism.

The French Monarchy, 1483-1789. By A. J. Grant, M.A. Two volumes. The Macmillan Co. 1900. (Cambridge Historical Series.)

It is seldom that a book which follows the history of a great nation for over 300 years can find a completely suitable title in three words. Yet, thanks to the wonderful symmetry of French development from the death of Louis XI. to the time when, under Louis XIV., the prerogative of the crown overwhelmed everything else in the state, Mr. Grant can express the motive of his two volumes with the utmost brevity. He writes the history of kings and ministers, he traces the progress of the people as it was secured or retarded by royal control, and not until he reaches the end of the Seven Years' War does he stop to consider "The Rise of Opposition to the Absolute Monarchy." On the whole, his attitude towards the Old Régime may be called friendly. The prospectus of the new 'Histoire de France,' edited by M. Ernest Lavisse, says: "Le temps n'est pas encore lointain où l'histoire de l'ancienne France était un sujet de polémique entre les amis et les ennemis de la Révolution." Mr. Grant also refers in his preface to the same controversy: "The French Revolution is often represented as being an attempt on the part of France to sever her connection with the past, and, in spirit and policy and ideas, a violent reaction against all that the monarchy had done." His own attitude is that of De Tocqueville. While he recalls the "dismal corruption" which prevailed under Louis XV., he holds that the absolute monarchy "rendered nevertheless great services to France, anticipating in many points the beneficent work of the Revolution, and in many others preparing the way for it. I have tried to show that the monarchy was, at its best, the maintainer of order, the promoter of national unity, and the protector of the commons against the nobles." The prospectus of M. Lavisse furthermore says: "À présent tous les hommes libres d'esprit pensent qu'il est puéril de reprocher aux ancêtres d'avoir cru à des idées et de s'être passionés pour des sentiments qui ne sont pas les nôtres." Mr. Grant is possessed of the same spirit, and approaches French institutions without showing any prejudices which tend to put him out of sympathy with his main subject, the despotic instincts of an age differing from our own.

In point of selection and arrangement we can commend the skill that has been displayed by Mr. Grant and Dr. Prothero, the editor of the series, to whom some acknowledgment of indebtedness is paid. After having made a careful analysis of both volumes, we can say that the only part of the work which seems at all slighted, according to the general scheme, is the opening section. There is a long chapter on the Italian wars, but the domestic politics of the realm during the same period are passed over rather lightly. However, from the reign of Henry II. forward one has no such criticism to offer. Throughout almost the whole of the work the relative space allotted to local and foreign affairs is very well balanced. Along with several recent writers on French history, Mr. Grant neglects the interesting topic of court life under Louis XIV. and Louis XV. Perhaps we have no more right to complain on the score of this omission than on that of others which could be justified by reference to the author's central design. The scope of each volume in the series is political, and court life may appear to be important only on the social side. But when the ruler is a despot, it becomes as important an element in politics as electioneering is under a democratic system. We could well spare some of the crowded details which Mr. Grant devotes to the endless campaigns of the Bourbon monarchy for a sketch of the daily round at Versailles. Innumerable memoirs furnish the material, and such a chapter would have been a grateful relief from the synopsis of battles and sieges.

The operation of absolute monarchy in France during the long period which lies between Louis XI. and Louis XVI. is a theme so large that we cannot enter upon it here. But it is possible to speak of the two occasions when the power of the Crown was threatened by the rebellious spirit of the nobles. We leave aside the forces which finally brought about the Revolution, and allude only to the Wars of Religion and to the Fronde. Mr. Grant has two chapters on the first of these subjects and one on the second.

To what degree were those nobles sincere who, towards the close of Henry II.'s reign, drew away from the court and formed the party of the Huguenot opposition? Mr. Grant rightly maintains that the contest was not one for toleration but for supremacy. While he sees in Coligny and Du Mornay the fruits of conviction, "it is equally clear from the lives which many others lived that with them it was not so." He gives full weight to feudal insubordination and to dislike of the Guises, but he will not admit that the Huguenot movement, even at the end, was purely aristocratic. "The armies that followed the Protestant leaders were at first themselves Protestant, and, numerous and often poor though the nobles of France were, they did not fill up the ranks. There were even cities—Rochelle is especially mentioned—where the Protestant zeal of the common people was keener and more tenacious than that of the upper classes."

The Fronde, of course, was much less serious than the religious wars. The animosities of Mazarin's age were not so deeply grounded in principles, and the Frondeurs produced no leader who could compare with Coligny, Henry of Guise, or Henry of Navarre. Mr. Grant escapes the danger of letting his narrative centre too much in De Retz, Mme. de Longueville, Condé, and their supporters. Behind the series of picturesque wars and riots, he discerns the general truth that the triumph of the Monarchy was better for France than the triumph of any other force at that time could have been.

> "The nobles were crushed and discredited; Parliament by its Constitution was cut off from the life of the nation; the time of the people was not yet. Their cause was indeed better represented by the centralized Monarchy than it would have been by the States-General; for States-General would have meant at this moment the rule of the aristocracy, and events had thrown into clear relief how little the nobles, even the best of them, cared for the well-being of the people or even for the military security of the State."

Although the plan of this series does not encourage contributors to indulge in many footnotes, one can easily see from allusions in the text and from the quality of the whole work that Mr. Grant has built up his survey on the best special studies. It seems admirably free from serious errors, though we have noticed a few misprints like Louisberg for Louisburg, and there are one or two slips in the allusions to German affairs during the Thirty Years' War. Thus (vol. i., p. 238), Mr. Grant, in referring to the entry of Munich by the Swedes, May 17, 1632, says: "No resistance seemed possible, unless Wallenstein were called out from his retirement. Even his former foes demanded his recall now. The magic of his reputation swiftly collected an army." But Wallenstein had reënlisted in the Emperor's service before Gustavus entered Munich. We also think that Mr. Grant has reduced too much the importance of the part which Julius II. took in the organization of the League of Cambray. Still, the few inaccuracies which we have noticed spring from the desire to compress a large number of facts into the briefest possible

space. Mr. Grant's style is unpretentious, but perfectly clear and direct. His book is a valuable one, and swells the number of scholarly histories which are written for popular use.

Amyntas: A Sylvan Fable. By Torquato Tasso. Now first rendered into English [this error is corrected by an inserted slip] by Frederic Whitmore. Drawings and cover by William R. Whitmore. Springfield, Mass.: The Ridgewood Press. 1900. 8vo, pp. 72.

Few persons nowadays care to visit the ancient Arcadian land, peopled with musical shepherds and beautiful shepherdesses, with nymphs and satyrs, which Tasso and Guarini and their followers rediscovered and repeopled, after it had been long lost and uninhabited. It is a strange, unreal country. All is artificial and impossible in it. It has no industries, and nothing to attract the busy men and women of our generation. Most of those who have ventured to enter it have found it intolerably dull. But, for a few, weary of the actual Broadway of common life, it has a certain charm of fancy, different from that of fairyland, but yet akin to it. It is an exquisite sylvan land, with shadowy groves and sunny glades; with soft valleys through which run purling brooks whose banks are enamelled with flowers; while not far off rise the blue mountains on whose fertile slopes the flocks and herds are feeding, and in whose rocky caverns are the dens of the wolves and bears whom the hunters pursue. All around lies the sea, of which glimpses may be caught through the aisles of the forest. Through this fair remote land Love always goes wandering; and sometimes other gods, Apollo, Pan, and even Diana, visit it.

Of this land of fancy and of its inhabitants a pleasant picture and a sufficient description are given by Tasso in his idyllic drama of "Amyntas." This little play appeals not only to the lover of poetic fancy, but also to the student of literature as the best type of the purely artificial work in which the refined but jaded taste of the cultured and corrupt Italy of the later Renaissance found its supreme expression. The artificiality of this work is not factitious, forced, or affected; it is true to the nature of the society of the times, while the perfection of art manifest in its form secures it from oblivion, or from becoming merely an elaborate monument of one of the vagaries of taste.

Tasso was in his thirtieth year when, in 1573, he wrote the "Amyntas" for performance at the Court of Ferrara. Its immediate success was brilliant, and it was already widely celebrated before the first edition was published by Aldo Mannucci, at Venice in 1581. This edition (of which a copy is lying before us as we write) was issued, according to the title-page, *con privilegio*, but apparently not with authority from Tasso himself, for Mannucci, in his dedication of the little volume to Don Ferrando Gonzaga, speaks of the poet as *al presente compassionato*, referring in these words to the fact that Tasso had then been confined for more than a year in the hospital of St. Anne at Ferrara. At any rate, the volume was not revised by its author; its text is incomplete, lacking the important choruses at the end, respectively, of the third, fourth, and fifth acts. It is, moreover, disfigured, like many of the books of the degenerated Aldine press, by misprints so numerous and so serious as to indicate either extreme haste or extreme carelessness on the part of the printer. Better editions soon appeared, and the succession of them is numberless. The little drama remains a much-read poem; its exquisite versification suits its theme, and the current of the verse flows with a melody hardly to be surpassed.

Naturally the 'Aminta' has been often translated into other languages; there have been several English versions of it, but the first to be made and published in America is the one by Mr. Frederic Whitmore recorded above. It is a surprising work to come from a thriving, practical, up-to-date city—for there is nothing in it of to-day. Opening it, one changes the clatter of machinery for the hum of bees, the jangling of the electric cars for the tinkling of the bells of the herd, the roar of the street for the murmur of the wind in the trees. Mr. Whitmore has so imbued himself with the spirit and temper of the original poem, and possesses so much poetic ability of his own, that his version is, in most respects, of unusual excellence. It is not free from minor, easily removable, defects, but its merits are such as to make these blemishes count for comparatively little. We commend his work to the lovers of English verse as well as of Italian poetry. Its charm is enhanced by three illustrations of rare appropriateness and beauty of design.

The Great Epic of India: Its Character and Origin. By E. Washburn Hopkins, Ph.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 8vo, pp. xviii, 485. (Yale Bicentennial Publications.)

Apropos of the approaching bicentennial anniversary of Yale, and the series of publications which the University is appropriately issuing as a part of the commemoration of this occasion, attention may be called to one volume in the long list of titles, a masterpiece of Sanskrit American scholarship, in its way, and a standard by which American work in such a field may be judged. The title might lead one to suppose that the book contained a literary study of the Mahābhārata, an account of the feud between the Kurus and Pandus that resulted in the most momentous battle of ancient India. Such is not the case; and the sub-title will help to inform the general reader of this in advance. The student of comparative literature will find here the analytic method of investigation and higher criticism applied with remarkable ability to the national epic of the Hindus. To the specialist working in Sanskrit, to whom the volume really appeals, it will prove a mine of information as to the structure of this monstrous heroic poem of 200,000 verses; it contains a vast amount of technical facts bearing upon the composition of the poem, and all presented with great acumen by an able scholar.

The author's main purpose is to show that the unwieldy bulk of the Mahābhārata is a conglomerate mass containing the work of different writers who belong to different ages, and who vary in style, manner, and thought. This view is directly opposed to the synthetic method of the German scholar Dahlmann, who has sought to uphold the unity of the Mahābhārata, to see a distinct purpose and design in its composition, and to regard the didactic side of the great poem as an essential and integral part of it in its inception. In championing the analytic view, Professor Hopkins has brought to bear a careful study of the literature known in the epic, and has shown that parts containing allusions to "post-epical works" must be due to interpolation; and that when studied in connection with the Rāmāyana, or minor epic, the Mahābhārata will be seen to be a collection, lacking an author. The minor epic, on the other hand, will appear to be the product of a definite personality or individual. An examination of the philosophy of the Mahābhārata tends to prove that all the purely philosophic chapters are of later origin. A most elaborate and exhaustive investigation of epic versification leads to a similar view of the composite character of the Great Epic. The painstaking scholar has examined thousands upon thousands of Sanskrit *çloka*-couplets, verse by verse, and type by type, and devoted nearly two hundred pages to this report, which bears out the view that the Mahābhārata is an accretion, not the growth of a single age, but of ages. The nucleus of it is, indeed, the history of the Pandus, but a mass of didactic material has gathered about it with the lapse of time. The composition of this gigantic epic, alongside of which the Iliad and Odyssey are merely ballads in extent, may cover a period, perhaps, of eight hundred years. The older parts may date back as far as B. C. 400; the latest portions may be even as recent as A. D. 400.

Professor Hopkins's contention may be likened to the Wolfian theory of Homeric composition, the Müllenhoff treatment of the Beowulf, the Elohistic and Jahvistic division of Genesis, the Deutero- and even Trito-Isaiah, or the Daqīqī passage in the Shāh Nāmah of Persia; but with a vastly larger field for criticism, owing to the enormous length of the Mahābhārata. The theory, indeed, is even not new for the Mahābhārata, but never before has it been so consistently, so ably, and so clearly brought out in connection with that ancient literary monument. One is almost forced to accept our American scholar's thesis in all its main outlines; and still there may linger somewhere in our hearts a personal sympathy for the school that wishes to make more of the tradition of Vyāsa as the Homer of the Mahābhārata in the old-fashioned sense.

Education in the Nineteenth Century. Edited by R. D. Roberts. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan.

This is the title of a collection of thirteen lectures delivered in August, 1900, at Cambridge before the education division of the Cambridge University Extension Society. The interest of the subjects and the ability of the lecturers attracted large audiences to the lectures, and the volume is of permanent value. Among the topics are: "Christian Work in Public Schools," by Montagu Butler, Master of Trinity, formerly Head-Master of Harrow School: "Infant Education," by Miss Agnes Ward; "Primary Education," by Sir Joshua Fitch; "Secondary Education of Girls, and Girls' High Schools," by Miss Gadesen; "The Teaching of History during the Nineteenth Century"; "Science Teaching in Schools"; "Industrial

Education," by Sir Philip Magnus; "The Training of Teachers," by Miss E. P. Hughes; "The University Extension Movement," by Sir Richard Jebb; "The Higher Education of Women," by Mrs. Henry Sidgwick, Principal of Newnham College; "The Development of Educational Ideas during the Nineteenth Century," by Professor Rein of Jena.

Dr. Butler's lecture opens the volume. It is significant of the position accorded in England to moral and religious training that this lecture should occupy the first place. As former head-master of Harrow, Dr. Butler is well qualified to treat his theme. He shows at what a low ebb moral and religious influences were in the first quarter of our century, and ascribes the initiation of the great change to Arnold, whose work at Rugby began in 1828. With Arnold, he classes Thring of Uppingham, Vaughan at Harrow, Benson at Wellington; and he shows how generally, in the creation of the many new schools of the present century, the moral and religious ideals of Arnold and Thring have been accepted as correct. He notes, at the end of his lecture, the increasing difficulty of securing as head-masters men who have taken orders, but pleads strongly for the speedy removal of any impediment to their preaching, though laymen, in their own school-chapels; for the Sunday chapel service, with the earnest, practical address of the head-master, seems to him indispensable.

Sir Philip Magnus is well known for his interest in Technical Education. He and Sir Lyon Playfair have been identified with the movement from its very beginning. The services of the Prince Consort were also most important. It is a fact worth remembering that the South Kensington Museum, with the schools connected with it, was due to the profits of the Exhibition of 1851, supplemented by a Parliamentary grant of £150,000. Here began Industrial Training in England.

Miss Hughes's paper on the Training of Teachers is very interesting. The first important date in the history of this movement, she says, is 1828, when Arnold went to Rugby, and University College in London was founded. There is no question as to the importance of these two events, but it is only very indirectly that Arnold's going to Rugby bears relation to the training of teachers. The opening of University College brought, for the first time in England, the privileges of higher education, at a low fee and irrespective of creed, within the reach of all. Miss Hughes warns against several dangers in plans for training teachers:

(1.) The excessive multiplication of centres for secondary training at the expense of high quality of work at each centre.

(2.) The attempt to carry on, simultaneously, general secondary education and training of teachers.

(3.) The attempt to graft foreign systems, unchanged, upon English practice.

The papers from which no quotations have been made are not to be considered as in any way inferior to those from which we have cited passages. All know with what grace Professor Jebb would treat such a subject as University Extension, and no one could better describe the history of the Higher Education of Women than Mrs. Henry Sidgwick. The last lecture, a philosophical survey of the development of modern education in Germany, is by the distinguished specialist, Rein, Professor of Pedagogy at Jena.

The Handy Dictionary of Biography. By Charles Morris. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co. 1901.

In volumes designed to commemorate the eminent of all lands and ages, it is a question whether anything is worth while between "Smith, Alexander, 1830-'67; Scottish poet," and some attempt to indicate the nature and value of the man's work. Mr. Morris's 'Handy Dictionary of Biography' aims to hit a happy mean by including only real notables, "whose names are likely to be frequently met with in reading." But much depends upon what one reads; and in default of any fixed standard regulating degrees of eminence, the compiler's knowledge and judgment must determine these. The maker of a text-book on English literature of the nineteenth century, being asked why Robert Browning was not mentioned therein, replied that he was not of sufficient importance. Mr. Morris does better than this, but he is hampered by the discrepancy between his space and his subject. He gives us the most noted names of the past, including all the Roman emperors, but not Giordano Bruno and Vanini. To come nearer home, J. A. Roebling might have been mentioned as an engineer, and Edward Robinson certainly should as a Palestine explorer. Marie Corelli is here, but not "Ouida"; Mrs. Southworth, but not Miss Wilkins nor Miss Jewett; Alfred Austin and Lewis Morris, but not C. S. Calverley. "Special attention has been given," we are told, to recent names, "not to be found in the older works"; yet Hauptmann and Sudermann have not been discovered, nor Gilbert Parker and George Gissing and Harold Frederic, nor Winston Churchill and Mary Johnston. All these and some others here omitted are "frequently met with" of late. The last here known of Secretary Hay is as "Ambassador to England, 1897-'98." Nor is the magnitude of stars to be always judged by their apparent size on this chart. Benedict Arnold gets half as much space as Washington; of the Stevensons, Adlai E. looms larger than Robert L., and almost as big as McKinley. In the seven or eight lines apiece given to Jane Austen and Francis Parkman is no word indicating that they had any special merit or importance. Many notices, as those of Neander, Bushnell, James Martineau, and George Eliot, are strikingly inadequate. Henry James gets some praise, but he who takes this book for a guide will suppose that G. P. R. (just above H.) was full twice as great a novelist.

Mr. Morris is an industrious and experienced compiler, but scarcely one to put a soul behind the ribs of death, or retain very much of what life and spirit his subjects may once have possessed. Criticism or characterization may be found here and there, and usually correct as far as it goes, but scattering and at second (or twentieth) hand. Perhaps most readers prefer that biographical notices in books of reference should be at once dry and sketchy; if so, this work should sell largely. In important matters it seems in the main accurate enough for its purpose, but slips may be detected; thus, William of Orange, on Alva's approach, retired, not "to his principality in France," which was no safe place for him then, but to Germany. Maxentius and Licinius were not insurgents (p. 161), but rivals of Constantine. To call F. D. Maurice "a leader of the Broad Church party" is misleading, since he always protested against the idea of such a party. He led, if one likes, in a school of thought which has never been effectually narrowed and hardened, as he feared it might be, into a party. A book of this sort might do harm if it kept people away from bigger and better books; but for such as want all their biography done by one hand and packed into one small volume, without too exigent a regard to quality, it is perhaps as good as can be expected. Its practice of putting everything in the past tense works queerly as applied to men still alive and active, as when we read that Platt or Quay or Croker "was" long a Boss. Alas, they are still bossing.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Century of Law Reform: Twelve Lectures on the Change in the Law of England during the Nineteenth Century. Macmillan. $2.
Aiton, G. B. The Descriptive Speller. Boston: Ginn & Co.
American History Told by Contemporaries. Vol. IV.: Welding of the Nation, 1845-1900. Macmillan. $2.
Arnold, Sir Edwin. The Voyage of Ithobal. London: John Murray; New York: G. W. Dillingham Co.
Baldwin, J. M. Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology. Vol. I. Macmillan.
Barbour, R. H. Captain of the Crew. D. Appleton & Co.
Benson, B. K. A Friend with the Countersign. Macmillan.
Berenson, Bernhard. The Study and Criticism of Italian Art. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Bigg, Charles. A Critical and Exegetical Commentary on the Epistles of St. Peter and St. Jude. Scribners. $2.50.
Boyd, J. H. College Algebra. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co.
Bradley, A. C. A Commentary on Tennyson's In Memoriam. Macmillan. $1.50.
Chambers, R. W. Cardigan. Harpers. $1.50.
Chester, F. D. A Manual of Determinative Bacteriology. Macmillan. $2.60.
Coates, A. T. A Short History of the American Trotting and Pacing Horse. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co.
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Evans, A. J. The Mycenæan Tree and Pillar Cult and its Mediterranean Relations. Macmillan.
Glentworth, Marguerite L. A Twentieth Century Boy. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Head, F. W. The Fallen Stuarts. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Hirsch, Max. Democracy versus Socialism. Macmillan. $3.25.
Index to the First Ten Volumes of Book Prices Current (1887 to 1896). London: Elliot Stock.
Jordell, D. Répertoire Bibliographique des Principales Revues Françaises. Paris: Lamm; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Kemble, W. F. Pitted Against Anarchists. Abbey Press. 50 cents.
Kipling, Rudyard. Kim. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
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Rawlings, Gertrude B. The Story of Books. D. Appleton & Co. 35 cents.
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Strong, Frank, and Schafer, Joseph. The Government of the American People. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 65 cents.
Sturgis, Julian, Stephen Carlinari. Scribners. $1.50.
Sweeting, W. D. The Cathedral Church of Ely. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
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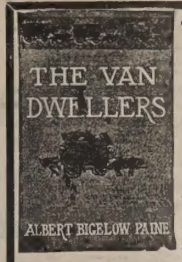

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 26, 1901.

The Week.

President Roosevelt, promptly anticipating the resignation of the members of the McKinley Cabinet, has induced them to remain in office throughout his term. This is Mr. Roosevelt's way of confirming the promise he made at Buffalo that he would carry out the policy of his predecessor. In no other way could he have emphasized it so fully and satisfactorily. In no other way could he so happily have met the public desires, or have conveyed to the world the assurance that the assassin's bullet had produced no change in public aims and administration. It cannot be assumed that President Roosevelt has no initiative of his own, since his whole career has bristled with it. Indeed, the apprehension which assailed the public mind momentarily, when Mr. McKinley was struck down, was that the Vice-President had too much initiative, and that he would probably hasten to substitute new policies in place of those already in operation. All such fears are wisely dispelled. The business world and the thinking world are alike convinced that, although all hearts are wounded, no wound has befallen the republic.

There is nothing more satisfactory about Secretary Hay's continuance in office under President Roosevelt than the assurance which it gives in regard to the Isthmian Canal. Ever since his assumption of the duties of Secretary of State, Mr. Hay has labored unceasingly for the kind of canal which would reflect the most credit upon the American people, and be most useful to the nations of the world. He has stood throughout for a waterway without forts and without soldiers, open to all nations in time of war as well as in time of peace. Had the Senate but adopted the treaty with England which Mr. Hay submitted to it, the canal question would to-day be well along toward settlement. As it is now, the prospects are of the best for a speedy and rational conclusion of the question, provided that the Senate—the "destroyer of treaties"—throws no new obstacles in the way, and this seems now no longer to be feared. According to the best Washington advices, President Roosevelt and his Secretary of State are as heartily in accord on all questions as two men can be. It follows that the President will support Mr. Hay's plans with all his limitless energy, even though he does not believe in the neutrality of the canal in war time. The *Evening Post's* Washington correspondent is authority for the statement that the new treaty to be submitted to the Senate next winter will contain all the Senate amendments in an inoffensive form.

Mr. John R. Dos Passos publishes in the *Times* his views of anarchism and the proper methods of dealing with it by law. The difficulties of the subject are candidly acknowledged by the writer, and for the most part carefully treated. He rules out, as any lawyer must, the method, most commonly advocated by public meetings and by extempore speakers, of "stamping out"—which, if it means anything, means the employment of anarchy to suppress anarchism. Mr. Dos Passos also deprecates the plan for making any attempt upon the life of a President or Vice-President, or other ruler, whether successful or not, punishable by death. Other crude conceptions of the moment to which the crime of Czolgosz gave birth are "stamped out" by Mr. Dos Passos. So much for the negative side of his argument. On the positive side he suggests, first, a method of dealing with anarchistic societies and demonstrations by international action. The plan proposed is the appointment of an International Commission to discuss the whole subject in conferences with like commissioners appointed by other countries. Details of the process of hunting down the anarchists of all countries are not supplied. They are left to the imagination mostly. Therefore, the only comment that occurs to us at this point is that an international commission would scarcely be able to devise or execute more drastic means for hunting down anarchists than those which Russia adopted and put in force against nihilists. Yet it is remembered that, in spite of everything, they compassed the death of Alexander II. in broad daylight in the streets of St. Petersburg, and blew up a train on which his successor was travelling from Odessa to Moscow. It does not follow from these facts that no steps should be taken to hunt down those who plot against the lives of rulers. The facts do serve to show how difficult is the problem we have to deal with.

Taking up the subject of separate State action, Mr. Dos Passos thinks that the laws of New York against unlawful assemblages are already ample, but that the penalty for assembling to commit an injury to person or property or a breach of the peace should be made a felony, instead of a misdemeanor. We agree to this also; but let us remark, in passing, that nobody who has made up his mind to play the part of an anarchist by taking the life of a ruler will be deterred from attending a forbidden assemblage by the legal difference between felony and misdemeanor. Closely following this suggestion, Mr. Dos Passos says:

> "I would add a section to it, making it a felony punishable as to members two years, and as to officers ten years, in State prison, to belong to or aid or contribute to the support of any society having for its object the overthrow of this or any foreign Government, or the killing or attempted killing of any supreme ruler or officer thereof. Of course, I am now merely throwing out rough suggestions."

This suggestion seems to us much too "rough," for, if it had been in force four years ago, it would have subjected the members of the Cuban society in this country of which Mr. Estrada Palma was the head, to punishment by imprisonment from two to ten years. It would have subjected the Kossuth societies of 1849 to similar punishment. The Fenians and other organizations conspiring to overthrow English rule in Ireland would have been equally under the ban, and, to go further back, our Revolutionary fathers would have sinned against the same law. However, we welcome Mr. Dos Passos's letter as one of the saner communications of the hour, one of those which bring the light of reason to bear upon much reckless writing and speech that can hardly be distinguished from anarchical literature itself.

What looks like a step backward is the decision of the Virginia Constitutional Convention to omit from the new Constitution which it is framing a provision regarding free speech that is found in the old one. The Bill of Rights in that State now contains this section:

> "That the freedom of the press is one of the great bulwarks of liberty, and can never be restrained but by despotic governments. And any citizen may speak, write, and publish his sentiments on all subjects, being responsible for the abuse of that liberty."

A committee reported in favor of striking out the second of these sentences, and an attempt in the Convention to restore the clause was defeated by a vote of 28 to 23. The incident occurred a few days after Mr. McKinley was shot, and the action would naturally be attributed to that crime. Indeed, the chairman of the committee responsible incidentally referred to the assassination of President McKinley, and added: "It does seem to me that we have had a lesson in this country of the evils that will come of allowing a man, or rather a woman, to speak for ever on all subjects, subject to their liability to the law. We should not encourage it." The main reason which he assigned, however, was the fact that the clause in question was "the work of aliens"—meaning that it was added to the original section by the convention, largely

controlled by "carpet-baggers," which met in 1868, during the reconstruction era—and that their work ought to be undone. Practically nothing is accomplished by such action.

The steel strike has come and gone, has lasted in all several weeks, and has succeeded in closing a great number of mills. Besides this, it has hampered production in many more, and has cut down our exports of steel and steel products by very considerable amounts. Yet the general prosperity of the country has not been materially interfered with, and trade and industry have continued in an exceedingly satisfactory condition. Some industries have been troubled temporarily by scarcity of material, but they have either imported what they needed, raising their prices correspondingly, or have employed substitutes of some kind. The sympathetic strikes called for by Shaffer and his colleagues have not been declared, for men were too busily employed at good wages, and felt too little sympathy with the issue at stake, to enter the industrial lists for mere sentiment. From the large economic point of view the strike is instructive. Not only has it displayed wonderful strength on the part of capital—strength hitherto unknown in such contests—but it has severely tested some maxims that had become "blessed words" with writers on industrial subjects. According to all authorities, the time when a strike may be initiated with good prospect of success is when the industry in question is prosperous, markets are rising, and trade generally is good. Under such circumstances, theorists say, the owners of labor have the whip-hand, and can practically dictate terms. How miserably inadequate such a theory is, when thus simply stated, is plain from the fact that the Steel Corporation has been able to collect large forces of men ready and willing to take the places of the strikers, and would undoubtedly have started the mills in a very short time had the strike not been terminated. The trouble was that the Amalgamated Association did not control labor, but was a small oligarchy unsuccessfully trying to maintain old methods, restrict production, and secure high wages when many competent men were anxiously awaiting an opportunity to compete.

An important feature of the agreement entered into by Shaffer on behalf of the Amalgamated Association has only just been made public. It amounts to a promise not to attempt to extend the Amalgamated Association to non-union mills during the coming year. Shaffer undertakes that the Amalgamated will issue no lodge charters to local unions organized in specified mills before July 1, 1902. His record in the past has not been such as to inspire confidence in his promises. If such confidence could be felt, it would be clear that the new agreement practically confines the Amalgamated to its present limits, and prevents even the possibility of growth, for a twelvemonth. Thus the Trust seeks to retain its hold on the ground won by it in the recent fight. After next July, the work of reorganizing the lost mills may recommence. But any progress in that direction will be hindered by the further clause in the strike settlement whereby the annual wage conference has been sacrificed. With that gone, the Amalgamated has little to live for. What is most important of all, however, is the fact that its members have in large numbers become thoroughly alienated from the organization. Shaffer or no Shaffer, this lack of interest will prevent growth for years to come.

The game which the machine Democrats of Philadelphia have been playing as the subservient tools of the corrupt Republican machine has strained the patience of the decent Democrats of that city to the breaking-point, and on Friday the break came. The Democratic County Convention met and, without regard to the advice of ex-Gov. Pattison, Chairman of the City Committee, and of Col. Guffey, the Democratic National Committeeman for Pennsylvania, nominated a "straight" Democratic ticket, not even endorsing District Attorney Rothermel, who has been renominated by the reform forces. As soon as the Convention, which was made up almost solely of the members of the Democratic ring known to coöperate with the Ashbridge plunderers, had done its work, Chairman Pattison tendered his resignation, and, with Col. Guffey, announced that a new Democratic City Committee would be organized which would coöperate with the union reform forces. Chairman Pattison's resignation was to be expected under the circumstances, for he could not retain the confidence of decent men and remain at the head of the Democratic machine as at present constituted. The determination to form a new committee and rally honest Democrats to the support of the union reform movement furnishes more ground for hope than any previous effort of ex-Gov. Pattison in this emergency.

The selection of Seth Low as their candidate for Mayor by the conferees who represented the eighteen anti-Tammany organizations, last week, was finally reached through an almost unanimous vote of the conferees, by a process of elimination. It was plainly desirable that the anti-Tammany candidate should be a man who, in either public or private life, had opposed Tammany effectively in recent times; but different objections appeared to render unavailable the Comptroller, the District Attorney, the Justice of Special Sessions who has coöperated with the prosecuting officer, and the Chairman of the Committee of Fifteen. In a city where a large majority of the voters are Democrats, and where success for the anti-Tammany candidate depends upon his receiving considerable Democratic support, it was plainly desirable that this candidate should be a man of independent mind, whose affiliations had been with the Democratic party. Many Democrats were suggested, but different objections were fatal to all of them—such as too great age, failure to command the confidence of the conservative elements, incapacity to make an effective campaign, the ignorance of the general public regarding estimable but little-known citizens, and the charge of being professional politicians. Meanwhile there stood quite apart one man whose fitness to be the anti-Tammany candidate now could not be disputed, because he had been such a candidate before and had acquitted himself well; a man who had been for four years Mayor of the second largest borough; a man who was not advocated by any element among the conferees with the ardor which characterized the support of many others, but against whom hardly one of them felt implacable opposition. Under these circumstances it has for weeks been almost as certain that Mr. Low would be the final choice as that the day set for the selection would come.

Since Mr. Philbin cannot be induced to accept a nomination as District Attorney, the Citizens' Union is eminently justified in putting forward the name of Justice Jerome for that position upon the anti-Tammany ticket. Mr. Jerome has shown by his prosecution of the police matters which have come before him that he possesses exactly the qualities needed to make a successful District Attorney. He is able, aggressive, and full of a determination to promote the ends of justice which cannot be shaken by any number of checks or defeats. There are probably not more than three or four, if so many, citizens of New York, outside of Tammany Hall, who know the condition of the police force as thoroughly as does Mr. Jerome, or are better acquainted with the causes of the city's moral degradation. As a Justice, he has conscientiously striven to treat each case which has come before him with a view to finding a method of dealing with the prisoner, consistent with the ends of justice, which should offer the best chance of helping the prisoner himself. So irreproachable has been his own career, so careful has he been in keeping within the limits of his judicial authority, that Tammany has been unable to make a point against him or to check his "pernicious activity" in any way. The fact that so courageous a judge was at hand with power to follow up police corrup-

tion has been the most encouraging feature of the municipal situation during the last few months. Mr. Jerome's familiarity with the District Attorney's office, in which he was an Assistant under Col. Fellows, is but another reason why his valuable public services should be recognized by the anti-Tammany conferees.

New York has lost a valuable citizen by the death of Simon Sterne, and one whom it could ill afford to spare at the beginning of another effort to free it from its thraldom to Tammany Hall. Against this organization, its methods and aims, Mr. Sterne did some extremely effective work in many previous campaigns, from the Tweed period down, both by his writings and his utterances. But he did not confine these efforts to preëlection periods. In the City Club, the Reform Club, and other organizations his voice was always for independence in politics, non-partisanship in municipal affairs, and good government. Towards these ends he gave many valuable hours to attendance at routine committee meetings, with a generosity which was an inspiration to younger men, and a splendid example of civic devotion to men of his own age and rank. As a lawyer, his position among the leaders of the New York and, indeed, of the entire American bar was unquestioned. There are few left whose knowledge of railroad and Constitutional law is as profound as was his. Never an office-seeker, he was ever ready to serve the public when called upon, and his willingness to do so led to his services being called for by the Board of Trade, the Chamber of Commerce, the Interstate Commerce Commission, and other bodies. Both Gov. Tilden and Gov. Morton recognized the public value of his character and abilities.

Vessels arriving at Tacoma from the sealing grounds in Bering Sea report that an unusually small catch is being made for this season. No vessel concerning which information has been received had taken more than eighty seals down to August 21, while there were many whose voyage had been wholly fruitless. This experience indicates that the gloomy predictions concerning the future of the sealing industry are gradually being realized, for this year's catch is so small that even the officers of the vessels engaged admit that the extermination of the seal is in sight. None of the reasons assigned for small catches in previous years can be admitted in this instance, for the conditions under which the vessels have been operating are unusually favorable. Each year's experience points more and more directly to the conclusion that some measures looking to the protection of the female seals and the old males must be adopted. Pelagic sealing must be prohibited; but to do this the international deadlock on the subject must somehow be broken. The United States could better afford to cede the fishing rights for which it has contended than to have the process of extermination completed.

The annual report of the so-called "Rope Trust," officially known as the Standard Rope and Twine Company, emphasizes the moral which we drew last week from the case of the English cotton combination. The Standard Company is the successor of the more or less famous National Cordage, which played a somewhat conspicuous rôle in the first craze over "Trust" incorporation, ten years ago. That company paid dividends at the rate of 7 per cent. on a share capital of $20,000,000, and the price of its shares rose to extraordinary figures. It went into bankruptcy in 1893, three months after distributing $250,000 dividends, which, as it soon appeared, were paid out of working capital. Its successor company scaled down the total capital some 25 per cent., and has made no payments on the half of it placed as stock. Yet its report for the twelve months ending June 30 shows that even these much-reduced annual charges were not earned by the year's operations, the shortage in profit-and-loss account approaching half a million dollars. A fortnight ago, another industrial combination created in the movement of 1899 had to make a similar confession. In its first fourteen months of corporate existence, the Republic Iron and Steel Company, organized with a capital of $47,000,000, paid 7 per cent. on its preferred stock, and reported a surplus of $2,200,000. In the next twelve months, lately completed, it had to borrow $1,100,000 from its surplus to meet this cumulative dividend.

The report of the financial distress of the Colombian Government throws grave doubt upon the ability of its Administration to cope successfully with the revolution. Notwithstanding the fact that seventy or eighty per cent. of the population are said to sympathize with the new movement, it might still be possible for the authorities to retain power could they keep the army in hand, for it is strong enough to deal an effective blow to the revolution. In order to retain control of the troops, the Government must, however, pay them liberally and promptly—a policy not hitherto pursued, since about $45,000 is now due for back pay to a single division. Even this situation would not necessarily be fatal if the tax-paying power of the country had not been severely strained. The lowness of the level reached by Colombian finance is made plain by the reported decline of the paper peso to less than three cents, and the continued appreciation of gold. No such low quotation could have been reached unless hope of relief through taxation were almost dead. The use of forced loans indicates that the last resources of a bankrupt Government are being employed.

Among the French Socialists the Czar's visit has aroused various emotions. That certain leaders of the proletariat should seek to exploit the overt friendliness of a tyrannical empire and a bourgeois republic, and should find in the pomp of the fêtes an argument for the social revolution, was inevitable. Generally the Socialist town councils which have been most eager to go on record against the imperial visit have been held well in check by the Socialist allies of the Ministry; and, opportunely enough, M. Jaurès's new doctrine of "Parliamentary Socialism" was announced only a fortnight or so before the Czar's arrival at Dunkirk. The incident at Rheims on Friday night shows that the Government's Socialist friends may be quite as much of an embarrassment as its enemies. The Socialist Mayor of Rheims "monsieured" his Majesty throughout a banquet, plied him with the best Rheims champagne, clinked glasses with him, and generally made him feel at home among the other *citoyens*. Thus the perfect equality of a Socialist Mayor and a great monarch was triumphantly established. To the Czar the experience must have afforded a novel entertainment. The committee whose duty it is to keep the republic on its good behavior must have taken a less kindly view of these unscheduled convivialities.

An extreme example of protectionism is found in a peculiar clause of the new Australian Tariff Bill, which provides that all vessels coming from abroad must pay duty on the provisions consumed by the passengers and crews while in port. It makes no difference if the supplies have been brought from home by the vessel and are merely used during its stay in harbor. Whatever the source of the stores, duty must be paid on them. Inasmuch as many vessels call at several Australian ports, requiring more than a week to make the round, the imposition of the tariff on their supplies will materially increase their running expenses. Such a provision is the precise opposite of the English practice, which permits vessels to carry with them abundant supplies, duty free, when making the round of the different ports. The imposition of the tax is likely to amount to discrimination against English vessels and in favor of German and French ships, of which, according to the London *Economist*, the tax cannot be collected. The impost represents a most excessive application of protection to home industries, since it amounts to practical compulsion to buy ships' stores in the local Australian market, instead of starting with a full supply for the journey.

THE MOURNING.

The impressiveness of the latest proof that one touch of nature makes the whole world kin, was in some ways unexampled. The popular and official mourning abroad for President McKinley was on such a scale as to imply a solidarity of nations like that dreamed of by the revolutionists of 1848. It was, however, displayed by an England momentarily drawn to us by Imperialistic filibustering; and by France in the midst of a reception of the Tsar designed to convince her hereditary foes on either side that the shadowy "alliance" with Russia is a powder-and-shot reality. In the formal give-and-take of potentates we are simply getting our share; and as we multiply our political points of contact with foreign Powers, exchanges of felicitations and condolences are liable at any time to be put to the test of situations in which the "natural man" habitually asserts himself.

Similar reflections suggest themselves on analyzing the domestic expression of sorrow and respect for the murdered Chief Magistrate. It might be interpreted as a solemn protest against the lawlessness which is the badge of the assassin and his kind. We have heard, however, ministers of the gospel, while certifying to Mr. McKinley's Christian character, regret that Czolgosz was not torn to pieces on the spot; and it has been painfully evident that the mob spirit has everywhere been aroused in resentment at the crime of September 6. Thousands, it is true, have entertained this spirit in thought, or breathed it in words, to one who has joined in giving it practical effect; but, in far too many instances, petty persecution or brutal violence, even to tarring and feathering and expulsion, has been visited on the unfeeling creatures who exulted in the President's death. We have, in fact, witnessed throughout the country a measurable reflection of the treatment accorded to Tories during the Revolution, over which the decent apologist of the Fathers seeks to draw a veil. A certain portion of the press has barely refrained from exciting violence, as well as odium, against those who, in times past, have, in other journals, in public addresses, or through any of the recognized avenues of free speech, judged President McKinley unfavorably; and this is an ominous sign of the times. There was a period when slavery, and again the Union, were the sacred objects to be protected by such terrorizing, but that was when both were in peril. Now, death, like a despot, has closed and locked the doors and set seals on a finished public character, and rage is vented on those who furnished that current criticism on which the historian depends for a just understanding of the man and his epoch.

In all these truly anarchistic manifestations, we do not say that the hideous Southern lynchings find their explanation; but can any thoughtful mind fail to discern in them a reason for the growing indifference to these lynchings which is more dangerous than they? It was characteristic of the cruelties of slavery that the master's punishment bore no necessary proportion to the offence. How could it when passion might be gratified without fear of public opinion or of legal consequences? The moment unpopular opinion and expression are permitted to be dealt with otherwise than according to law, the penalty is again certain to be unrelated in severity to the offence. Outrage upon national feeling may by any mob be placed among capital crimes, and it makes no difference whether that feeling is idolatry for institutions, or sorrow and resentment for the assassin's disturbance of the body politic. The abolitionists experienced this to the full, pure as were their aims, and their instrumentalities only moral. When Frederick Douglass, at Syracuse, in 1850, declared Washington, Jefferson, and Patrick Henry (slaveholders all) 'strangers to any just idea of Liberty," a journal of the day marvelled that "no hand was raised to fell the speaker to the earth"; and a New York contemporary, anticipating Douglass's presence at an anti-slavery meeting in this city, warned him that if he "shall reproclaim his Syracuse treason here, and any man shall arrest him in his diabolical career, and not injure him, thousands will exclaim, in language of patriotic love for the Constitution and the rights of the South, *'Did he not strike the villain dead?'* "

We recently commented on some statistics collected by the Chicago *Tribune* regarding illegal executions throughout the Union. Massachusetts was among the four States free from the blot of lynchings during the past sixteen years. How accidental this was, appears from what happened on Cape Cod on the day of the funeral ceremonies at Washington for the dead President. The coachman of ex-Secretary Olney was overheard to say that the shooting was a good thing, and that President McKinley should have been shot long ago. Some one made affidavit to this effect. There was an indignation movement among the citizens; Mr. Olney was informed of the matter, and it was reported that the man had been discharged. As there was no affidavit to this, however, "one hundred citizens, representing about one-third of the voting population" of the village, "determined to give Conway [the coachman] a coat of tar and feathers" on Wednesday night. Not finding him at large, they proceeded to Mr. Olney's house to ascertain his whereabouts, but Mr. Olney refused to take any notice of them, even by so much as showing himself when they called him out. Now they might, by mob law, have considered this incivility worthy of the treatment intended for Conway, and perhaps in their hearts they did. Still, wishing to see what persuasion would do, "the crowd sang 'Nearer, My God, to Thee' and 'America,' and made repeated but fruitless efforts to bring a response from Mr. Olney." They then repaired to the town hall and resolved that Mr. Olney's course was "an insult to American citizenship," and finally hung an effigy to a telegraph-pole.

We do not think this needs much comment even from some pulpits we could name. Massachusetts escaped once more the lynching black-list; but if Mr. Olney was really secreting his servant, or refused to betray him to an evil-disposed body of citizens who had no guarantee to give that they would stop short with tarring and feathering the man, we can only say he got off more lightly than he would have done south of Mason and Dixon's line, where mobs are not content with hymn-singing and effigies. Some blushing will perhaps begin now that such scenes are possible in a Massachusetts town. The coachman—granting that he was not traduced or drunk—was akin to Czolgosz to the extent of his heartless remark. But how much removed from either were "the hundred citizens, representing about one-third of the voting population" of the town, who had a chance to resolve against him as well as against Mr. Olney and still remain law-abiding? As it is, they have brought both law and religion into contempt.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR YELLOW JOURNALISM.

The theory, which has been seriously advanced, that Czolgosz was led to assassinate President McKinley by reading a certain daily newspaper, is without a particle of evidence, and is an affront to common sense. One might with as much reason have argued that Guiteau was impelled to kill President Garfield in 1881 by reading the bitter diatribes in Republican newspapers during that period of heated factional controversy in the Republican party which preceded the assassination. Hardly less justifiable have been the more extreme complaints regarding the treatment of the late President by yellow journals, going, as they often have virtually gone, to the length of declaring that public men must be relieved from criticism by the writer or the cartoonist.

Freedom of legitimate discussion must be maintained. If any editor or any public man feels persuaded that a President is working harm to the republic, he must have the right to say so plainly and emphatically. A year and a half ago, Mr. Hoar, the veteran Republican Senator from Massachusetts, was profoundly convinced that the policy pur-

sued by the Administration was one so utterly bad that "perseverance in it will be the abandonment of the principles upon which our Government is founded, that it will change our republic into an empire"; and he so declared, in the most impressive manner, in a speech delivered before the Senate on the 17th of April, 1900. The right of any public man—and of any newspaper editor—to say such severe things as this about any President must be preserved, and it will be a sad day for the republic when there are no Senators ready to speak the truth as they see it. So, too, we must render it possible always for a Nast to expose a Tweed, or a Keppler a Blaine, in a cartoon which puts a whole argument in a single picture.

The real offence of yellow journalism is not so much that it holds a public man up to undeserved ridicule, or visits upon him censure which he does not deserve, as that its pervading spirit is one of vulgarity, indecency, and reckless sensationalism; that it steadily violates the canons alike of good taste and sound morals; that it cultivates false standards of life, and demoralizes its readers; that it recklessly uses language which may incite the crack-brained to lawlessness; that its net influence makes the world worse. A force working to such ends surely ought to be restrained, and public opinion ought to be brought to bear against it in the most effective possible ways. There has been much discussion as to the responsibility for this sort of journalism, but the real blame surely rests upon the community which sustains it. Fortunately, too, this responsibility can be narrowed down. Those most to blame for the existence of any evil are the people who could do most to suppress it, by giving the force of their example, as well as their words, against it. One can, and should, "have nothing to do with him" in the case of any private citizen who has forfeited public respect by gross misconduct; refuse to go to his house, to recognize him on the street, to endorse his course in any way. Precisely the same thing can and should be done in the case of a newspaper.

It is a disagreeable truth, but one which ought to be told, that yellow journalism, in its worst New York exemplar, stood upon a higher plane of respectability on the day Mr. McKinley was shot than ever before, because it had just secured the endorsement of a number of the most prominent men in the community; because an eminent bishop of the church had become a contributor to its columns; because other well-known clergymen, lawyers, and business men had followed this leadership; because it was thus enabled, with apparent truth, to boast not only that it was a most reputable publication, but that it was of all newspapers in New York the one which offered the best medium for public teachers to employ. The dead walls of this city two weeks ago were placarded with great posters displaying this certificate of good character. But the *Journal* was just the same newspaper when it was given this certificate that it had always been; it was unchanged when it published communications on labor and capital by these highly respectable and influential men. They knew its character well when they agreed to furnish such articles. They ought to have known, too, that it wanted simply the endorsement of their names in order to convince doubters that it was a fit paper for the home. They ought also to have known that the readers would turn from their articles to pages of scandal, vulgarity, indecency, and sensationalism. They sinned against the light.

"Why will people buy such a newspaper?" has been the most common question. Why should they not buy it, when our best men write for it? Why should we expect people not to patronize a paper which can advertise that it is vouched for by leaders in the church, in law, in finance? With what force can we condemn a newspaper for its vulgarity, indecency, and general demoralization, with what force can we criticise the ignorant and the untrained for reading such a paper, when our very teachers of morality pronounce it a fit instructor for them? These are the questions we must now ask.

What this community needs is not diatribes against the conductors of yellow journals, or against the buyers of them. It needs the general adoption by our business men, our lawyers, our clergymen, our men of light and leading, of the only effective method for discouraging such journals, as exemplified, more than three years ago, by an ex-President. On the 27th of February, 1898, W. R. Hearst telegraphed to Grover Cleveland that Levi P. Morton, Gen. Miles, Rear-Admiral Selfridge, William C. Whitney, O. H. P. Belmont, George Gould, C. M. Depew, Gen. O. O. Howard, the Governors of fifteen States, the Mayors of fifty-two cities, and a large number of other citizens in public and private life, had accepted membership on his committee to erect a national monument by popular subscription to the men who went down with the *Maine*, and asked permission to add the ex-President's name to the list of national committeemen. This reply was sent as soon as the wires could carry it:

"PRINCETON, N. J., February 28, 1898.
"To W. R. Hearst, New York *Journal*, New York:
"I decline to allow my sorrow for those who died on the *Maine* to be perverted to an advertising scheme for the New York *Journal*. GROVER CLEVELAND."

AN IMPORTANT OFFICE.

The appointment of William B. Ridgely of Illinois to the office of Comptroller of the Currency is, of course, no surprise. For some time prior to the assassination of President McKinley it had been an open secret that Illinois was to be permitted to retain its "mortgage" on the office, and that the son-in-law of Senator Cullom would be the next Comptroller. An unfortunate disposition to keep the appointment in politics, instead of making it a recognition of broad practical skill or theoretical knowledge, was thus manifested, and the mere recognition of what was already decided cannot properly, therefore, be imputed to President Roosevelt for unrighteousness. While, however, Mr. Ridgely owes his office to political influence, it should be recognized that he has a better preparation for duty than many of his predecessors. He has had some practical experience in banking, and is therefore in a certain way better qualified than men who had never seen the inside of a bank save as customers, and had never read a line on the theoretical aspects of the subject.

The coming of a new appointee to such an office as that of Comptroller suggests some sober reflections upon the responsibilities attaching thereto. A community which can treat the Comptrollership as political spoils is likely to forget the nature of the duties of the office, and to overlook the fact that it should be much more than a Government sinecure, or even a position to be filled by some man of little ability and merely faithful to the routine duties of each day's work. The office of Comptroller under the present organization of the national banking system is one of commanding importance, and there is no single man in the country who can do more than an informed and tactful Comptroller to keep the country off the rocks of speculative and credit inflation by insisting upon a sound basis for bank loans, and the maintenance of an adequate reserve. There is no man who, with the immense volume of information at his command, is in better position to sound the call for retreat when the financial institutions of the country have incautiously advanced too far upon dangerous ground, and to warn the ignorant public of coming danger. Besides this general function as an advance guard to the soundness of the country's prosperity, the daily duties of the office in closing unsound, and winding up the affairs of failed, banks, are such as require immense firmness and courage, as well as a high degree of insight into banking organization. Finally, a most important service to the study of banking is performed in the publication of the Comptroller's annual report.

Of these three functions the first has seldom of late years been exercised. It is true that various Comptrollers have had much to say of "currency reform," but their predictions as to financial conditions have usually come after instead

of before the fact, and their knowledge of banking has been too superficial, limited, or hastily acquired to make their general observations worth notice. Professor von Holst says that "an observance of the ten commandments never made a statesman." In like manner, ordinary common sense, the control of votes in primaries, even shaving notes in a country town, or groping in the vaults of a city bank, never endowed any one with financial perspicacity and grasp of general conditions.

The routine work of the office has often been performed with efficiency and dispatch. Men who knew nothing of those duties upon entering the office have familiarized themselves with what they had to do, and in time learned to go through the daily routine faithfully and well. But even with such a man in the Comptroller's chair there is the ever-present danger that his entry into office may be followed by no halcyon period of calm, during which a financial genius may be incubated, but that he may encounter rough weather at the outset. A Comptroller's inexperience may seriously derange the whole banking mechanism of the country if troublous times follow his induction into office. Even the well-meaning though incompetent man has often been lacking. There have been too many cases where flagrant appointments of receivers, bank examiners, and others made for political ends have prostituted the large and profitable appointive power of the Comptroller to the basest uses. Mr. Dawes himself has not been free from this very reproach, and in his own State has carefully used his appointive power to prepare the ground for the Senatorial honor that he covets.

While it is in these practical aspects that bankers and men of affairs will judge a Comptroller, the function of issuing a comprehensive annual report will appeal more strongly to the theoretical student of banking. It is safe to say that nowhere in the world can be found so complicated and extensive a mechanism as our national banking system. No Government officer in Europe or America has the means to collect such a volume of information, or one of such recognized and universal value to students. No investigator is offered such a wonderful tool of research as the Comptroller's office rightly used. Students who now read the official writings of John Jay Knox can feel only admiration at the breadth of view and the powerful grasp displayed in his reports. As compared with the classic writings of Knox, illustrated here and there by a few illuminating tables of statistics, the current volumes present but a shabby contrast. A vast aggregation of ill-arranged figures, gathered often with great labor, but quite frequently of no value either to student or practical man of affairs, a badly digested review of the year in which the report appears—perhaps an investigation of some minor point suggested by a half-baked student of banking, or a few trite suggestions for legislation—these are all that the Comptroller now has to offer. By the side of such reports as those of the Austrian Statistical Office, based on far less wealth of material, but employing the pens of the keenest statistical experts, the work of our Comptroller's office makes a poor showing.

To act as helmsman and pilot to the credit institutions of the country, honestly to safeguard the interests of stockholders and creditors of mismanaged banks, without favor or hope of political reward, to initiate and continue reforms in bank examination, to pursue the repression of fraud, to take advantage of an unsurpassed opportunity for the ascertainment of facts for which the world is anxiously waiting, is mark enough for the ambition of any man. But no such ideal can be attained until the office of Comptroller is taken out of politics and made the prize, not of any favorite son or son-in-law, but of eminence in practical banking or in theoretical investigation. The Comptroller's office should not be a place of apprenticeship for bank presidents. It calls for the exercise of knowledge, and not its acquirement.

THE LATEST FAILURE OF CO-OPERATION.

The dispatches from the fishing port of Grimsby, at the mouth of the Humber, on the northeast coast of England, indicate the approach of a climax in the labor dispute which has brought that place near to ruin during the past few months. Until this dispute arose, there were few ports in the world that could compete with Grimsby in the amount or value of their daily catch of fish. A large number of vessels were constantly employed in the North Sea, and furnished work to several thousand fishermen. Within recent years there has been a change in the nature of the industry, and sailing vessels that were owned and commanded by the same man have had to give place to steam trawlers owned by limited-liability companies. In this way the fishing industry has been exploited by capital, and, as in so many other occupations, small independent producers have had to become employees in the business they once controlled. The more scientific exploitation of the fishing business has resulted primarily in diminishing the quantity of fish to be had. Not only are the steam trawlers free from the limitations imposed by the weather upon the old fishing smacks, but they also gather in many small fish that are of no value. It is said that twenty immature fish are sacrificed for every one of sufficient size caught. Under these circumstances it has been necessary to make longer voyages and to be content with much smaller hauls. Larger supplies of coal and other stores have unavoidably been carried, and more has been paid in wages for small catches of fish.

The decrease in product and the increase in expense have gone so far that the owners' association has for some time been searching for a means of economizing. Hitherto the officers of the vessels have been employed upon a coöperative plan, and have received payment in proportion to the success of each voyage. Common seamen, on the other hand, have been paid weekly wages. The companies, in their search for modes of reducing expenses, finally decided to offer the coöperative plan to all employees, and to make wages depend upon the success of the vessels engaged. It was thought that such a plan would result in greater activity on the part of the men, and would save the companies from serious loss in case of unsuccessful voyages. The terms thus proposed were, however, rejected, on the ground that the men could not take any risk; and even when the offer was amended by the insertion of maximum and minimum points, beyond which the risk should not extend, it was contended that employees "could not afford" to have their wages "fluctuate" in such a way. On the other hand, the officers of the fishing vessels, who had all along been working on the coöperative plan, suddenly became dissatisfied, and complained that they had been unjustly treated in consequence of the high price of the provisions furnished to the vessels, so that they were mulcted of their legitimate profits on settling days. Thus a highly complicated labor problem was presented, and the resultant strike has now brought the town to the verge of starvation and anarchy.

Involved as this particular situation is, the principle at stake is very simple, and rests merely upon the old question of methods of industrial remuneration. Shall the laborer be paid upon the basis of product turned out, or shall his remuneration be fixed beforehand and depend merely upon the outcome of competition? And, granting that the cooperative principle is to be employed, shall not the worker be guaranteed at all events a "living wage"? At this point, of course, difficulties begin. Just what a "living wage" should be, no one has yet been able to say. According to Dr. Johnson, "no man will be a sailor who has contrivance to get himself into a gaol." If his remark be true, living wages ought, perhaps, to be very high in the fishing industry, if we mean such wages as will induce men to work. Some have attempted to define living wages as "the rate of pay that will support men in ordinary comfort and enable them to bring forward a normal supply of population"—a criterion more useful in academic discussion than in the settlement

of practical questions. The controversy about living wages, in fact, seems so impossible and out of harmony with the known conditions of human life that it is hardly worth while to continue it. Reduced to the aphorism that the world owes every man a living, it has been pretty thoroughly drummed out of the popular mind.

The battle over the coöperative question is nearly as barren as that over living wages. The Grimsby fishing dispute throws a glaring side-light upon the well-known weakness of coöperation, since it presents men not as clamoring in the familiar way for coöperation, but as making complaint against it. It puts the fishermen in the light of insisting that fixed wages shall be paid them, whether the industry produces anything or not. It puts the officers of the vessels on record as beginning to complain of coöperation when trade is bad, although satisfied with it when times are good. No more striking commentary upon the coöperative question could be made than the statement that the men "could not afford to have their wages fluctuate." The fact is, that experience has shown that bodies of men are always willing to have their wages fluctuate upward, but never downward. They are willing to share profits, but they are never ready to divide losses. They believe in profit-sharing, but they turn with disgust from deficit-sharing.

There is one point upon which laborers and the labor school of economists never seem clear—it is the source from which wages are paid. Apparently, they expect capital to act as a buffer, taking all the risks of loss in industry, but never insisting on corresponding gains, thus violating the principles of insurance, and blinking the fact that profits are far more of the nature of winnings than of earnings, and that fat seasons must be averaged with lean, profitable industries with unprofitable. Coöperators cannot apply their favorite patent medicine for discontent only to healthy industries, and leave the sick ones to languish.

THE FRANCO-RUSSIAN ALLIANCE.

Just five years ago the present Czar visited Paris, and the transports of the populace showed clearly that they not only approved the Russian alliance, but were firmly convinced that the pact, the reality of which was denied on many sides, was firmly knit. Not long before the Parisian fêtes, Bismarck had cynically revealed his *chef d'œuvre* of duplicity, the secret convention between Germany and Russia, which, until 1890, made Germany's position as head of the Triple Alliance one of the hollowest insincerity. At the time of the Czar's visit, François Charmes, the veteran chronicler for the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, remarked, "Bismarck was perhaps wrong to expose prematurely one of his master strokes to the admiration, or rather to the imitation, of the world." The implication that President Faure or Hanotaux, then Minister for Foreign Affairs, had shown a Bismarckian astuteness in gaining the Russian alliance, did them too much honor. As a matter of fact, although then and now French enthusiasm has been more to the fore, it was Russia, not France, that was looking for an ally.

Russia had brought out of the war with Turkey something very like a national humiliation. Grave disaster had been averted only through the assistance of Rumania; and when Constantinople, the goal of centuries of Russian aspiration, was in sight, the Czar found himself checked by an "unholy alliance" of the Powers which asserted the Beaconsfieldian doctrine of the integrity of the Ottoman Empire. The victory thus proved a hollow one, and the isolation of Russia in Europe became strikingly apparent. In 1889, a year before the equivocal convention with Germany had expired, it was possible for Alexander III. to toast the Prince of Montenegro as "Russia's only sincere and faithful friend."

France, at the western end of Europe, was still smarting under the defeat of 1871, and was, like Russia, without allies, and surrounded by neighbors suspicious, traditionally hostile, or actively unfriendly. It needed little to bring these two isolated nations together. On the occasion of the visit of the French squadron to Cronstadt in 1891, Alexander III. rose at the playing of the "Marseillaise," and later toasted the "profound sympathies that unite the two countries." The declarations of friendship by Russia became, with a certain coquetry, ever more outspoken. When the Russian fleet in 1893 visited Toulon, the "sympathies" of the previous occasion had become "bonds which unite the two countries." By 1896, when the young Czar and the Czarina were tumultuously received in Paris, these "bonds" had become "precious," and "brotherhood in arms" had been ventured. Meanwhile, the French investing classes had absorbed vast quantities of Russian bonds of a more tangible nature. The privilege of first pronouncing the now famous words *nations amies et alliées*, was reserved for President Faure, when, in 1897, he repaid the Czar's visit. He himself has left the record of the adroitness and tact with which he carried his amiable person and his historic white gaiters through the intricacies of imperial ceremonial.

It has often been said that in all these transactions France played the monkey to Russia, to whom all the chestnuts were sure to fall. Such a judgment underestimated the value of the motive of national self-respect. From the Franco-Prussian war France had been practically ignored in the councils of Europe; from the time that the alliance with Russia was generally known, no European reckoning which left France out was valid. Mere glory this, one might say, but it would be to misread the testimony of French history not to see that glory has ever played a major part in French affairs.

The present visit of the Czar to France and the appropriate festivities will be followed by the usual bond subscription in Paris, but the deeper import of the event is simply this, that it shows to the Powers of Europe, and particularly to the Triple Alliance, that the friendship between France and Russia remains unshaken. For the French Ministry, the visit is timely. A general enthusiasm which will deafen the ranting of the Nationalists and still the snarling of the more radical Socialists, is a sound political asset; and the Parliamentary elections are not far away. It is more difficult to see any ultimate advantage to France—except the gratification of national *amour-propre* already mentioned—from the continuance of the alliance. For some years past, France has been the freer to act in Africa because Russia was her ally, but that has not prevented the snub at Fashoda; nor, in any event, would the advance towards Morocco and the Niger have been opposed by England. France and Russia have, however, had the satisfaction, if such it be, of turning the Beaconsfieldian doctrine on Great Britain, and preventing interference with the Turks in Armenia. In general, it must be said that the strength of the alliance in France rests upon a national instinct which, if not wholly rational, is, nevertheless, irresistible and likely to be enduring.

Russia, on the contrary, finds enormous potential advantages in the alliance. Some day the story of the passage of the Balkans may repeat itself, and, with France on Russia's side, no future Congress of Berlin could arrest the victorious armies of the Czar within sight of Constantinople. One might exhaust speculation in conjuring up further possibilities of this brotherhood in arms; for it should not be forgotten that, as the nature of the Czar's reception indicates, this is a military alliance or nothing; but mere facile readjustments of the map of Europe have ceased to be amusing. It is clear enough, from what has been said, that if the "marriage," as "Félisque" Faure loved to call it, is ever dissolved, the provocation is not likely to come from Russia.

A PHILIPPINE EXCURSION.

JOLO, August 2, 1901.

A high wind was churning the shallow waters of Manila Bay into white-capped hills and ridges when the United States Army transport *Lawton* set forth on her cruise among the southern islands. On his official

tour of inspection, for the purpose of reorganization and consolidation, thereby effecting a large reduction in military expenditure, General Corbin had invited to accompany him a number of friends—an unusual opportunity, indeed, to see remote and otherwise inaccessible parts of the archipelago, for those fortunate enough to be included. Almost as beautiful as the far-famed Inland Sea of Japan, the waterways among these exquisite islands have afforded rare effects of color, of sunshine and shadow chasing over smooth green fields or heavily wooded ridges and ravines; while sharp peaks, green to their summits and catching bits of filmy vapor, like shreds of a gauze veil softening every outline, rise from countless islands high into the southern sky. Mount Halcon, on Mindoro, reaches an altitude of nearly 9,000 feet from the sea. For scenic beauty alone the trip would be memorable; but landscape and sea and sky have been but the setting.

At Panay Island, in the lovely little bay of Iloilo, second city of importance in the archipelago, the *Lawton* anchored the next evening after starting, just as a flaming sunset turned the rippling waters into dusky scarlet, molten, sombre. Almost entirely destroyed by the insurgents, and rebuilt in modern fashion, Iloilo is remarkably clean and correspondingly unpicturesque. Corrugated iron roofs are undoubtedly convenient to transport, and efficient for their purpose, but they do not add to the decorative effect of a town. One sighs for the old tiles of softened, dingy red, so frequently seen elsewhere in the islands; even for the weather-stained native thatch. The ancient Spanish church is practically all that escaped shot and flame, and here are quaint altar fittings, and paintings, often of painfully suggestive subjects, but interesting withal. To the feminine mind, Iloilo is inseparably connected with the manufacture of *jusi*, that fascinating diaphanous cloth of pineapple fibre, showing gleaming stripes of silk in many delicate shades. Woven by women in their homes, on primitive looms, hours might pass happily in watching the dainty fabric grow under the swiftly flying shuttles of the little brown workers, crouching at their toil. It is sold by the piece of twenty-four Spanish yards. The islands in general present no such bewildering array of tempting articles as China or Japan, but two or three products are famous, besides paper and string. Of them all, this cloth is the most attractive; with probably Manila hats and cigars closely following. Also, to be in strictly good Philippine form, one should collect bolos and other native knives and spears, thousands of which have been turned in by surrendering insurgents, or, in many cases, presented to officers by loyal Filipino leaders. Another fad, less expensive than the purchase of these fine ivory-handled Toledo blades, and indulged in by army ladies and others who may have the opportunity, is the collecting of native hats, oddly peaked, betasselled, flat or spiral, and of many colors and materials. A room exclusively decorated by Filipino hats and knives, with the native mats woven of bamboo, is a far from unattractive apartment.

Panay, in area equal to Connecticut, consists of swampy jungle on its eastern coast, but is finely mountainous on the west, while its interior, as a brilliant young officer stationed at Iloilo remarked, is made up of "everything, from the bad lands of Arizona to the Garden of Eden." As a matter of fact, palms, mangoes, and bamboo flourish luxuriantly, as well as the necessary and more practical hemp and rice. The people are Visayans, with another language from the more widely spread Tagalog, and certain racial differences in addition. At their midday meal they form a curious if unappetizing sight. A barge-load of natives, who had been conveying ashore several tons of commissary supplies from the *Lawton*, were resting and eating alongside during their two hours of noon luxury. Rice and a bright green vegetable soup appeared to be the bill of fare, dipped out from central bowls into the variegated hats of each, from which handfuls were successfully and speedily extracted by the hungry owners. Five or six fistfuls constituted a full meal. One man, producing a very good brim minus the crown of his head-gear, had difficulties in managing his share.

On the way to Calbayog, on Samar Island, occurs some of the most beautiful scenery. A short stop only was made at Calbayog, Samar being one of the few places where more or less desultory fighting is still going on. At Cebu, too, we made but a short stay. The town lies at the head of a pretty bay, on entering which Mactan Island is passed, where the gallant Magellan was killed in a foolish skirmish nearly four hundred years ago, after having discovered and taken possession of the Philippine Islands in the name of Charles I. of Spain. A monument was erected to him, and in the town another monument marks the spot where, in 1521, the first religious service in the islands was held. Native boats at Cebu are even longer and more narrow than those of the north, and the outriggers are more fantastic. It induces an odd feeling of proprietorship to see little American flags flying gayly from these indigenous craft, instead of the Dutch, English, German, or Siamese ensigns proudly fluttering from similar peaks, to which for months we have been accustomed. Here, too, occasional fighting occurs, and some firing into the town takes place every night. But the people about the streets seemed friendly and good-natured, evidently amazed and disappointed if we paid them, without protest, the asking price for the pretty mats woven there.

The towns grew more interesting with every southward mile. At Zamboanga, on Mindanao, we met the first Moros of the trip, again with different characteristics, dress, and language; they are also devout Mohammedans, and firm allies of the Americans, against whom they have never offered the least shadow of revolt. On the beach were drawn up boats of another pattern from those of the north, with high, divided sterns delicately carved and ornamented. Through the middle of the principal street runs a quiet stream, grass-bordered and shady—the town water supply. Both Moro and Filipino villages were gay with scarlet cloth, flags, and white fringes for a three days' fiesta to begin on the morrow. But, even with merry-making in the air, the Moro nipa shacks were still the scene of much industry, old women busily weaving the brilliant red and yellow stripes and plaids in a sort of cotton, worn as sarongs and turbans. The foliage has here a more tropical appearance than in other islands; cocoanut-palm groves abound, with banana and bread-fruit. Tiny rice plants were being set out in the acres of paddy-fields, or else the watery squares were in process of ploughing, the caribao being used for this congenial employment.

Still south the *Lawton* pursued her placid way, past islands dreaming in softened summer haze, or half hidden by sunlit showers sweeping over green valleys and precipitous peaks, until the anchor was again cast—this time at the mouth of the Rio Grande de Mindanao. Seven or eight miles up the river, reached by launches, is the charming little town of Catabato. Fish weirs, dotted over with the black heads of natives at work on their spoil, were conspicuous at first, the river banks later becoming low and heavily wooded, as we rapidly steamed up stream. Vultures on every dead tree, above their huge, straggling nests; monkeys leaping from branch to branch; brilliant blue kingfishers flashing across the water; the peculiar river plant, like a lettuce-head, so frequent everywhere, collecting in little floating islands here and there—every mile of the Rio Grande had its own charm. Streams, large and small, enter the river at intervals, and native rafts, apparently propelled through grass and shrubs, followed a labyrinthine course past shacks, far into the country toward the hills. A company of soldiers, a band, and an impromptu crowd of Moros greeted the arrival at Catabato. Very black, in a minimum of clothes, their brilliant turbans arranged in a cocky point over one ear, their belts full of knives, the Moros watched us interestedly as we strolled through the shady, grass-grown streets to the home of the commanding officer. They flocked around us, offering knives, spears, even shields for very small prices, speaking a sort of Spanish not hard to understand; but their own personality was more curious than anything they had to sell. Had time allowed, however, a very good collection might have been made at Catabato—and of weapons actually in use, not the new iron blades and hastily carved handles already beginning to be offered by the more sophisticated natives elsewhere.

For actual beauty Jolo is the most satisfying town of the trip. The *Burnside*, with Gen. Greely on board, engaged in laying and looking after cables, was found here when we anchored, and three towns, with a truly splendid mountain background, stretched along the shore. At the left of Jolo itself a native village, called locally Bus Bus, shows a long line of nipa shacks and the more pretentious white dwelling of a former wife of the Sultan. On the extreme right another village, Tullie, spreads itself well out into the water, the huts barely raised above high tide on stilt-like foundations, their floors of bamboo, with wide cracks allowing confusing glimpses of gently flowing waves but a few inches below. Landing on the well-built pier, an imposing gateway admits us to the wide, finely shaded street, where shops kept by Indians and Chinese, American soldiers passing back and forth, fine bands playing a variety of modern airs, Filipinos hovering about, Moros curiously following, charming old Spanish gardens separated from the street by low parapets of masonry, fountains tinkling, monuments, and a native market, present a panorama of cosmopolitan combinations never before brought together. Over all is an air of quiet, of unhurried restfulness, of cool repose, which is peculiarly grateful, and caused more than one

member of our company to wish for a long detail in these enchanting shades.

Except among the Negritos, I have noticed no especial evidence of disease. Leprosy does prevail to some extent, but an island, Cagayan, has been set apart as an isolating station, and all known cases are being collected in the hospital at Manila. Already six hundred are being carefully looked after, and the natives are said to assist the army surgeons in their attempts to find the afflicted lepers, instead of hiding them, as the Hawaiians formerly did. The great success of vaccination here, in stamping out smallpox, has inspired the feeling that the other dread disease also may be eradicated by doing as the Americanos wish. In Jolo the climate, while warm, is apparently not enervating. Indeed, nowhere in the islands is that striking paleness, so marked in Singapore and Bangkok, observable in foreigners.

One of the leading Moros invited us to his house, over the sea, into which one ventured by a precarious bridge of bamboo above the waves. Here he exhibited first his knives and embroideries, next his pearls, and then his five wives, of whom the favorite was a stout, good-humored damsel, quite young enough to be his daughter. Of the pearls collected in these waters, over $350,000 worth had been shipped to various countries the day before we reached Jolo, so that those remaining here were not in great numbers, or of especially perfect form and lustre. But several were of great size. Outside the walls of the town is the "knife market," an open space, partly roofed with native mats, where Moros are allowed to come with their weapons for barter. On sorry-looking nags the men and boys galloped up, their brilliant rags fluttering in the breeze, their twisted belts full of knives, spears held aloft, and gay turbans above their straggling black hair. Here we found the constant barong, short and wide-bladed, with handle of ivory or ebony or caribao-horn, inlaid with pearl and ivory, the longer and less frequent wavy blade of the kris, and the still longer, cleft steel of the campilan, its handle ornamented with horsehair tassels. With betel-blackened smiles on their amiable, swarthy faces, and fully aware of the value of their beloved weapons, the Moros told the virtues of each blade in a composite dialect, in which I recognized considerable Malay and more or less Spanish. The experience was as interesting as the relics.

Later in the day a Moro dance was held in the middle of the wide village street, or plaza, and when we arrived a large audience had collected around the roped space. Soldiers leaned on their guns, and pretty Filipino women looked from upper balconies. People of many races—Chinese, Malay, Moro, Filipino, Indian—waited patiently, while each shade-tree held its complement of agile spectators. In the centre were spread large straw mats, and the music had already begun. Two metal drums were hung from trees and beaten by men with padded sticks. Below them a woman squatted on the ground before eight circular bronze implements, in shape like covered bowls, set on two wires stretched in a long box, upon which she played with bare sticks. They appeared to be tuned in some sort of minor scale, but neither the harmonic nor melodic, though the third was true minor. The seventh was lacking. The strange melodies produced were emphatically syncopated, made more jerky by the accent of the big gongs overhead and of two long drums lying upon the ground near by, beaten on their ends of tightly stretched fur by the flat palms of a man and a woman. Spurred on by this apparently exciting music, a man sprang out upon the mat, his face stern and determined, and began to pose and gesticulate. He appeared to hitch himself around by his toes, with hands and arms stiffly yet gracefully curving, rigid yet constantly changing, and held aloft in strange contortions. A second soon joined him, adding to the effect by a peculiar hunching of back and shoulders. In what the especially fine points of the performance consisted, we did not know, but every moment or two the crowd would break into wild cries of joy at certain motions and expressions, as, with head well over the left shoulder, the men pursued one another majestically around the mat. Several sets of dancers followed, generally in trousers of gray or striped cotton, so tight that it seemed their limbs must have been melted and poured in, bright-colored silk jackets with gold buttons, and two or three gay sashes wound and rewound about their waists, through which handsome knives were thrust on the left side, while the right bulged with the safely stowed betel-boxes, of silver or brass. The heads were always encased in brilliant turbans, and frequently some startling scarf was thrown across one shoulder.

Later, two women came upon the scene very shyly, their wide sarongs draped from the neck, their posturing much like the Malay in the Dutch East Indies, with suggestions of the Japanese. Then two little girls appeared, in gorgeously colored brocade, little coats and tight skirts, black hair done up in hard knots and surrounded by gold buttons, their fingers covered with rings, their arms with bracelets. Toward the end two men came on, with spears and shields, and had a dance and mock conflict combined, much to the glee of the crowd, who watched the solemn-faced lunges, the stamping, and the given and evaded thrusts, with shouts and yells of approval. At last the master of ceremonies, an old fellow in a bright yellow turban and very flat face, in which the nostrils made two perpendicular caverns, stepped in and drew the actors apart. One of them had looked so fierce, and had come so near "sticking" his adversary, that I fancied the manager of the ring feared a sort of "amok" spirit was growing, and might break loose. To soothe our disappointment, a man stepped forth and balanced a spear, point downward, upon his tongue, at which the crowd, led by half-a-dozen Americans, broke into applause—a new demonstration to them. And there we sat together, Gen. Corbin; Gen. Greely, Capt. Nichols, Capt. Sage, and other officers equally famous in making this world's history, with two or three ladies—surrounded, as regards one another, by our own atmosphere of social convention, but set in the midst of this wild Moro scene! On the green bank above, a black monkey walked about, surveying us.

As the closing event of this noteworthy afternoon a very old man, fired by remembrance of his youthful prowess, hobbled to the mat, smiling feebly, and uncertainly brandishing spear and shield as if challenging any opponent to mortal combat. This mightily pleased the crowd, which sent up a great shout, doubly augmented when a second grandfather, his toothless mouth working, his face one hieroglyph of wrinkles, crept on to accept the challenge. The old men began, and the crowd went wild with joy. Gradually the years fell from them, their dim eyes flashed, their sunken cheeks filled out, their bony arms seemed infused with iron strength, and they danced about each other, aiming, lunging, parrying, and growing more agile with every moment as their stiffened limbs renewed the early joys of conflict, until a temporary fire of youth seemed to flood their wrinkled bodies and animate the hardened muscles. It was veritably another "Dr. Heidegger's Experiment," with only a long-forgotten activity and applause as the magic potion.

During the evening, while a charming reception, given us by the officers, was in progress, the Sultan of Moro appeared with all his suite. This was a surprise, as his Majesty Hadji Mohammed Jamabul Kiram was reported as many miles distant on a battlefield, where he and a rebellious *dato* have for some weeks been settling their differences. And, indeed, he was arrayed, not in the gold embroidery and sashes of state, but in the green turban and dingy garments of conflict, having heard of the General's arrival and hastened straight from the front to do him honor. With a strong face the Sultan, and one or two men of marked forcefulness in his suite, after his official interview, stood for a few moments watching the American dancing, before returning to his distant camp.

The Moros are proving effective allies in the matter of forestry, which, to our credit be it said, is conducted in the Philippines more extensively and intelligently than we have seen fit to insist upon at home. The bureau was organized by Capt. George P. Ahern of the Ninth Infantry, upon the Spanish system, already in force here for half a century, but more particularly modelled upon the successful form practised in India and Java. We have at present in the archipelago 40,000,000 acres of protected forest, in which concessions for one year are granted under conditions. No tree less than fourteen inches in diameter may be cut, and in some species even larger ones are preserved, while certain rare or especially valuable varieties may not be taken at all. The method of felling is also insisted upon, and is planned to injure as little as possible the trees remaining. It is a delight to learn of the intelligent attention given this important subject here, although trained American foresters are so rare that some of the offices provided for by Congress are still unfilled, owing to the lack of men competent to fill them. Many of the assistants under Mr. McCabe, now Chief of the Bureau, are Filipinos, and in Mindoro a Moro Chief, the Raja Mujdi Mandi, is doing excellent work in looking after all the trees in his province. He is greatly interested in the subject, and sees that the rules are enforced, as no American could do. The Moro method of dealing with infringements is summary and necessarily successful. Heads fall easily under Moro rule. Concessions, however, are withdrawn by the Bureau in every case if conditions are not complied with.

Four islands are especially well wooded,

Mindoro, Paragua, Mindanao, and Basilon, 5,000,000 acres in the first alone being public forest land. Already 884 kinds of trees have been classified, and frequently squared logs from 90 to 120 feet in length are obtained. If Congress but ratifies permanently the fine provisional regulations now in force, we shall be spared the humiliating and disgraceful spectacle so frequent at home of miles of forest cut down indiscriminately, even to saplings, and then burned over, to "clean up" the débris; and our islands will yield a rich revenue from their wealth of timber, scarcely diminished as future generations come upon the scene. In the matter of gutta trees especially the wasteful native method of felling the tree to obtain an inferior and impure quality of gutta is being replaced by the far more remunerative and merciful way now prevalent in Java, of gathering the precious sap from the leaves and bark. A purer article results, and the tree is uninjured, while producing even more in quantity.

MABEL LOOMIS TODD.

THE CABINET OF MEDALS.

PARIS, September 6, 1901.

M. Ernest Babelon, member of the Institute, has recently published a very interesting book on the 'Department of Medals and Antique Gems of the National Library,' commonly called the Cabinet of Medals. This collection is not as often visited as it ought to be; it is not well known, except to a few learned people, and is modestly lodged in a quiet corner of our famous National Library. The numismatic series is of incomparable wealth; the gallery of cameos and intaglios of ancient times and of the Renaissance period is unrivalled. The Cabinet was formed by the Kings of France, as early as the middle-age period. It is easily seen, in all the portraits which we possess of the time of the Valois, that the fashion of wearing gems on the prevailing gorgeous costumes was well established; but long before the Renaissance these antique gems were much admired. We possess catalogues of the gems of Philippe-Auguste, of Jean le Bon, of Charles V. and his brothers, of the Duke of Anjou, and of the Duke de Berry, and we can but be surprised at the extraordinary number and beauty of the precious monuments of antique art which they were able to collect in their châteaux. These châteaux, as well as the Treasures of churches and monasteries, were the museums of their time. All who have visited the Apollo Gallery in the Louvre can judge of the beauty of the Treasure which once belonged to the Sainte-Chapelle.

Francis I., Henri II., and Catherine de Médicis had splendid galleries of works of art of all sorts, and were great collectors; they even sent collectors to the East to find manuscripts and curiosities. Charles IX. organized for the first time the Cabinet of Medals. In 1560, he gave orders to make an inventory of all the works of art kept at Fontainebleau; he sent to the Louvre all the collections kept in the royal castles. Unfortunately, these works were dispersed again during the civil wars. After the pacification of the kingdom, Henri IV. reconstituted the Cabinet of Medals. We possess an original document, showing in what spirit Henri IV. wished to reorganize a museum. The King orders the "Master of the Cabinet of Antique Gems" to buy several private collections; he particularly commends to him "the cameos of agate and other hard stones containing histories, fables, triumphs, moralities of the ancient Greeks and Romans; the busts of the Roman Emperors in bronze, a number of ancient marble statues, etc." This document shows that, in the spirit of Henri IV., the Cabinet was really to be composed of all the remains of antiquity which might be collected.

The death of Henri IV. was fatal to the collection, which was organized by the care of Bagarris, the Director. Bagarris retired to his native place in Provence in 1612, and for a time had no successor. Louis XIII., in a letter addressed to his brother Gaston, Duke of Orleans, tells him frankly that he does not care for antiquities and medals, and sends him some old coins recently found at Chantilly (which had been confiscated after the rebellion of Henry of Montmorency, and remained some time in the hands of Louis XIII.). Gaston d'Orléans was a great amateur. In 1630, when he was only twenty-two years old, he sent to Rome a certain Claude Vignon, who collected many curious objects; fifty-six boxes of them were sent from Rome to Gaston in a single invoice. Towards 1638 Raphael Trichet du Fresne travelled for him, and sent him numerous objects which adorned the castle of Blois and the Luxembourg.

In 1660, Gaston d'Orléans, who had been a collector all his life, left to King Louis XIV., his nephew, all his treasures. Louis XIV. accepted the legacy by "letters patent" which he registered in Parliament on June 5, 1663. In these letters, the King expresses his gratitude to his uncle for "the present he has made to us and to our crown, of all his medals in gold, silver, and bronze, of his cameos and engraved stones, which were confided to the care of the Sieur Bruno, etc." This Bruno was a certain Bénigne Bruno, Sieur of Montmuzar, who was the Librarian of the Duke of Orleans. Nearly at the same time, in 1662, the nephew of the famous Sully, Hippolyte de Béthune, left a fine collection during his lifetime to Louis XIV.; Queen Christina of Sweden had offered Béthune 700,000 *écus* for this collection. Many collections were in succession added to these, and in 1684, by order of Louis XIV., Louvois transferred the Cabinet of Medals to Versailles. The King paid a visit to it almost every day. Many collectors, in order to obtain the royal favor, made presents to this Cabinet, among others the President de Harlay, the Duke of Valentinois, the Elector of Mayence, who offered the arms and the gold jewels taken from the tomb of Childeric I.

During the reign of Louis XV., the collections were transferred from Versailles to Paris, in order to make them more accessible to the learned world. The Rue Colbert furnishes a communication between the Rue Richelieu and the Rue Vivienne; in the eighteenth century this Rue Colbert was covered, in the part which ends at the Rue Richelieu, by an arcade over which was the apartment of the Marquise de Lambert, a lady who had a salon of which Fontenelle was one of the stars. The rooms which the Marquise had inhabited were, after her death, used for the installation of the Cabinet of Medals. Some of the cases in which the medals were placed still exist, and deserve to be cited as models of the Louis XV. style. Vanloo, Natoire, Boucher were employed for the decorations of the rooms, which received also two magnificent portraits of Louis XIV. and Louis XV., afterwards destroyed during the Revolution. During this latter period, the Cabinet of Medals and Antiquities received many of the works of art taken from the Treasures of the churches, which had in 1790 been declared national property. Unfortunately, these Treasures did not wholly become national. In the disorder of the times which followed, the objects preserved for centuries in churches, convents, as well as in the châteaux of the émigrés, were dispersed, if not destroyed. We possess only remains of the archæologic Treasures of the Sainte-Chapelle, of the Cathedral of Chartres, of the Abbeys of Sainte-Geneviève and of Saint-Denis.

Some important additions were made in the nineteenth century to the Cabinet of Medals; the Roman and Byzantine diptychs in ivory; the Gallo-Roman ornaments found at Nasium; the Egyptian monuments brought by Cailliaud from Thebes and Meroe; the silver treasure found at Berthouville (Department of Eure), in the ruins of a Temple of Mercury; the painted vases of the collection of Edmond Durand; the Etruscan painted vases of Prince Torlonia; the cameos and the enamelled jewel attributed to Benvenuto Cellini, left by Henri Beck; the Merovingian treasure of Gourdon, in the Department of the Côte-d'Or; the Gallo-Roman bronzes left by Prosper Dupré. In 1862, the Duke de Luynes left to the Cabinet the celebrated collection which adorned his castle at Dampierre.

The former rooms of the Marquise de Lambert had become too small for all the collections, and it was necessary to make new arrangements. It was a very unfortunate necessity. "Those," says M. Babelon, "who have known the old Cabinet of Medals and its elegance, and have lived in its memories, will always regret it." Since 1865, the Cabinet has been placed in large rooms, in the midst of the Department of Printed Books of the National Library, but it will soon be transferred to a new building nearly finished on the side of the Rue Vivienne. The noble example set by the Duke de Luynes was followed by the Viscount de Janzé and the Duke de Blacas. In 1869, Napoleon III. gave the Cabinet the splendid gold medallions of the Treasure of Tarsus. He had already given it the numismatic collection offered to him by Saïd Pasha, the Khedive of Egypt. Several other gifts have increased the collections.

The first catalogue of the Cabinet, systematically written, was made by Chabouillet in 1858; it is now very incomplete. At the time of the Exhibitions of 1867 and 1889, "Summary Descriptions" were made, but these are now out of print, and are besides very incomplete. The present 'Illustrated Guide' is very perfect; it was prepared by M. Babelon, on the occasion of the last Exhibition; but Babelon himself tells us that he could describe only the monuments of ancient art most important and most worthy of the attention of the general public. His charming volume, though it cannot take the place of the special and very technical catalogues which are in process of publication, is, however, very worthy of a welcome in any good library; it is invaluable for all collectors, and will inspire all who read it with a taste for archæological studies. I will here indicate two special publications,

emanating from the same source, which have already appeared: 'Catalogue of the Antique Bronzes of the National Library,' by MM. Babelon, Member of the Institute, and Blanchet; 'Catalogue of the Cameos of the National Library,' by M. Babelon. These catalogues are very detailed, and contain many illustrations.

Correspondence.

PRESIDENTIAL HANDSHAKING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Whatever other results may flow from the assassination of President McKinley, let us hope that that object-lesson may be sufficient to put an end to our national habit of promiscuous handshaking in public. It is hard to conceive of a spectacle more fatuous and less edifying than that of a horde of country bumpkins, criminals, cranks, idlers, and curiosity-mongers standing in line waiting for a chance to grab and squeeze the hand of the unhappy Chief Executive of this country. This habit, springing from a primitive desire on the part of the multitude to touch the person or garment of a sovereign ruler, and fortified by the commonly held belief that all men, in America at least, are really equal, is clearly a superfluous anachronism in our day and age. The clasping of hands, a custom sanctioned by usage from times immemorial, signifies, among intelligent beings at least, primarily mutual acquaintance, esteem, and friendship. Where the parties are absolute strangers to each other, as was the case at Buffalo, the ceremony is meaningless, obviously dangerous, and unworthy the high office of President of the United States. We owe much in this respect to Thomas Jefferson and Andrew Jackson which it is doubtful if we can ever pay back in this world.

Popular regard for ancient traditions of "republican simplicity," and a well-grounded fear that the unprincipled scoundrels of modern journalism might make capital out of it, have undoubtedly deterred high public officials from putting an end to this silly and dangerous habit of promiscuous handshaking in public places. Whether Mr. Roosevelt, who has a reputation for enjoying personal encounters with bears and mountain lions as well as with Spaniards, will have the moral courage and appreciation of his public duty to protect the lives of himself and his successors by refusing, while holding the office of President, to submit to close and intimate personal contact with hordes of unvouched-for strangers, even if presumably friendly, is a matter of vital importance to all admirers of republican institutions. The psychological moment for abating a notorious public nuisance has evidently arrived. E. L. C. M.

Chicago, September 19, 1901.

ENGLISH CATHOLICS AND JESUITS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A newspaper review of a book is soon read and forgotten, but not so a review in the *Nation*, which, in a way, becomes a matter of record with a degree of permanence. For this reason I will ask you to allow me, in referring to your interesting review of Mr. Hume's works, "The Spanish People' and 'Treason and Plot,' to call attention to the fact that Mr. Hume does not seem to realize the distinction between Catholics and Jesuits. Mr. Hume speaks (you quote) of "this new patriotism that divided the Catholic forces in England." It was not a new patriotism. English Catholics were and are patriots, but the line then, as often since, was sharply drawn between English Catholics and Jesuits. The latter never were, or could be, in the truest sense of the word, patriots.

By a curious coincidence, in the same number of the *Nation* (August 29, 1901) which contains this review, 'A History of the Jesuits in England' is announced by J. B. Lippincott Company. This work, taken *with* Mr. Hume's, places the history of that time fairly before the reader. The books, in no way antagonistic, explain each other.

William Reed Lewis.

Combmartin, Devonshire, England, September 10, 1901.

TENNYSONIANA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "W. P. M.," in this week's issue of the *Nation*, asks what passage in the writings of St. Augustine is referred to by Lord Tennyson in his poem "Columbus," in the lines,

> "The great Augustine wrote that none could breathe
> Within the zone of heat; so might there be
> Two Adams, two mankinds, and that was clean
> Against God's word."

Tennyson probably had in mind the familiar passage in the 'City of God,' xvi. 9, where Augustine is arguing against a belief in the Antipodes, on the ground that this would involve either the impossible supposition that men had sailed around the world, or else that there had been some other progenitor of men besides Adam—an equally impossible supposition. I quote part of the passage:

"Quod vero et antipodas esse fabulantur, id est homines a contraria parte terrae, ubi sol oritur quando occidit nobis, adversa pedibus nostris calcare vestigia, nulla ratione credendum est. . . . Quoniam nullo modo Scriptura ista mentitur, quae narratis praeteritis facit fidem eo quod ejus praedicta complentur; nimisque absurdum est ut dicatur aliquos homines ex hac in illam partem, Oceani immensitate trajecta, navigare ac pervenire potuisse, ut etiam illic ex uno illo primo homine genus institueretur humanum."

John Winthrop Platner.

Andover, Mass., September 20, 1901.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The *Evening Post*, speaking of Professor Bradley's Commentary on Tennyson's "In Memoriam," asks: "How are we profited, for example, by the following comment on

> " 'Tis better to have loved and lost
> Than never to have loved at all'?

" 'As a parallel to the last two lines (repeated lxxxv. 3, 4), Collins quotes Congreve, "Way of the World," II., 2, "'Tis better to have been left than never to have been loved." In the form of the expression there may be a reminiscence, certainly unconscious, of Campbell's "Jilted Nymph":

> " 'Better be courted and jilted
> Than never be courted at all.' ' "

It would have greatly interested, if not profited, all readers of Tennyson had Professor Bradley commented upon and explained the striking similarity between the lines quoted from "In Memoriam" and the lines in Clough's "Peschiera,"

> " 'Tis better to have fought and lost
> Than never to have fought at all."

This poem is dated 1849—a year before "In Memoriam" was published. Lowell's rule for determining to whom a thought belongs does not apply in this case.

Respectfully, Alfales Young.

Salt Lake City, Utah.

MALAHACK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In my boyhood fifty years ago at Canaan, N. H., the word *Malahack* was used less in the sense of "to cut awkwardly" than in that of "to cut injuriously," *e. g.*, to disfigure or maim—a tree, a piece of furniture, or an animal. Is it not possible that the coinage of the word was suggested by the word "maltreat"?

Amos N. Currier.

State University of Iowa, September 17, 1901.

Notes.

A new translation of Tolstoy's 'Anna Karenin,' the first from the original Russian, it is alleged, by Mrs. Garnett, is announced by McClure, Phillips & Co.

A brief history of Russia from Peter the Great to Alexander II., by W. R. Morfill, and 'By the Waters of Sicily,' by Nora Lorimer, with illustrations, are to have James Pott & Co. for their American publishers.

'Wild Life Near Home,' by Dallas Lore Sharp, will soon be published by the Century Co.

In preparation by Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. is 'The Economics of Forestry,' by Dr. Fernow.

'The New Americans' is the changed title which Mr. Alfred Hodder has selected for the novel already announced by Macmillan Co.

'Our Martyr Presidents,' by John M. Coulter, is a subscription-book for the hour in the press of the George M. Hill Co., Chicago and New York.

Dana Estes & Co., Boston, will publish 'A Handbook of British Birds,' by J. E. Harting; 'A Year-Book of Famous Lyrics,' edited by Frederic Lawrence Knowles; and 'Among the Great Masters of Oratory' and 'Among the Great Masters of Painting,' by Walter Rowlands.

C. W. Bardeen, Syracuse, has acquired in trust for the daughters of the late Henry Barnard that educationist's publications, to be sold as long as copies remain; but the *American Journal of Education* will be reprinted—the 31st volume, for 1881, issued for the first time. The same publisher will bring out a 'History of Ancient and Mediæval Education,' in two volumes; 'English Words,' by Edwin W. Chubb; 'Manual of Civil Government for the Schools of New York,' by C. W. Bardeen, and 'Manual of Civil Government for the Schools of Ohio,' by Frank H. H. Roberts.

Additional announcements by Charles Scribner's Sons are 'The French Revolution and Religious Reform,' by Prof. W. M. Sloane; 'Plutarch's Themistocles and Aristides,' translated by Prof. Bernadotte Perrin of Yale; 'Victorian Prose Masters,' es-

says by W. C. Brownell; and 'Bluegrass and Rhododendron: Outdoor Life in Kentucky,' by John Fox, jr.

Among the numerous books in preparation by the Clarendon Press (H. Frowde), we select for mention 'Milton's Prosody,' by R. Bridges; 'Classical Metres in English Verse,' by William Johnson Stone; 'The Troubadours of Dante,' by H. J. Chaytor; 'The Age of Bach and Handel,' by J. A. Fuller Maitland; 'Life and Correspondence of Thomas Cromwell, Earl of Essex,' by R. B. Merriman; 'The Welsh Wars of Edward I.,' by J. E. Morris; and 'An Antiquarian Companion to English History,' edited by F. P. Barnard.

Mr. Rae's 'Contemporary Socialism' (Scribners) merited our warm praise on its appearance in 1884. A second edition brought it down to 1891, and now a very thorough work has been fitly extended, in a supplementary chapter, to the present century. This increases the bulk of the volume by nearly one-tenth, showing that it has been executed in no perfunctory manner. "The two most important things in the history of the Socialist movement during the last ten years are the remarkable advance made in that period by the Social Democrats as a political party in several Continental countries, and their not less remarkable simultaneous growth in moderation."

The revival of interest in White's 'Selborne' is notable. The latest example is Messrs. L. C. Miall and W. Ward Flower's careful reprint of the original text of 1789 (London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Putnams). The diaries are here, as extracted by Dr. Aikin, but the Naturalist's Calendar has been omitted. The notes superadded to Gilbert White's are, of course, fresh. While the typography of this handy volume is condensed and not ornate, and there are no illustrations, as in some recent instances, this edition contains the substance of the naturalist and will claim a place of its own.

Volumes vii. to x. of Professor de Sumichrast's excellent translation of Gautier (George D. Sproul) contain the Italian and Eastern tours, Fortunio and other tales, and typical art-criticisms under the general heading of "The Louvre." The appreciative introductions are quite sufficiently exhaustive, without pedantic elaboration; and there is here no attempt to clear the name of Gautier from the easily justified charge of something more than indifference to ethical considerations. Among future selections of short stories, it is to be hoped that the translator may find room for "La Morte Amoureuse," on account of its condensation of dramatic intensity and the perfection of its style. We are compelled to remark that the frontispiece to "Constantinople" represents a Turkish interior with modern appointments unknown in Gautier's day.

The second and third volumes of Mr. G. C. Macaulay's edition of Gower (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde) contain the English Works—the "Confessio Amantis" and a short poem entitled "In Praise of Peace." Mr. Macaulay justifies the expectation with which scholars have looked forward to these volumes. Pauli's wretched text of the "Confessio" may now be laid on the shelf for good and all. The text offered by Mr. Macaulay is based on the Fairfax MS., with collation of several other codices, and is perfectly satisfactory. The history of the different recensions of the poem is determined with care and acuteness. There is an essay on Gower's language and metre, and the editor has appended a considerable body of explanatory and illustrative annotation. The least satisfactory part of Mr. Macaulay's labors is his discussion of the various stories which are strung together to make the "Confessio Amantis." But *non omnia possumus omnes*, and we are too grateful to be censorious.

Miss Jessie Weston contributes to the Grimm Library (London: David Nutt) a study of 'The Legend of Sir Lancelot du Lac,' which, though not very well digested, shows much industry and considerable learning and ingenuity. She finds the root of the story in a "*lai*, presumably Breton, dealing with the theft of a king's son by a water-fairy." The loves of Lancelot and Guinevere were, she thinks, introduced into this tale at a later time, under the special influence of the "Tristan." She also contends that there was very early contact between the "Lancelot" and the "Perceval," and that a continuation of this contact after Perceval became associated with the legend of the Grail was a very important factor in the development of the "Lancelot." Miss Weston's monograph is of particular interest to students of Malory. Her examination of the Dutch "Lancelot" and of Lenoire's 1533 text of the French prose enables her to correct Sommer's scheme of Malory's sources in a very striking way.

Professor Skeat has subjected his well-known 'Concise Etymological Dictionary' (Oxford: Clarendon Press) to a thorough revision. The advance in lexicographical science since 1882, when the book first appeared, has been enormous, as well as the multiplication of available materials in the way of texts and linguistic monographs. Mr. Skeat has been in the thick of the fight himself, and no small part of the winnings rightfully belongs to him. It is with much satisfaction, therefore, that we observe that the present edition is not a mere reprint with "additions and corrections," but a new book, rewritten from beginning to end, and arranged in a more practical and convenient way. We have no space for criticism, which, indeed, would necessarily be concerned with unessential details. The 'Concise Dictionary' in its present form is indispensable to all who feel any interest in the history of the English language.

From the same indefatigible pen we have a handsome volume of 'Notes on English Etymology, chiefly reprinted from the Transactions of the Philological Society.' This is of great interest to the student of English, who will bless the Clarendon Press for enabling Professor Skeat to bring together so many of his scattered contributions to philological knowledge. There are some three hundred pages of "Notes," alphabetically arranged, with reference to the places in which they originally appeared. The words discussed illustrate every hole and corner of our language. The observations upon them are full of ingenuity and curious learning. Besides these "Notes," the book contains Mr. Skeat's important "List of English Words Found in Anglo-French," and a number of other papers. The "Introduction" is partly autobiographical, and a fine portrait of the author serves as frontispiece.

Dr. A. C. Bradley's 'Commentary on Tennyson's *In Memoriam*' (Macmillan) puts the possessor of it under the necessity of procuring the text of the poem and then numbering the lines. This done, the meanest intelligence will hardly complain of a lack of assistance—certainly not of a willingness to assist—on the commentator's part. Dr. Bradley is not an indiscriminate admirer; in his elucidation he will, on occasion, make free with Tennyson's pointing. He concludes with a complete list of changes between the first and the accepted text, and dates them where he can. They are fifty-three in number, and certainly not excessive.

Librarians take great pains to avoid greater, and hence it has been thought worth while to meet "the demand of study clubs, teachers, and children" by an 'Index to *St. Nicholas* (namely, to the first twenty-seven volumes). This labor has been undertaken by Harriet Goss and Gertrude A. Baker, editors of the 'Cumulative Index to Select List of Periodicals,' and the publishers are the Cumulative Index Company of Cleveland, O. The 234 small-quarto pages might have been reduced by compressions, which were probably rendered uneconomic by the use of the linotype. For example, the puzzles being indexed, there are four entries for "Geographical primal acrostic," instead of one with four numerical references. This is really not a defect, but a liberality. Authors, subjects, and classes are duly arranged, with extensive cross-references; and "all illustrations considered of permanent value have been indexed." The work must prove of great utility to heads of the now almost indispensable "children's rooms" in our libraries and to school-teachers.

Mr. William Jaggard's 'Index to the First Ten Volumes of Book-Prices Current (1887 to 1896)' has just been issued by Elliot Stock, London. The compiler saw clearly the desideratum, but the labor had to be realized, and he asks a considerate judgment of his handling of "thirty-three thousand distinct titles and considerably over half-a-million numerals." He will have it, with the abundant thanks of every book collector. The kernel of this exhibit of the prices paid for notable books during a decade is the careful distinguishing of editions, so that one is not sent on a wild-goose chase through the entire series to find, say, the 1775 edition of Butler's 'Hudibras.' One sees, too, at a glance which editions oftenest or most seldom turn up in sales. The Bible presents the finest example of the value of the Index in the chronological aspect, but the books by or associated with Dickens, filling five and a half pages, are as instructively displayed. Incidentally, pseudonyms and anonyms are revealed. In short, this work cannot be too highly praised.

M. D. Jordell continues his valuable 'Répertoire Bibliographique des Principales Revues Françaises' with a volume for 1899 (Paris: Lamm; New York: Lemcke & Buechner), in the customary two divisions of subject and author—the latter forming a most desirable list of contemporary writers. Under the heading War (*Guerre*), with its abundant cross-references, one remarks how that of 1870-71 cedes, in the number of periodical articles here catalogued, to the Spanish-American war, while Wars of Napoleon I. and Wars of the First Republic have claimed more attention than both the others combined, to say nothing of the rubric Napoleon I. In the next issue the

Transvaal war will certainly be more copiously treated than in the present, though it already rivals our own war with Spain. The United States claims a column, or half a page. The Dreyfus affair fills half a column. Noteworthy is the display of articles on Literature for the respective countries—American, Ancient, English, Arabic, Armenian, etc., with a column for French. "Poésies" are not overlooked; indeed, they occupy three columns, and which of the writers is *the* French poet of to-day? "Romans" fill nearly four pages—many by non-French novelists. The value of the mere list of periodicals "répertoriées" is obvious. In all respects this French "Poole" is highly to be praised and prized. It now reaches its third volume.

The Rev. Eugène Roulin, chaplain of the ex-Empress Eugénie, has published a handsome monograph on the Treasure of the ancient monastery of Silos, in Spain ('L'Ancien Trésor de l'Abbaye de Silos,' Paris: E. Leroux). The book is composed of a number of essays, which he has previously published in various archæological periodicals, with additional chapters now appearing for the first time. It contains a careful description, accompanied by excellent illustrations, of each of the more important objects in the Treasure that have survived the vicissitudes through which the monastery passed in the nineteenth century, and are now preserved either there or in the museum of Burgos. The most remarkable of these are an elaborately carved Arabic casket of the eleventh century, a silver chalice of the twelfth; a silver-gilt paten of the thirteenth, its rim decorated with a fine filigree and set with gems; and several splendid specimens of Limoges enamel of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. To students of the history of the industrial arts the objects of later periods will also be interesting, though they are less extraordinary.

Some sixteen years ago Prof. George A. Smith of Glasgow published his 'Historical Geography of the Holy Land.' Students who have used that book will hail with pleasure a map of Palestine, from Beirut to the Arabah, edited by him, and prepared under the direction of J. G. Bartholomew (Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons). The map, on the scale of four miles to an inch, is based primarily on the surveys of the English Palestine Exploration Fund, but utilizes in addition later surveys and researches, including the admirable work of the German Palestine Exploration Fund east of the Jordan. The method of indicating altitudes by means of block colors, instead of by contour lines, makes a clearer map for general use, when the eye has become accustomed to it. All Biblical sites which have been identified are indicated in large letters, and in addition each place has also its modern name. There are in all 3,180 names, but the map is sufficiently large (38¾x56¼ inches) to prevent confusion. There is an excellent index of both the ancient and modern names. In one corner of the large map are two small inset maps showing respectively the environs of Jerusalem and the vegetation of Palestine. The work seems to have been done with thoroughness. In the test examination which we have made, we have noticed but one small omission of a place known to us. The map, folded in book form, is a handy one for the traveller in Palestine, showing, as it does, the modern roads, railways, etc. Mounted as a wall map, it is of convenient size for class-room use.

The sixth volume of the Catalogue of the National Library in Paris has just made its appearance, beginning with the word Baade and ending with Bancroft. The arrangement is alphabetical, according to authors. Each volume is an octavo of about 1,200 pages, and as it has taken four years to issue the first six volumes, including only the letter A and part of B, at the present rate some sixty years will be consumed in finishing the Catalogue.

In Paris the first volume of Moltke's Military Correspondence has appeared in a French translation, to be followed in due time by the rest of the series. The Berlin papers comment favorably upon this fact, especially as the work is published for the benefit of French officers and military schools, and the bulk of the correspondence refers to the preparation for and the conduct of the Franco-Prussian war.

The *National Geographic Magazine* for September contains a sketch of the work of the principal German geographers from Behaim to Ratzel, and the methods of teaching geography in Germany, by Martha K. Genthe (Ph.D., Ann Arbor). She dwells justly on the broadening influence of this study, from the *Länderkunde* of the village schools to the scientific geography of the universities, and she might well have adduced as one of the material results of the attention paid to it the present commercial success of the Germans in foreign lands. Other articles are upon Siberia and the drift of floating bottles in the Pacific Ocean.

Among the articles announced for early publication in the new volume of the *Deutsche Rundschau*, beginning with the October number, are three dealing with the history and the royal family of Prussia: "The Negotiations at Tilsit in 1807: Correspondence of King Frederic William III. with Queen Louisa," by Dr. Paul Bailleu; "The Times of Frederic William IV.," by Prof. G. von Below; and "The Sister of Frederic the Great (the Margravine of Bayreuth)," by Prof. R. Fester. George Brandes will write on Hans Christian Andersen, Dr. O. Frommel on Gottfried Keller, and Hugo von Hoffmannsthal on Victor Hugo. Among the writers of fiction are still found the venerable names of Paul Heyse and Marie von Ebner-Eschenbach.

—There is now what may fairly be called a "literature" of the publishers' *quid pro quo* in the shape of generous rewards for interested puffery. Here is the latest instance that has come to our notice:

DEAR SIR: Please take notice that you being an indorsing subscriber on our books, by acknowledging this letter, as per card enclosed—without expense or obligation on your part—you are entitled to a special discount. Should you desire to become an indorsing subscriber of this new work, we will ask you to accept with our compliments, without charge, 20 —— steel plates, in tints, for framing purposes.

Under the editorship of Mr. ——, Dr. ——, and Captain ——, we are issuing an absolutely new edition of ——'s works, in which is used as illustrations the entire series of —— steel plates. To an art collector, these plates alone are worth the price of a set of the books. . . .

Upon receipt of the card above referred to, full particulars will be furnished you. Yours truly,

SEPTEMBER 16, 1901.

It is evident that men of letters who are solicited to collaborate in these enterprises with prefaces, introductions, etc., will have to guard their good names against such marketing of the joint product.

—Some thirteen years ago a paper was published by Mrs. Zelia Nuttall, in the *American Journal of Archæology*, on the small Mexican terracotta heads which are a prominent but generally unexplained feature of all collections of Mexican antiquities. This essay revealed a student of rare equipment in a neglected field. Since that date, Mrs. Nuttall's name has appeared at occasional intervals attached to kindred essays which have shown the same happy faculty of seizing on disregarded topics or slighted relics as subjects of original research. Now we have from her a solid volume of 602 pages, which must rank as the first serious attempt of a competent specialist in the history, languages, hieroglyphics, and relics of ancient Mexico to relate these studies to the history of the world at large and to other branches of archæology. We refer to volume ii. of the Archæological and Ethnological Papers of the Peabody Museum, Harvard University, entitled 'The Fundamental Principles of Old and New World Civilization.' The conclusions reached by this work are as follows: (1) The central feature of Mexican mythology, religion, and social organism was the observation and worship of the pole-star and of the circumpolar constellations, especially Ursa Major and Ursa Minor; (2) a comparison of Chinese beliefs and theories as to the cardinal points, the pole-star and Ursa Major leads to the inferring of a single centre of development for the mythology of China and of Mexico, the differences of detail showing that China did not borrow from Mexico, and that Mexico did not borrow from China; (3) pole-star worship was a prominent and often dominant factor throughout the ancient mythologies of the Old World; (4) the dominant features of Chinese astronomy probably reached China from the West; (5) the dominant features of Mexican astronomy probably reached ancient America from the East, by crossing the Atlantic Ocean—possibly by Phœnician voyages, possibly by later ancient voyages; (6) the symbolism of the pre-Christian (Greek) cross is identical with the symbolism of the swastika, and the forms themselves are variants of one form; (7) the (Greek) cross and the swastika of the New World are identical with the (Greek) cross and the swastika in the Old World; (8) the swastika is a picture of four equidistant positions of the Great Bear in its annual revolution around the pole. The order of arrangement in these conclusions is not that chosen by Mrs. Nuttall, but they are all expressly stated or expressly implied by her. We regret that we can do no more than present them, without entering into the debate which is sure to arise over them among scholars.

—Apart from two or three essays of little moment, Mr. Andrew Lang's 'Magic and Religion' is an uncommonly spirited attack on Mr. Frazer's 'Golden Bough,' which has recently appeared in an enlarged edition. Readers of Mr. Lang's 'Making of Religion' will readily understand his opposition to Mr. Frazer. It is fundamental; there is no possibility of reconciliation so far as the main point of either system is concerned.

But Mr. Lang does not confine his critique to the central difference between his own genesis of religion and Mr. Frazer's. He carries his argument from one hypothesis in 'The Golden Bough' to another, follows the minutest ramification of Mr. Frazer's reasoning, and, in his own opinion, leaves nothing of the huge work but its erudition, ingenuity, and eloquence. Of course, the case is actually not so bad as this. 'The Golden Bough' is in reality a long series of monographs, each valuable in itself, combined into a great unit by means of an amazingly subtle web of conjectures. The web may be torn to pieces without much affecting those qualities for which scholars value the work. As for Mr. Lang's critique, it is worth reading for itself, and there can be no question that it considerably damages Mr. Frazer's hypothetical structure. It is not of uniform merit, however. The interval between Mr. Lang at his best and Mr. Lang at his worst is well known to be no small space, and best and worst are both exemplified here. There is repetition without mercy, much hair-splitting, and no end of glorification in the setting of pretty logical traps—some of them mere springes to catch woodcocks. Yet every purchaser of 'The Golden Bough' must buy 'Magic and Religion,' too, and set all four volumes together on his library shelves.

—The return to North Sydney, C. B., of the *Erik*, the vessel of the Peary Auxiliary Expedition of 1901, brings intelligence of a further abortive effort to reach the pole, albeit accompanied by the record of another brilliant exploration in the far North. With indomitable energy Mr. Peary, on April 15 of last year, set out on his third great journey northward, and, before the middle of the following month, had the satisfaction of reaching the high latitude of 83° 50′ N., the point nearest to the pole that had thus far been reached in the western hemisphere, although falling short by 2° 14′ of the highest point reached by Nansen (86° 4′, as now determined by Geelmuyden), and 2° 43′ of the "highest north" attained by Capt. Cagni, the leader of the advance party of the Duke of Abruzzi's expedition. The route followed by Mr. Peary was very nearly that of Lockwood and Brainard (1882), whose cairn was found and opened, when new memorials of exploration were deposited in it. Beyond Cape Washington, the furthest point of land observed by Lockwood, the trend of the coast was found to be eastward, with its most northerly projection in latitude 83° 39′ N. Beyond this point the "palæocrystic sea," a broken, hummocky arctic pack of unstable condition, opened up in the direction of the pole, over which extended progress was made practically impossible. Eastward of the Cape the survey of the coast-line was continued practically to Navy Cliff, which Mr. Peary first reached in his memorable "white journey" of 1892. Thus, while failing to reach the pole, the great merit belongs to Mr. Peary of having determined the boundaries of the land masses lying beyond Greenland, and of having fixed the position or limit of what is seemingly the most northern piece of land on the globe—an achievement which has been characterized by Sir Clements Markham, President of the Royal Geographical Society of London, as second only in importance to the attainment of the pole itself. Mr. Peary remains in the North another year, and will make a final effort to attain the object of his search, starting, if the information that is now brought down is correct, from Cape Hecla—the so-called American route being considered impracticable.

—The Vienna *Tageblatt* of August 20, on the occasion of a seventieth birthday celebration, publishes a five-page article on Prof. Eduard Suess, President of the Imperial Academy of Sciences of Vienna, who in this country is known principally as a geologist of marked eminence, but in Austria as perhaps the most broadly cultured person of the empire—a man of affairs, the leader of school reform, an orator of the Reichsrath of rare eloquence and persuasive power, and the avowed champion of liberalism and progress. To him more than to any one else the Austrian capital, which, up to 1873, in common with most of the capitals of Europe, shared the burden of a polluted and dangerous water-supply, is indebted for the construction of that vast system of waterways which unites it with the outliers of the Alps, and gives it a potable water in purity probably unsurpassed by that now furnished to any of the larger cities of the world, and equalled only by that of Rome. The work by which Professor Suess is most broadly known in this country, and which will do honor to his name long after the present generation of geologists has disappeared, is the 'Antlitz der Erde,' a masterful exposition or attempt at explanation of the dominant features of the earth's surface, in their relation to one another, and as coördinated with the geological conditions not of one region alone, but of the world at large. However much geologists may hesitate to accept some of the views here formulated, it will generally be conceded that in no other work aiming to explain the obscure problems to which this inquiry leads are the avenues of thought and analysis so clearly marked out as in this one, and in none other does the geologist meet with a comparable array of facts. Two of its fundamental concepts, which stand in a measure, or even largely, opposed to the generally accepted Lyellian teachings, are: the tendency of the earth's crust (or mass) to subside, through successive breakages, in the direction of the planetary centre, and the instability, as expressed by alternating recessions and transgressions of the oceanic waters, of the oceanic level (or mass). As indicating the esteem in which Professor Suess's labors are held in the country where geology first became an exact science, may be cited the expression contained in the congratulatory dispatch of the Geological Society of London: "Universally regarded here as the greatest living geologist." It is interesting to note that, in a recent interview, Professor Suess expressed the opinion that the future great powers or forces of the world would be China, Russia, and America.

LISZT'S LETTERS TO TWO WOMEN.

Franz Liszt's Briefe an die Fürstin Sayn-Wittgenstein. 2 vols. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel.

Franz Liszt's Briefe an eine Freundin. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel.

Liszt's importance as a composer is being more and more cordially recognized every year. In German concert-halls, he is now exceeded in popularity, measured by the number of performances, only by Beethoven and Wagner. At least half a century more, however, must elapse before his deepest and most inspired works will become as familiar to amateurs and professionals as they deserve to be. In the meantime, it is to be hoped that more attention will also be bestowed on his literary works. There are six volumes of these, only one of which (his 'Chopin') has been translated into English. His volume on Wagner contains the essays on the "Flying Dutchman," "Tannhäuser," and "Lohengrin," which advanced the vogue of these operas by a decade, and which have never been equalled by other commentaries in keenness of insight and poetic eloquence. A strangely fascinating and illuminating book also is his monograph on the gypsies and their music and his own Hungarian rhapsodies. The other three volumes contain essays on diverse musical topics—operas, composers, singers, programme music, criticism, etc. If professional musicians and critics could be induced to read and digest these essays, there would be a wonderful clearing of the musical atmosphere.

Besides the literary works proper, Breitkopf & Härtel have been issuing in book form the letters of Liszt to various contemporaries, and their replies. Of these replies, only two volumes have been printed so far, while Liszt's own letters fill five complete volumes and their share of the three volumes containing his correspondence with Wagner and Hans von Bülow. Possibly "La Mara," the editor, has the material for further volumes. Liszt's letters to Mr. Joseffy, for example, have not yet been printed.

No fewer than 452 of Liszt's letters were addressed to the Princess Sayn-Wittgenstein, one of the most remarkable women of her time. Humboldt referred to her as "die vielbegeistigte Fürstin," and Liszt's admiration for her knew no bounds, though she lacked personal beauty and certain other feminine charms. Her father, a very wealthy Polish nobleman, had brought her up (he was divorced from his wife) like a boy, teaching her to assist him in his scientific and agricultural studies, and often making her stay up so late at night that, in order to keep awake, she acquired the baneful habit of smoking strong cigars. By way of atonement for these peculiarities, she had the feminine quality of sympathy unusually developed; and this it was, no doubt, combined with her alert intellect, that attracted the great musician. Up to the time when she first met Liszt, her life had not been a happy one. Yielding to her father's wishes and command, she had, at the age of seventeen, married a son of the Russian Field Marshal, Prince Wittgenstein. He was mentally her inferior, and she felt an antipathy toward him which led her to refuse him three times before she finally consented. The result of this *mariage de convenance* was that, after a decade of unhappiness, she left him and followed Liszt to Weimar, after sending an application for divorce to the Russian authorities. She took up her residence in one wing of the Altenburg, and Liszt in the other. Here she had abundant opportunity to gratify her intellectual ambitions. She became

Liszt's confidential adviser, secretary, and assistant in every possible way, during a period of thirteen years—the period in which he composed his symphonic poems and many others of his greatest works. She wrote letters for him, kept away forbidden guests, helped to entertain welcome visitors—including most of the eminent musicians of the time; and while she could not aid him in his compositions, she did give him the benefit of her knowledge and experience in the sketches of Polish life in his 'Chopin,' and in others of his literary works. The suggestion for and first sketch of his oratorio "St. Elizabeth" were made by her, and it was she, too, who put the idea into Berlioz's head of writing a Trojan opera, the score of which he gratefully dedicated to her.

Prince Wittgenstein, being a Protestant, had no difficulty in securing a divorce from the wife who had deserted him, and marrying another woman; while she, as a Catholic, struggled in vain for years to secure permission to marry Liszt. In 1860 she went to Rome in order to accelerate matters, and succeeded finally in getting the Pope's consent. The wedding-day was fixed, the altar already adorned, when the enemies of the Princess obtained an order from the Pope to reconsider the whole matter. This broke her spirit, and from that day a sort of superstitious dread made her give up the idea of marrying Liszt, though the death of Prince Wittgenstein, in 1864, set her free to do as she chose, and Cardinal Hohenlohe offered to perform the ceremony in his own chapel. Her mind had in the meantime been diverted from art to religion, and it was largely due to her influence that Liszt became an abbé and devoted the last period of his life chiefly to ecclesiastic composition. As for the Princess herself, she gave up most of her time to literary labors, which culminated in a work entitled 'Des Causes Intérieures de la Faiblesse Extérieure de l'Église,' in twenty-four volumes! The last pages were written a few days before her death in 1887, but she left directions that "the work" should not be printed till twenty-five years after her death. She might have done the world a greater service by writing her reminiscences of Liszt and her innumerable conversations with him.

To this Princess, Liszt opened his heart more freely than to any other correspondent except, occasionally, Wagner; yet there are fewer revelations of his personality than one might have expected in the 747 pages of these letters. With his usual willingness to sacrifice himself for others, he writes a great deal about topics which must have interested the Princess much more than himself. He even keeps her supplied, at her request, with political views and gossip, although he had told her in one of his first letters that he had "always detested politics." While he was a man of wide sympathies, music remained to the end of his life his great passion. During the last forty years, however, it was no longer interpretation but creation; and this gradually became an actual necessity to him:

"I feel as if I were starved (*desséché*) if I pass a few days without music paper. My brain gets dull, and I become incapable of taking an interest in external matters. I have often observed this fact, and the malady increases with my years. Music is the breath of my soul—it becomes at once my prayer and my work."

There are a few references to special compositions he happened to be engaged on, but not as many as one could wish; and always he speaks of them with unaffected modesty, as in this reference to one class of his creations which has so far been entirely withheld from the concert-going public:

"I have done some tolerable work these last weeks. To-morrow I shall send to Leipzig twelve part-songs for male voices which form, as it were, an indispensable supplement to my *Lieder*. . . . If I am not mistaken, some of these *Männerchor-Gesänge* might meet with some little success."

In another letter he says:

"In everything I compose I believe I have something sufficiently new to say. It is therefore necessary to assimilate my thought and my feelings lest they be betrayed by a ruinous performance. Carlsruhe has been a most useful lesson to me in this respect, and I shall try to profit by it. Though to a less degree than Wagner, I, nevertheless, need real men and artists, and cannot content myself with *manœuvres* and a mechanically regular execution."

To the end of his life Liszt retained something of the gypsy lawlessness by which he came naturally through his Hungarian nativity and early associations. "After the theatre," he writes to the Princess, "I ran over to the gypsies, as I did last night. You know what special charm this music has for me. . . . It might be defined with tolerable accuracy as *half gypsy, half Franciscan*." It was this peculiar mixture—with some other rare ingredients—that made Liszt so dear to the unprejudiced public, and so offensive to the straight-laced professionals, of whose extraordinary silliness an amusing instance is referred to in volume one (p. 349). Rietz (conductor of the Gewandhaus concerts at Leipzig) left the hall during the performance of a Liszt concerto because the triangle was used in it!—which reminds one of the pedant who censured Saint-Saëns for introducing trombones in a symphony, and when Saint-Saëns timidly suggested that Beethoven had made good use of them in some of his symphonies, Girard replied: "Perhaps it would have been better if he hadn't."

Although Liszt was perhaps freer from vanity than any other artist of his rank that ever lived, he was pained as well as puzzled by the extraordinary divergence between the public's judgment of him and that of the critics. In one of the most interesting of his letters, dated December 12, 1855, he expresses his surprise that, after the deep impression made by his compositions on the Berlin public, and the great honors rendered him, the critics of all the journals should have lashed him so mercilessly. "Our dear friend Hans [von Bülow] was so indignant that he wept." Liszt knew all the critics by name, and he heard that one of the editors had written to Stern that, "out of consideration for him," he would not allow any notice of Liszt's concert to be printed in his journal! Liszt was prepared in part for his reception by Alexander von Humboldt, who, he writes, in conversation with him, deplored "la rage de critique et de dépréciation, qui est la maladie toujours régnante de cette capitale de l'intelligence germanique"—a "critical disease," by the way, which, though lashed by Heine, has not abated in the least. To take a modern instance: the Berliners are not aware to this day that Paderewski is the greatest living pianist, though all the rest of the world has known it for years.

As regards vanity in general, so free from it was Liszt that he never made use of the *de* or *von* before his name, to which he was entitled, as his family was of noble descent. He did, however, secure this *Prädikat* for his uncle, who thenceforth called himself Eduard Ritter von Liszt. Only once did Liszt seemingly depart from his principles—when he wanted to become a corresponding member of the French Institute in view of his position as a composer; but even here he declares that he will remain perfectly calm whether the honor is bestowed or refused; and he adds that "la véritable modestie ne consiste pas dans l'ignorance, ou la dissimulation de sa capacité; mais elle est simplement la pudeur morale de soi." His account (II., 183-4) of the conversation he had with the old fogy Halévy on this occasion regarding his attitude toward Wagner is amusing. In the letters describing his visits to Paris, Liszt has many interesting things to say about poor Berlioz, who "has neither friends nor partisans—neither the great sun of the public, nor the sweet shade of intimacy," and other famous men. One day Halévy, Auber, Berlioz, Gounod, Théophile Gautier, and other notabilities sat at table with him. He also describes his visits to Rossini, with a humorous touch: "His musical diversion consists in writing sonatas for the piano, to which he gives alimentary titles: Fresh Butter, Green Peas, Cherries, or Apricots, and I know not what else. I shall read them to-morrow, after having dined with him." The cosmopolitan Liszt was a sincere admirer of Rossini when at his best, and he was a much more practical man than Wagner; but when he sent Rossini (as he relates) a copy of his "Dante" symphony, he made as ludicrous a mistake as Wagner did when he composed his "Tristan und Isolde" for an Italian opera company in Brazil. Rossini thanked him for the score of the symphony in a letter "charmante et d'une flatterie délicate"; but he significantly signed himself a "mélodiste italien pur sang," and Liszt could not help reading between the lines that Rossini "did not find himself in his natural element in *reading* my episode of Francesca da Rimini, which, perhaps, touches a more elevated region of the soul. However," he concludes, "I fancy that if he could hear a performance of it he would quickly, with the marvellous insight peculiar to his genius, seize my meaning."

For the obtuseness of musicians in general in relation to his original works Liszt found atonement in the appreciation of Wagner. "The sympathy and interest which Wagner manifests in relation to my symphonic works has been a great joy to me," he writes to a friend under date of January 30, 1857; and when Wagner's essay on his symphonic poems appeared, he asked the Princess to send him copies to be placed where they might do good. There are of course numerous references to Wagner in the letters to the Princess, and two are of exceptional interest. Liszt seldom indulges in elaborate descriptions, but in one of these letters, of the year 1853 (I., 140), he draws a portrait of Wagner, physical and mental, which has never been equalled. It is too long to quote entire, but a few lines of it may be translated here:

"Wagner awaited me at the landing, and we

almost smothered each other with embraces. At times there is something in his voice like the cry of an eagle. He wept and laughed and stormed for joy at seeing me again, for at least a quarter of an hour. . . . He looks well, but has grown rather thinner during the last four years. His features, particularly his nose and mouth, have taken on a remarkable finesse and nervous accentuation. . . . As for myself, he loves me with all his heart and soul, and when the conversation touches on his reputation and popularity, he exclaims, 'See what you have made of me!' twenty times a day. He throws himself on my neck and the next moment rolls on the floor, petting his dog Peps and talking nonsense to him—abusing the Jews, a term which has a generic meaning for him, of a very wide application; in a word, *une grande et grandissime nature*, —something like a Vesuvius shooting out flames and fire mingled with roses and lilacs."

The other passage referred to (I., 143, 145) illustrates the combined hospitality and penchant for luxury which helped to keep Wagner poor the greater part of his life:

"Wagner told me that he would have a place reserved for me at his table from morning to night as long as I was here. I feel some scruples in regard to the expense I give him, for there are always a dozen persons to dine with him at one and to sup with him at 9:30. . . . The Ritter family gives him a regular subvention of more than 1,000 thalers a year—and the footing on which he lives appears to me to demand double, if not three times, that sum. His cellar, as Hermann tells me, is well filled, and he has a pronounced taste for luxury and elegant habits."

All of Liszt's letters to the Princess are in French. The only thing German about these two volumes is the title, the introduction, and the explanatory foot-notes. The same is true of the 'Briefe an eine Freundin.' Who this friend was is not explained, either in the letters themselves or in the preface. She was, the editor, "La Mara" (Marie Lipsius), simply informs us, a pupil of Liszt's at Weimar, after 1853, and intended to make her living by teaching the piano, but afterwards took up journalism. Liszt praised her as a musician, and how much he esteemed her as a friend is obvious from this, that his correspondence with her covers a period of 31 years, ending only a few weeks before his death. There are 133 letters, and in them he tells us more, proportionately, about himself than in the correspondence with the Princess. Those who know of Liszt only as the world's pet pianist, will be surprised at the melancholy tone of many of these letters. His friend's life was an unhappy one, and he goes so far as to endorse her words, "Life is but a long and bitter suicide"; or, as he puts it in another place: "Notre vie n'est qu'une gamme indéfinie de soupirs et de pleurs"; and once he goes so far as to declare that he envies his coachman, who sits philosophically on his seat, ignorant of the *tristesse* and *ennuis* of life and of intercourse with stupid people. He declares, too, that he has become "very tired of teaching that which in truth cannot be learned—which is precisely what is most important in music. I am therefore deaf to the young pianists of both sexes who come to me in droves, and for the moment have reduced my little band to four or five." But he was too good-natured to abide by this decision; for these words were written in 1859, and he continued to instruct and inspire shoals of young pianists for another quarter of a century.

Not all of these letters are so melancholy and depressing. They are in all moods, and contain many interesting observations on Rubinstein, Spohr, Schumann, Joachim, Wagner, Verdi, and others, as well as on his own works and their interpretation. We read how he wept on playing Wagner's music with its composer; what infinite pains he took in revising his own compositions; what a difference it made in the reception of these pieces whether he himself or others interpreted them; how furious Berlioz was at the habitual misinterpretation of his own music, etc. It is odd to find that while his career as pianist made Liszt fly from city to city, he was not a tourist in the modern sense of the word; for he tells us that he lived in Rome seven years without visiting Naples. We also get glimpses of his family—his mother, his son Daniel, who died young; and his two daughters. For a time he was rather disturbed by the refusal of these daughters to take husbands, though plenty offered themselves. "They seem to want a Beethoven or a Raphael." Cosima married Wagner, and Blandine married the French statesman of the "cœur léger," Émile Ollivier.

CURRENCY AND BANKING IN THE MASSACHUSETTS BAY PROVINCE.

Currency and Banking in the Province of the Massachusetts Bay. By Andrew McFarland Davis. Part I., Currency. American Economic Association.

The history of paper money is a history of disaster, and yet is never the same at different times and in different places. The general course of events from the inception to the redemption or repudiation may be uniform, for there are laws governing the use of credit, and the consequences of abuse are inevitable; but the details are novel, interesting, and illuminative of social activity. Attempts have been made to frame a full account of the many effects of an over-issue of an irredeemable paper currency, and the economist is familiar with the important stages in the enforced use of a credit currency during the American and French Revolutions, during our civil war, and in England during the contest with Napoleon. Mr. Davis has taken for his subject the colonial paper money of Massachusetts, and tells the story with a fulness of detail and grasp of subject that leave little to be desired. For nearly ten years he has been accumulating his material, and the results justify his patience and skill. Not only has he freely utilized the labors of other historians, but he has found in manuscript sources much that is new and valuable. If he writes as an historian rather than as an economist, his work loses little, for the facts give a more vivid picture of the half-century of experiment in paper issues than could be obtained by other means. Although no English colony on the American continent escaped a resort to bills of credit, none can show so full and careful a history as Mr. Davis has given of the experience of Massachusetts. The reproduction of the different forms of notes of which examples have been found is valuable, and suggests many peculiar questions as to engraving and signing, as well as illustrating the ingenuity of the dishonest in "raising" the denominations—attempts which have been instrumental in preserving specimens as part of the court records.

In the very early days of the colony, barter was the rule, and the taxes were paid in produce and commodities. With little foreign trade, coin was obtained with difficulty, and, before 1652, paper bills, probably based upon private credit, were used to make good the want of specie. The basis for such notes would naturally be studied, and a "fund of land" was under discussion before 1681, perhaps as early as 1649. No definite step was taken until the colony found itself deeply involved in debt through the failure of the Canadian expedition in 1690. The colony, on the plea of necessity and want of time, issued certificates which were receivable for public dues and were in fact anticipations of taxes, to be destroyed when paid into the treasury or redeemed out of the produce of the tax-levy. The notes were thus issued as a means of paying the creditors of the colony, and were not clothed with a legal-tender quality as regards private debts. The fact that they were receivable for public dues and were to be called in gradually by taxes, gave them the credit they required to circulate from hand to hand. The public distrusted the experiment, and, as new issues were ordered, accepted the notes at a discount. The Government promised to receive them at a premium of 5 per cent., but could not modify this distrust. Until the charter came into effect the stability of the Government itself was not beyond question, and its pledges were under suspicion because of this political feature.

So ready a means of payment served upon subsequent occasions when the administration was called upon to meet heavy expenditures, and the "great service and benefit" derived from the bills of credit formed a strong argument in their favor. If the Assembly accompanied the issue with a pledge of an early redemption and enforced tax laws adequate to this purpose, the danger of depreciation was not great. In this essential precaution, however, lay the insidious temptation to avoid doing what is always unpopular, that is, to impose taxation to call into the treasury for destruction the bills that constituted the circulation of the colony. In creating the debt, they represented that the Government had "performed a public service"; but when it came to be a question of paying that debt, which could be done only through sacrifice, a powerful opinion was created not only in favor of leaving the bills in circulation, but of increasing their quantity. The paper had driven the few coins available out of circulation, and the complaint of a "scarcity of cash" (a complaint as old as barter itself) was erected into a political opinion, coloring the legislative proceedings as long as any of the bills remained outstanding. The royal governors, until Shirley's time, were upon the side of meeting in full the requirements of the original terms of the issues, and their urgent and incessant recommendations to the House of Representatives were at once honorable and instructive. As the popular branch, the House was most guilty in its refusal to redeem the promises which had given to the bills their circulation.

Very early in the proceedings the Representatives voted to postpone the retirement of the bills as provided for by annual instalments. Not only was this a violation of public faith, but it gave to the advocates of paper money their most effective argu-

ment. If the existing issues, they argued, have proved of such public benefit as to make their continuance advisable in the face of the solemn pledges of redemption at a fixed period, why should not further issues be expedient and produce further public advantage? It was only natural that the prospect of more paper money attracted the support of all who owed money, or had borrowed and misapplied the capital, and were now feeling the pressure of their debts. The opportunity of deriving some direct benefit from a new issue was offered by the adoption of the land-bank scheme, in which the Government were to issue bills of credit and to lend them to the inhabitants of the province on real estate; a provision being made for the gradual repayment of the loan. No restrictions imposed by the laws, no regulations of the Executive, could prevent the abuses which followed. In refusing to redeem its promises and in issuing loans for debtors, the Assembly deliberately invited a distribution of favors which could reach only those who were most deeply involved in debt and had the least ability to meet their obligations. A bribe so generously offered to those in difficulties could but react in sapping the morality of the bribe-giver, and provincial politics were brought to a correspondingly low point. Even the appointment of Governor was infected with the taint, when, in 1715, Burgess sold his commission to make room for Shute, a transaction which Mr. Davis rightly terms "extraordinary," but one that was justified by the fact that through such means alone could the Boston capitalists contributing the fund for this sale attain their end.

The situation now became a contest between the House and the Governor over the issue of more bills. The representative body was ever seeing a necessity for larger sums of money, and, by its refusal to maintain the credit of what was in circulation, tending to create that necessity. It is probable that the province would have been flooded with paper at a very early period if the House had carried out its intentions. To give a medium of circulation, to avoid the necessity of laying taxes, and to obtain a revenue for the Government through the interest on the loans, were advantages apparent to all. The deeper significance of the issues could come only through experience, and fortunately one of the first experiments converted the Governor to a "specie man." His influence and authority could not have stemmed the popular tide in favor of paper had not the weight of the Crown and Parliament been on the same side. The rapid depreciation of the bills made remittances to England difficult, and aroused the merchants there to protest against the manner in which their debts were settled. A definite instruction was sent to the Governor, practically prohibiting the issue of bills without the approval of the Crown. From this time and until Shirley became Governor, the Governor was at odds with the House. He was generally anxious to destroy the outstanding bills as they were received into the Treasury under the tax laws, while the House was fertile in projects for paying the old by creating new debts, for exchanging new issues against the old bills. In voting a supply of the bills of credit to be apportioned among the towns for loaning purposes, the House considered that it had done all that was necessary; the Governor, in pleading the royal instructions, believed that he had made a full and complete answer.

It would be an unnecessary task to follow this contest in detail, as the course is so fully described by Mr. Davis. The significant matter was that the degeneracy of public and private morality was so rapid under the insidious influence of paper money. Promises were freely made and as freely broken; Governors were made and unmade; the House resorted to arguments which would support any dishonesty, and to acts which were little less than criminal in their open disregard of what was right. The colony was starved for lack of appropriations, salaries were unpaid, the forts were decaying, and the small provincial army was at times forced to disband for want of subsistence. The notes depreciated, and the issues of the neighboring colonies, made upon a scale even greater than those of Massachusetts, infected all dealings with an element of gambling. Every compromise with dishonesty was costly, and only a grant of silver from Parliament saved the province from complete repudiation.

In this long experience in seeking to avoid the payment of debts, some good is to be found. The gradual resort to a full legal-tender quality, making the notes receivable in settlement of all debts, public and private, past and future, showed some conscience on the part of the Assembly. Then, too, the contest in favor of a return to specie was useful in inculcating better opinions regarding paper money, and in leading to a more correct knowledge of the nature and working of credit. After every expedient for maintaining the value of the bills had been tried and proved incompetent, the hard-money men were able effectively to urge their remedy, but at great cost to the colony, as all the monetary errors of half a century must be made good. Finally, in its contest with the Governor for legislative freedom of control, subject only to the provincial interpretation of the charter and royal instructions, the House developed a keen sense for political advantage, and established precedents of high utility at a later day, when the colony was really opposed to Parliament and the King's representatives.

A YEAR IN CHINA.

A Year in China. By Clive Bigham. The Macmillan Co.

The deadly dulness which, to Western eyes, seems to hang over all things Chinese, is decidedly relieved in this volume, which contains the lively record of a traveller and a soldier. During a year of constant activity, both as a civilian and a military man, in the service of the British Government, he saw four countries which have especially occupied the world's attention for a year past—China, Korea, Asiatic Russia, and Japan. The author, Clive Bigham, has already made his mark in the literature of travel by his books 'With the Turkish Army in Thessaly' and 'A Ride through Western Asia.' He is a man of very keen observation, apparently of great endurance, and of imperturbable good nature, and his style is crisp and crackling. One has a delightful feeling, as of innumerable mimic electric shocks, as he reads these pages so richly charged with information and suggestion. The author refrains from high questions of statecraft, strategy, and finance, modestly declining to discuss or advise the future policy of the British, or of any other Government, and omits the description of those places which have been voluminously written about.

It was early in April, 1899, when the author arrived in Hongkong, destined for the British Legation at Peking. At Kashgar he had seen the western extremity of the Chinese empire, but apart from this knew of the Middle Kingdom and its people only from books. His determination was to reach Peking by the overland route. He was under the escort of four native Government soldiers, who proved to be very useful assistants. Each one was armed with one Snider rifle, one prong, one sword, and four parasols. His journey from Canton to Hankow, covering eleven hundred miles, was made in twenty-four days, most of it being done in a small, flat-bottomed wooden craft, thirty feet long and eight feet broad. The chief feature in the landscape was the rice field, with the ploughman standing up to his knees in the fertile ooze, and driving the water-buffalo. Travelling from Hankow to Peking, the author was enabled to see how different were the people of southern and northern China, the former being as a rule better fed, more industrious and contented, and less apathetic, fanatical, and given to outbreaks. The geological and economic differences between the north and south are immense. North China, with its excess of mountains, its peculiar loess formation, its lack of roads, and from other causes not operative in the south, is to-day "isolated, decadent, underpopulated, and poverty-stricken." Southern China, being far better supplied with waterways, even though endowed with a less fertile soil, has made great strides of progress during the past century.

Mr. Bigham writes less like a European and more like the Japanese, who understand the country and people of China better than almost any foreign critics. He insists upon a radical difference between the Aryan and the Yellow races, as to both body and mind.

> "What would appear truth and reason to the one, often seems folly and lies to the other. Our ideas of history, of ethics, of domestic life, and even our logic and system of reasoning, frequently run quite counter to what the Chinamen expect and believe. . . . And our victories do not by any means convince him that he is wrong and that we are right."

Our perspective of China is so frequently incorrect because we apply to the Chinese Western standards of comparisons. Nevertheless, the author believes that the Chinese "understand the iron hand much better than the velvet glove," and that, "in Asia, fear is the father of peace." The Chinese as a race, while essentially a law-abiding people, are also materialists. In their eyes life is not long enough for fighting, which after all is "a dangerous and uncivilized amusement." If not harassed or pillaged by those in authority, they accept their rule with comparative equanimity. Above all, they appreciate financial purity, for peculation has so cankered the Chinese bureaucracy that an honest official is to the ordinary citizen something almost superhuman. The author believes that the highest powers of the best civilization yet evolved upon this planet will be taxed to

win the Chinaman's sympathy, as well as his respect for the Western man's force.

In August the author was sent on a journey across Mantchuria, with whose excellent waterways, splendid forests, and fertile soil he was very favorably impressed. The Mantchus who formerly thinly inhabited this region have practically disappeared, having either emigrated to the eighteen provinces, or been crushed out, or assimilated by the vanquished Chinese in the guise of colonists—one of the many peaceful conquests of China. Passing into eastern Siberia, he reached by means of the Russian railway the city of Vladivostok, whose commerce is not advancing quite so rapidly as is generally believed. Since the early summer of 1900 the Russian forces have increased to an army of one hundred thousand regular troops, which, with a powerful fleet, is kept ready for attacks from Japan or from other countries. At Khaborovsk is a statue of Count Muravieff, "the Cecil Rhodes of Russia."

Returning southward, the author followed for 500 miles the old land road down the eastern shore of the Korean peninsula. He passed through Kyong Song, an embattled city with walls of cyclopean masonry, but with dirty streets and tumble-down mud cottages, to the bright new treaty port of Gensan. He declares that Korea, the land of tiny horses and huge oxen, is very interesting to travel in, if only for its complete isolation from even Asiatic civilization, for the Koreans seem to have evolved nothing of consequence. In its future, though the Japanese have at present the preponderance, Russia and possibly a reformed China must be counted elements of influence. At Seoul he had an audience of the Emperor. He found the royal soldiers used bayonets of two lengths, the shorter for summer, when the people wear thin clothes, and the longer for winter, when they are swathed in thick padded garments. He then rode on the new railway to Chemulpo, which has now 22,000 inhabitants. Crossing over to Japan, he spent the month of December there. Early in 1900 going up the Yangtzse River into the great inland province of Sze-Chuan, he left the river at Chung King, going westward to Kia Ting, and thence northward into Shansi and to Sian Fu, and from this place, by the Yellow River and overland, to Tientsin and Peking. He had numerous adventures, and tells these in a bright and attractive way. He shows that a railway in western China, whether from India or from the eastern seacoast, would be a very expensive enterprise. In addition to the difficulties of engineering, much of the way lies through desolate and uninhabited regions.

Declining to discuss the history and evolution of those dynastic or anti-foreign feelings that led to the Boxer movement, and without detailing the events that precipitated its outbreak, he tells us how disappointed he was with Port Arthur. Its harbor can accommodate only four or five battle-ships with any manœuvring room; it is a very unhealthy spot, owing to the mud daily uncovered by the ebb tide; all its supplies must come from Chefoo, across the straits, and by land and sea it is easily blockaded and could thus be starved out. Reaching Tientsin in May, he saw the small bodies of troops that got into Peking and saved the situation. He took part in Admiral Seymour's hasty expedition of sailors and marines, which nobly attempted the first endeavor to raise the siege of the legations. This march and running fight he describes most vividly, in detail, and with fascination, especially the combined attack by Boxers and Imperial troops upon the column at Hsiku, and the skilful defence and retreat. His appreciative remarks and criticisms upon the soldiers of various nationalities are intelligent and judicial.

After Tientsin had been captured, and thus the first barrier on the road to Peking broken down, the author determined to travel home by way of Mantchuria. By way of Nagasaki and Vladivostok, and then by rail and river steamboat, he covered the distance of six thousand miles from the sea to Moscow. His criticisms are on the whole rather favorable to the Siberian railway management. He figures the items from London to Vladivostok at time of writing thus: distance 8,010 miles, time 26 days, first-class fare $150, or for all expenses $200.

Altogether this is a most interesting book. Its information is fresh, abundant, and at first hand, and the mental attitude of the author is that of a thoroughly sympathetic human being, and not merely of a British islander. Whether it be the missionaries, the Koreans, the Russians, or Americans, or Chinese, he sees the good points of each. While stanchly loyal to his own convictions, he points out where Englishmen as well as other Westerners can learn. Very few books in such brief compass cover the ground so accurately and entertainingly. There are four valuable colored maps, which give the present situation at a glance. The illustrations are forty in number, and are full-page and well reproduced, and there are appendices and an index.

Charles William Ferdinand, Duke of Brunswick. An Historical Study, 1735-1806. By Lord Edmond Fitzmaurice. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901.

During the five hundred years and more which have elapsed since Germany began to produce "hereditary princes," she has not often been successful in making them distinguished men. Of their mediæval ancestors, Mr. Herbert Fisher says: "Restrained by no considerations of patriotism, softened by no tincture of culture, swayed by rudimentary passions, simple, violent, and gross, they would neglect all the higher calls of citizenship to serve their greedy ends." Where there were so many petty princes, some could not fail to achieve distinction, and in the age of the Reformation we meet with a Philip of Hesse, a Maurice of Saxony, and a Bernard of Saxe-Weimar. But, after the Peace of Westphalia, particularism and dependence on France reduced the stature of the lesser German sovereigns, causing many of them to resemble the electoral dynasty of Hanover as it was at the close of the seventeenth century. We accordingly feel that sort of interest which arises from the exceptional case when we approach the career of Charles William Ferdinand, Duke of Brunswick. His standing among rulers of his own class in Germany may be judged from the fact that, when the Fürstenbund of 1786 was formed, he became without dispute its head. " 'Nobody,' wrote the Duke of Gotha to the Duke of Saxe-Weimar, 'can be the head of the League except one person, the Duke of Brunswick. It would be an honor to serve under him.' "

But we are using too small a standard when we speak of the Fürstenbund and the petty princes of Germany. The Duke of Brunswick belongs in the widest sense to the history of Europe. His life is a single and unique link between the age of Frederick the Great and the age of Napoleon. He won his first fame in the Seven Years' War, and he received his death wound in the battle of Auerstädt. For above forty years he was a factor in the European situation. Even after he had signed the famous proclamation of the allies against the French Revolution, a number of leading Frenchmen talked of him seriously as a possible successor to Louis XVI. Had he chosen to become a military adventurer, his chances would have been better than those of Wallenstein or Dumourietz, and he might even have created conditions which would have rendered the appearance of Napoleon impossible. His real eminence gave him a brilliant opportunity to which he proved unequal. Still, at the lowest estimate, he is a fit subject for the essay which Lord Edmond Fitzmaurice, after publishing it in two numbers of the *Edinburgh Review*, has now converted into a book.

The Duke of Brunswick was a Prussian commander-in-chief, and also the ruler of his own patrimony. In both capacities he enjoyed such great fame at the critical period of his life (namely, when the French Revolution began) that his biographer must find it hard to distinguish between their relative importance. Before 1789 he had been uniformly successful, whether serving under his uncles, Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick-Lüneburg and Frederick the Great, or with an independent command, as during the brief war of the Bavarian Succession which was ended by the Peace of Teschen in 1779. He had been the favorite nephew of Frederick the Great, who devoted a long ode to his praise, and said that "nature destined him to be a hero." At home he put aside the thought of military ambition altogether, and reformed the administration of his duchy. He was not merely a type of the general turned benevolent despot, like Frederick of Montefeltro at Urbino; he was a philosopher whose views of the world and of mankind had been colored by the French ideas so prevalent at Berlin. Mirabeau, then a secret envoy of Calonne, saw him in the summer of 1786 and wrote:

"The Duke will certainly not be thought a common man even among men of merit. His person bespeaks depth and penetration and a desire to please, tempered by fortitude—nay, by sternness. He is prodigiously laborious, well informed, and perspicuous. However able his first Minister, Féronce, may be, the Duke superintends all affairs and generally decides for himself. His correspondence is immense, and this he can owe only to his personal reputation, because he cannot be sufficiently wealthy to keep so many correspondents in pay."

While Lord Fitzmaurice places a high value upon Brunswick's gifts and attainments, his book may be called pathological in tone. With a great deal of sympathy he examines the causes of the Duke's failure to accomplish towards the close of his life what had been hoped for at the outset. Accordingly, he pays much more attention to the last fifteen years than to the fifty-five which precede the meeting of Leopold and Frederick William at Pilnitz. How Brunswick's reputation stood on the eve of the campaign which led to Valmy, may be

gathered from the words of the journalist Carra; "C'est le plus grand guerrier et le plus grand politique de l'Europe que le duc de Brunswick; il est très instruit, très aimable; il ne lui manque peut-être qu'une couronne, je ne dis pas pour être le plus grand roi de la terre, mais pour être le véritable restaurateur de la liberté de l'Europe." He disliked and despised the *émigrés*. As a ruler, he had shown himself a liberal. He was thought to be a better general than Lafayette, Rochambeau, or Luckner. And so the Narbonne ministry, acting through François de Custine, offered him the leadership of the French forces in the great war with Austria and Prussia. One cannot say that he made his fatal mistake when he declined this invitation, for he would have deserted his principles by accepting it. But his misfortunes began on the day when he assumed the Prussian command against France, under the pressure of loyalty to the heir of Frederick the Great and despite his better judgment. He did not write the celebrated manifesto which bears his name and is so dreadfully associated with the September massacres; he issued it with the utmost reluctance, and never ceased to regret that he had countenanced it in any way. Long afterwards he said to Massenbach: "That unlucky manifesto! I shall repent it to the last day of my life. What would I not give never to have signed it!"

An episode of the kind brings us to the reasons with which Lord Fitzmaurice accounts for Brunswick's failure to succeed amid the stormy politics of the Revolution. He possessed enough discernment, but he was lacking in will power. Though the *émigrés* thought Paris an easy prize, he was deceived by no illusions. He saw the potential strength of France, and the absence of any true advantage which Germany could gain through war. He saw clearly, yet was led into trouble by fools, because he had not the faculty of holding fast to his opinions.

"When the decisive moment arrived which Mirabeau had indicated must sooner or later come, when the Duke would have to decide if he would act with authority or not, it was proved that the early suspicions of Gaudi and Westphalen were true, and that, while Nature had granted him every faculty of the intellect with an unstinted hand, circumstances, if not Nature herself, had deprived him of the equally necessary quality of moral determination."

Hardenberg put the issue more tersely when he complained that the Duke would neither say "yes" nor "no." It is a sad verdict to pass on a man of Brunswick's talents and honor, but both in statecraft and in war his acts were marked by a caution which can hardly be traced to anything else than radical indecision of character.

In a few words of preface the author accounts for the publication of these two papers on Brunswick as a book. "Lord Rosebery and Sir George Trevelyan having intimated to me their opinion that these articles might be of use to the historical student if they received a more permanent shape, the present volume appears in consequence." It is an admirable essay, and one which does more than compass the aim so modestly expressed. It is not only useful but attractive.

En Méditerranée: Promenades d'histoire et d'art. Par Charles Diehl. Paris: A. Colin. 1901. Pp. 286, 16mo.

The first of the excursions of M. Diehl, in whom the reader will find an enthusiastic and scholarly companion, is, following in the footsteps of the historian Freeman, in 'Subject and Neighbor Lands of Venice,' through the ruins of the fortress-palace of Diocletian at Spalato on the eastern shore of the Adriatic. His description of this vast group of buildings, this "fragment of petrified history," revives the splendors of an expiring civilization. The main point of interest here, after the historical associations, is the architecture, in which are to be seen the first indications of the transition from the Roman to the Byzantine and Christian orders. At the neighboring city of Salona his attention is directed chiefly to the cemeteries, whose numerous inscriptions throw much valuable light on the origins of Latin Christianity. The other Dalmatian ports, Zara and Ragusa, serve only to awaken patriotic reminiscences of the French occupation in 1805. Our traveller recounts at length and with evident satisfaction the manifestations of attachment to France, as the "ally of the great Slav race," on the part of the people, the great majority of whom are Serbo-Croats, and full of Slavic aspirations. When in Bosnia-Herzegovina, also, he loses sight of the past, and confines himself to giving his impressions of its present condition. The great material progress of these provinces since they were freed from Turkish rule he frankly acknowledges, but he is inclined to believe that only superficial results have been obtained. A hint is dropped that the Austrians have been more successful in impressing tourists with what they have accomplished than in conciliating the mass of the people, who are poor and burdened with heavy taxes. Apparently he shares in the conviction of some Austrians even that "this much vaunted work will vanish into smoke on the day in which it ceases to be supported by 40,000 bayonets."

Our author is at his best in his description of Delphi when it was the centre of Greek art and religion—and, we may add, liberty. For "yet to-day, on the polygonal wall which sustains the terrace of the great temple, one can read by hundreds those acts of enfranchisement which recall that the sanctuary of Apollo was, in the second century, one of the great centres of emancipation for slaves." We have not space to dwell upon M. Diehl's survey of the history and present organization of the twenty monasteries of Mt. Athos, with their great army of monks, nor upon the record of his experiences at Constantinople. His chapters on Famagusta and Rhodes are largely devoted to showing the predominant influence of France during the Middle Ages in the Levant, and especially to picturing the marvellous prosperity of Cyprus when, under the house of Lusignan, it became the great market for the merchants of Asia and Europe. Amid all the profoundly interesting associations of Jerusalem, however, the things which impress him most are the evidences of the eclipse of France and rise of Russia in Syria. He closes his highly instructive book with a sigh of regret at the "slow but real waning of our influence, the scarcely perceived but incontestable diminution of our prestige."

Educational Aims and Methods. By Sir Joshua Fitch. Macmillan Co.

It is always a pleasure to review a work by Sir Joshua Fitch. It would be hard to name a single book in English which can be more unreservedly recommended to the young teacher than Fitch's 'Lectures on Teaching.' The present volume is more miscellaneous, but is characterized by the same thorough knowledge, deep interest in the subject, breadth of judgment, and clearness of style as the earlier admirable book. It consists of fifteen lectures delivered at important educational centres in England and America. Among the titles are the following: "Methods of Instruction Illustrated in the Bible"; "Socrates and his Methods of Teaching"; "Charles Darwin and the Evolution of Character"; "Hand-work and Head-work"; "Endowments and their Influence on Education"; "Edward Thring"; "University Extension"; "The Sunday School of the Future."

The first lecture is of special interest. The varied contents of the many documents which make up the Bible are analyzed, and the different ways in which they appeal to the human mind are set forth. The consideration of the Psalms and Isaiah suggests the importance of poetry as a factor in education, and the remark is made that the caution, wise for most teaching, not to soar above the pupil's comprehension, does not exactly apply to the use of poetry. Here it may be wise and right to allow a pupil to learn some things which he only dimly comprehends. The parallelism, which is so characteristic a feature of Hebrew poetry, is likened to the important pedagogic device of restating a thought with changed words. Dr. Fitch remarks that catechisms or memory lessons are rather a substitute for teaching than an aid to it, and comments on the fact that, in the New Testament, the only formulary used is the Lord's Prayer, and this is expressly given as a suggestion only. "Why are proverbs so little effective?" asks Dr. Fitch. "Because," he thinks, "they contain more wit than wisdom," stating only half the truth and being therefore half false. "A better form of teaching than the proverb is the parable, and why is this so good? Because the pupil, beginning to reflect, becomes his own teacher." How important the phrase, descriptive of Christ's teaching, "Without a parable he did not speak to them." The teacher will value the Scripture references in Dr. Fitch's essay. The choicest passages of the Bible are thus indicated. The passages might well be used in the daily Bible-reading in schools, and the teacher will be helped in his own brief comment by Dr. Fitch's thoughtful study.

We have left ourselves little room for comment on the other lectures. Several of them are biographical studies. Arnold and Thring, says Sir Joshua Fitch, are the two most important names in the history of secondary education in England during the last seventy-five years.

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Bacon, Lee. Our Houseboat on the Nile. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75.
Beavan, A. H. Imperial London. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $4.
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Boutell, R. S. G. Amata. Washington: The Neale Pub. Co. $1.
Bradley, A. G. Owen Glyndwr. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.35.
Brooks, Noah. Lem. Scribners. $1.
Brooks, R. C. A Bibliography of Municipal Problems and City Conditions. New ed. Reform Club.
Burroughs, John; Muir, John; and Grinnell, G. B. Alaska. (Harriman Expedition.) 2 vols. Doubleday, Page & Co.
Channing, Blanche M. Winifred West. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. $1.
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Siviter, Anna P. Nehe. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. $1.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 3, 1901.

The Week.

The news of the disaster to American troops in Samar confirms the reports of the serious state of affairs in that island which have been coming in for some time past. If it be true that more than forty Americans were killed, including the three officers of the company, this is the severest loss inflicted on the American troops in any one engagement since the beginning of the fighting in 1899. It will at once be used by those (like the Philippine correspondent of *Leslie's Weekly*) opposed to the methods of the Taft Commission, as another proof of the imprudence of establishing civil government in territory not yet conquered by the United States troops. From the military point of view, the disaster calls for a strict investigation. That a company which had within three years served in three wars should have been caught off its guard in hostile territory, seems to show that somebody blundered, and blundered badly. Apparently the simplest military precautions were omitted, perhaps because of over-confidence, engendered by many victories over the brown men. The whole affair, as well as the discouraging news, received at the same time, of the guerrilla conditions in Batangas and Tayabas, supports the opinion of Gen. A. S. Burt and other officers that the war is not likely to be ended during our time.

Czolgosz was brought into court on Monday week, and the witnesses were examined on that and the following day. The arguments were made, the judge's charge was delivered, and the verdict rendered on Tuesday. On Thursday the death sentence was passed, and now only remains to be carried into effect. If an appeal were to be taken—of which there is no expectation—some little time might elapse before the execution, but it would be the minimum which the law provides for. Such expedition cannot be looked for in all cases of murder, but the trial of Czolgosz should be an example for bench and bar and legislators. The English system is as nearly a model of the workings of even-handed justice as the world has ever seen. Yet it is not fettered by the delays which, among us, nullify the effects of punishment and furnish excuses and provocation for the lynching of criminals without any trial at all.

As was to have been expected, the attempt to force Commissioner Evans out of the Pension Bureau was renewed at the earliest possible moment after the change in the Presidency. It had become plain before Mr. McKinley was shot that the raid on this efficient public servant could not succeed so long as he remained in the White House. Mr. Roosevelt, of course, had previously had nothing to do with the controversy, and some of Mr. Evans's enemies fancied that they might fare better with the new President. They have already learned their mistake. In pursuance of his resolution to carry out Mr. McKinley's policy, Mr. Roosevelt was morally bound to stand by the Commissioner, as he has served notice that he will. This will be all the easier because the President is the last man who would favor the idea of turning a good official out for no other reason than that he had done his work well.

The New York *Press* has obtained letters from sundry members of Congress on the subject of a lowering of the duties on sugar by treaties of reciprocity or otherwise. The *Press* itself is opposed to any change whatever in the tariff at the coming session of Congress or during the next ten years. It perceives, however, that an attempt will be made to reopen the question, particularly as regards the importation of sugar from Cuba, and upon this subject particularly it has sought the views of Congressman Payne, the prospective Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, of Senators Burrows and Hawley, and of Congressman Henry of Connecticut. Mr. Payne's letter is not as explicit as it might be. He says that "the tariff question should not be opened unless for the most imperative reasons, and only when the benefits would outweigh the temporary embarrassments and losses resulting from it." This might be said by even such a heretic as Congressman Babcock of Wisconsin. We had looked for a more pronounced statement from Mr. Payne, if any. Senator Burrows of Michigan is more decided. He holds that the present duty on sugar ought not to be disturbed at all. He goes even further, and favors a duty on coffee for the purpose of encouraging its growth in this country. He thinks it possible to grow all that we consume, "and thus save the $52,000,000 annually expended abroad for this product." This is the kind of protection that we like to see, the kind that flinches at nothing, but follows its logic to the end. Senator Hawley, while adhering to the doctrine of protection in a general way, does not care to say anything as to details until he hears the report of the Finance Committee of the Senate. Congressman Henry thinks that a reduction of 10 per cent. in the duties on sugar might be admissible, and that Porto Rico, Hawaii, and the Philippines should be protected by a differential duty on the coffee imported into the United States. This is a new variation of the protective idea. It means the payment of gratuities of unknown amount by the consumers of coffee in this country to the people of distant islands, with some of whom we are now waging war. This is a scheme which is not likely to make rapid headway among our people when they discover what it signifies.

Another long step toward the overthrow of the Quay ring, not only in Philadelphia, but in all Pennsylvania as well, was taken on September 24. The Union party, made up of anti-Quay Republicans and Independents, held its State and County Conventions in Philadelphia, and nominated excellent candidates, chosen not only because of their well-known fitness for positions of public trust, but also with a view to uniting all the elements in the city and State which stand for purity and decency in public affairs. Judge Yerkes, who had already been nominated by the Democratic Convention to head the State ticket, was accepted and endorsed by the Union State Convention, and a candidate was nominated for State Treasurer who, it is understood, will be acceptable to the Democrats, their own candidate retiring in the interests of the fusion movement. The County Convention nominated District Attorney Rothermel, who is already the nominee of a mass convention of citizens, and who will also receive the support of the reorganized Democratic party in Philadelphia, which ex-Gov. Pattison is calling together after throwing off the incubus of the Donnelly-Ryan machine.

The Democratic vote in Philadelphia, strange as it may seem, has decreased in recent years from more than 100,000 to about 30,000, and it now looks as though the missing 70,000, at least, together with as many voters from the 30,000 as have not sold themselves to the Republican ring, would be found in the new organization. A well-attended mass meeting of Democrats was held last week, under the call of Mr. Pattison, at which the ticket nominated by the Union party was endorsed and presented to the Democratic voters. At the same time the news of a break in the Donnelly-Ryan machine was announced, one of the ward leaders coming over to the Pattison organization and bringing with him his entire ward committee. The interest with which students of municipal problems will watch the progress of this fusion campaign, must be greatly intensified by the fact that the fusion was possible only after a repudiation of the bosses of the national party.

Developments in the New York municipal campaign are still encouraging. The Conventions of the Citizens' Union for Manhattan Borough and New York County last week unanimously endorsed the tickets previously agreed upon by the conferees of the various anti-Tammany organizations, with the exception of one of the nominees for coroners. It was charged that this man has a bad record as a supporter of Tammany, and the Borough Convention very properly referred his name back to the Committee, with the understanding that it would make an investigation and substitute a better choice if the charges were sustained. It is already clear that the substantial elements among the minor anti-Tammany organizations will support Mr. Low, and that any would-be leaders who may become allies of Tammany by holding off will soon find themselves without followers. Of no class of voters is this so true as of the respectable German-Americans, whom a number of organizations have professed to represent during the period of conference. What such voters want, above all else, is an honest and decent government, and they will pursue the only course by which it can be secured.

What an extraordinary figure is that now cut by Comptroller Coler! After having lost the nomination of the party of reform and good government, he is angling for one from the party of corruption and bad government, which he has so often opposed and so often portrayed in the darkest colors. He will not even hear of a renomination for his present office, but insists upon the headship of the ticket, notwithstanding the fact that he has so often announced his retirement from politics for business and other reasons. Although an avowed champion of local home rule, and opposed to the interference of State officials in city affairs, he has, it would seem, brought the question of State control of the Democratic party into the situation, by his appeal to State politicians to aid him in satisfying his heart's desire. Were he the man most of those who shout for him take him to be, he would prove his devotion to the city's welfare by giving his support to Mr. Low, and putting the great cause of municipal honesty and purity above his own petty ambitions. His failure to do so casts doubt upon the sincerity of all his reform pretensions. His acceptance of a Tammany nomination for any office whatever will mean that he has put himself beyond the pale, and has definitely allied himself with the enemies of public decency and of the welfare of the city. No Ramapo record and no magazine articles on commercialism in politics will ever clean his slate again.

Each Southern State which tries to restrict negro suffrage attempts some new device, and that agreed upon by the majority of the Suffrage Committee of the Virginia Constitutional Convention is very ingenious. There is no "grandfather clause," like the one adopted in Louisiana and North Carolina, but the illiterate ex-Confederate soldier is assured the right to vote by a provision giving it to any person who has served in the army or navy of either the Confederacy, the United States, or any State—which, of course, covers both whites and blacks who fought for the Union during the civil war. Such voters are relieved from paying the $1.50 poll-tax which is to be required of all others after the 1st of January, 1903. Suffrage is also granted to any person who, by himself or his wife, has paid during the year before an election as much as $1 in State taxes on property owned by one or the other. The scheme by which it is expected to keep most negroes from the ballot-box is a provision that any man who is not an ex-soldier or a taxpayer, in order to vote, must, when he offers to register, "be able to give a reasonable explanation of the general nature of the duties of the various officers for whom he may, at any time, under laws then existing, be entitled to vote, and, if physically able, shall have indicated his substantial attachment to, or identification with, this State, by having been regularly employed or engaged in a lawful trade, profession, business, calling, work, or service, for at least one-fourth of the time during the year next preceding that in which he shall offer to vote." Any State would be benefited by an impartial application of the principles here embodied, but it is obvious that they may be enforced by unscrupulous officials in such a manner as to admit grossly ignorant and thriftless whites and to debar reasonably intelligent and industrious blacks. Being impartial on its face, the Supreme Court would doubtless sustain the Constitutionality of the provision; and if it shall be adopted, the negroes will have to depend upon the growing sense of fair play in the dominant race to give them a chance. It should be added that another sort of educational qualification is proposed after January 1, 1904, in a provision that the would-be voter must make his application to the registrars in writing, and must be able to prepare his ballot without help, except in case of physical disability.

The question of transportation has given rise to an interesting situation in the new oil region of Texas, and the outlook now is that the industrial history of the Ohio and other oilfields will be repeated. The average daily capacity of the fifty-two wells that have been opened up to this time is about 1,560,000 barrels. This large output could scarcely be handled with promptness by all the railways in Texas, even if they should combine in an effort to take care of the total product without discrimination. As a matter of fact, they are very far from placing transportation facilities at the disposal of all, without any respect to persons. Although the demand for the oil for use as fuel is greater than the railways can supply, only about 125,000 barrels a day are being shipped, and these come chiefly from a single company, which is now said to form part of the Standard Oil Company. The difficulty in shipping the oil from the wells, of course, prevents the smaller companies from earning anything, and the prospects are that, unless some measures can be taken to secure transportation, the stockholders in these companies will be obliged to sell out at a low figure. Such a necessity would practically repeat the experience of Ohio producers who competed with the Standard Oil Company twenty years ago, except that in this case the suppression of competition would be far from having the same beneficial results as formerly. The efforts of ex-Gov. Hogg to form a rival syndicate which shall construct pipe lines to the coast, and so market the output of the small producers, are therefore worthy of success from all points of view. The suggestion of Gov. Sayers that pipe lines be subjected to the law of common carriers also deserves serious consideration.

A different, but quite as interesting problem as that of transportation has been brought to the front by the attempt to tax the Texas oil-producers. In accordance with the general feeling that the oil should be made a special object of taxation, Gov. Sayers recommended a bill imposing a tax of 2 per cent. upon the gross receipts from all sales. Although the rate was finally lowered from 2 per cent. to 1 per cent., the tax has met with strong opposition from producers, and even in the amended form has failed to pass both branches of the Legislature. The proposed mode of imposition will give the objections of the producers much weight with students of taxation, although not all of their arguments have been of the strongest character. Among those most prominently urged was the familiar plea against crippling an infant industry. The cry against discriminating taxation was raised, since it was maintained that there was quite as much reason for taxing corporations engaged in producing coal or metals, or even farm products. Less disingenuous were those who protested against double taxation, since the oil-producing ground is already taxed, and who complained of the exorbitantly high rate of the impost. The real question, of course, is the old one as to the proper mode of taxing corporations. Most of the objections to the tax would be overcome by imposing it upon the net income, or net income above a speci-

fied amount, from the wells. In this form the possibility of shifting the tax would be minimized, and most of the special pleas put forward would be without foundation.

The recent decision of a Delaware court on the illegality of prepaying seamen's wages is much to be commended. In this particular case a sailor had agreed to ship for "one shilling for the first twenty days and $30 a month thereafter," the $20 that would naturally have come to him for the first twenty days being paid as commission to an agent who had secured the man's services for the British steamer *Kestor*. By American admiralty law the prepayment of wages to any but the seaman himself is illegal, since it makes possible the perpetration of fraud upon ignorant men. The court held in this case that the consideration of a shilling for the first twenty days was an evident attempt to evade the law, and, as such, should be held void. Especially to be commended is that part of the decision which repudiates the defence offered that the complainant was a British citizen, and hence not subject to American law. If such a claim should be admitted, a wide door to fraudulent evasion of the statute would have been opened. The law was meant, not merely for American seamen on foreign vessels and foreign seamen on American vessels, but also for foreign seamen shipping on foreign vessels in American ports. Any other interpretation would have rendered this valuable piece of protective legislation practically void.

The progress of the inquiry has already done much to inform the lay public in regard to the true nature of the case against Rear-Admiral Schley. In the public mind, despite endless newspaper elucidation, the bone of contention has seemed to be Rear-Admiral Schley's behavior at the battle of Santiago itself, and the question whether the credit for the victory should go to him or to the Commander-in-Chief, who was twenty miles away at the time of the beginning of the fighting. Even when the precept by which the Court of Inquiry is governed was published by the Navy Department, the impression remained that Schley's conduct on the third of July, 1898, was the real subject of the investigation. To any intelligent man who has followed the dignified proceedings of the Court, it must be plain now that the question to be decided is Rear-Admiral Schley's fitness for the command, as shown by his operations and movements previous to the battle itself. His own personal actions under fire, and the turning movement of the *Brooklyn*, about which discussion has raged so hotly, have shrunk to their proper place as mere incidents of the fight. The failure of the public to grasp this is responsible for the frequent polling of multitudes at summer resorts and elsewhere upon the question, "Who was the hero of Santiago?" and for Rear-Admiral Schley's frequent introduction to public assemblages as "The Man Who Was There." This has never been the question at issue, and the clear revelation of what underlies it is so great a gain as in itself to justify the holding of the court. As far as the navy itself is concerned, there has never been any more idle talk printed than that which hinted at a conspiracy to deprive Rear-Admiral Schley of the honors to which he was entitled as the senior officer present when Cervera made his fatal dash for liberty.

The painful duty of explaining a joke of six months' standing falls to the Rev. Gilbert Reid, missionary at Pekin. Last spring, when criticism of missionary loot was rife, Mr. Reid wrote to the *North China Herald* "an ironical confession, intended as a burlesque," by way of rejoinder to the sallies of the press. Fat-witted news-writers and editors took the joke seriously, and now, under date of August 26, the perpetrator of the hoax explains the incident at great length. The most striking thing about this serious explanation is that it is far more humorous than the joke itself. The Rev. Mr. Reid offers the time-honored apology that his loot was "a very little one," or, in his own words, "I favored the looting of only two or three houses." And this he did by way of retribution upon those who "had nearly encompassed our massacre." Furthermore, he has saved many innocent Chinese from pillage; in fact, for his staying of the looting hand which was outstretched over the home he now occupies, the landlord, on his side, has abstained from collecting rent. The old refrain, "Come live with me," is evidently sung with uncommon fervor by the guileless Chinaman confronted by a member of the missionary "committee on loot." But we are far from thinking the majority of his fellow-missionaries likely to be pleased with Mr. Reid's pleasantry; and if his aim is a complete whitewashing, we advise him to quit joking and procure a signed testimonial from his associates.

An address by Joseph Lawrence, M. P., before the Newport Chamber of Commerce, reported in part by cable, relates to the capacity of the United States and that of Great Britain in the production of steel. The conclusions reached by the speaker were rather more favorable to the United States in this particular than any other that we have seen in the course of recent discussion. Mr. Lawrence told his audience that Charles M. Schwab assured him that the Steel Trust could deliver steel billets in England for $16.50 a ton, whereas the lowest price for which British manufacturers could make them was $19. Mr. Schwab, he said, also asserted that when the Trust had completed certain ocean transportation arrangements now pending, the American price would be still lower. In addition to this statement, Mr. Schwab called the attention of Mr. Lawrence to the fact that his (Mr. Schwab's) steel-workers got double the wages paid British workmen in the same line. The *Iron Age* of September 26 quotes steel billets at Pittsburgh at $26 to $27 per ton, or $10 per ton higher than Mr. Schwab says that his company can supply them to England. This large discrepancy is due, probably, to the recent strike and to the consequent abnormal demand for home consumption. We so infer from the remark in the *Iron Age* that "it is no longer a question of price in the steel market, but where to get it." But, after making all allowances, it seems a trifle absurd that we should maintain a tariff against English steel when we are able to undersell English manufacturers by $2.50 per ton in their own market. Chairman Babcock of the Republican Congressional Committee will no doubt make good use of Mr. Schwab's testimony, as reported by Mr. Lawrence, when he introduces his tariff bill.

That touch of nature which makes even bosses kin is beautifully illustrated in the case of ex-Deputy Casale of Naples. Casale was the city boss, until the peculations of his followers became notorious. A Socialist newspaper brought full and explicit charges of corrupt practices against him. He responded with a libel suit, in which the newspaper was acquitted and himself morally condemned. That a criminal trial has not long since relegated the great Camorrist to prison is due only to some extraordinary laxness of the prosecuting authorities. Meanwhile Casale has been asked to give his opinion on the work of the Committee of Investigation which now rules Naples. Naturally, his anxiety is not for himself, but for his well-loved city, and his opinion is that of other famous politicians concerning investigating committees:

> "As a citizen and Neapolitan," said Casale, "I believe that the investigation will carry in its train incalculable harm to our city, both of a moral and economic sort. The scope of the investigation is too broad. It has acted upon a plan which will make the whole world believe that in Naples there is not a hand-breadth of earth untainted by corruption and crooked practices."

This high moral indignation has a strangely familiar ring. Where can we have heard the like before? Is it possibly Murphy and Devery on the spoiling of "business" by reformers? Or is it Mr. Croker of Wantage protesting that New York is the best governed city in the world?

JUVENILIA.

"The atrocious crime of being a young man" is one which must be imputed to President McKinley's successor. Mr. Roosevelt is both the latest and the youngest incumbent of his high office, being one of four inaugurated under fifty. At his present age, not one of the other three—Pierce, Grant, and Cleveland—we may be sure, was anything like so youthful in temperament, so full of animal spirits, so openly affected with the love of boyish as well as manly sports. In a marked degree he represents the Young America of to-day, for at the date of his birth all that passion for athletics which he typifies was nearly invisible in college circles, yet grew with his growth, overcame him, and made him one of the extreme defenders of games discredited for roughness and peril. How far the new gospel of brawn was responsible for his participating in the Spanish war, we will not now inquire; but hundreds of the rising generation, bred to the rush lines of the "Soldiers' Field" and other college playgrounds, passed naturally to the larger "sport" of killing Spaniards in Cuba. The recruiting of the Rough Riders had less a Wild Western than a juvenile aspect, as had all that was spectacular in Colonel Roosevelt's military career.

The same happy period of life protracted into manhood has been manifest in his volubility, his impulsiveness (which as Governor led him into more than one amusing situation), his restlessness and excitableness. Especially in the Expansionist we discern the boy whose patriotism is indistinguishable from a sense of national bigness in every dimension. True, the boy's mind, fired by the contemplation of the Greatest, Freest, and Best, is content with the boundaries shown on the map and familiar in spread-eagle oratory—"from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific, from the Great Lakes to the Gulf." Nor does the child feel the stirring of a missionary political propaganda, in which the Declaration of Independence is to be made to cross the seas—never to return. But there is no natural dividing line between the megalomania of self-satisfaction and that of dissatisfaction with the area in which so much bigness has swelled up. The boy is father to the man.

The spirit of adventure taking us to lands remote in the pursuit of wealth, power, and glory is again associated with the sap and buoyancy of early years. The author of 'Hunting Trips of a Ranchman,' 'Ranch Life and the Hunting Trail,' and 'The Winning of the West' reverts by sympathy to the infancy of the republic, and, in default of Boone and Leatherstocking, fraternizes with the cowboy of to-day. In an unguarded moment he even contrasts the plodding farmer unfavorably with the cowboy, as if nomadic "roughing it" were a more valuable element in our civilization than settled industry. This is exactly the way it would strike a boy's imagination if he could see the two side by side; it would be like comparing the circus with a horse-car stable. In short, one cannot but feel that Mr. Roosevelt, but for his breeding and culture, might readily have fallen a victim to the dime novel.

We share the poet's aversion to "irreverence for the dreams of youth," and we indulge in these reminiscences solely because they serve to explain why there were such general misgivings as to the results of Mr. Roosevelt's succeeding President McKinley. It was not his relative youthfulness, as being fifteen years younger than his late chief, or more than ten years below the average of all the Presidents in their first terms. The fear lay in those impetuous traits which betokened a retarded maturity alike of judgment and of ideals, and which might—particularly in our dealings with foreign nations—expose the country, if not to actual dangers, at least to mortifying collisions. Mr. Roosevelt had shown that boyish lack of humor which consisted in taking his own strenuousness seriously; and how large a part humor plays in statesmanship need not be insisted upon. He had, also, both in the versatility of his public experience and in his disappointing Governorship, shown a certain inconstancy which of all things is out of place at the head of the Federal Administration. Civil-Service Commissioner, Police Commissioner, Assistant Secretary of the Navy, "captain, or colonel, or knight in arms," Governor—valuable discipline this, in the sum, for perpetual adolescence, yet suggestive of fickleness and a roving habit.

A man's nature was never wholly changed even by such a fortune of sudden responsibility as has befallen Mr. Roosevelt; and calm, steadiness, reticence, the just vision, are to be attained by him, if at all, only by severe internal conflict. We can await the issue hopefully and generously, but at the same time we cannot avoid asking ourselves whether he may not be the mirror of his time; whether this people has not declined from the manhood which reached its full height in the Civil War, to a childhood perilously near to decay. We shall answer this doubt as optimistically as we can by quoting here a remarkable view of the American tendency as it appeared to a friendly foreign observer in 1855, at the beginning of the armed struggle over slavery in Kansas. We quote from the Autobiography of Harriet Martineau, written at a time when she supposed her own end to be imminent:

"Negro slavery in the United States, as regards the existing Union, is near its end, I have no doubt. I regard with a deeper concern the manifest retrogression of the American people in their political and social character. They seem to be lapsing from national manliness into childhood—retrograding from the aims and interests of the nineteenth century into those of the fifteenth and sixteenth. Their passion for territorial aggrandizement, for gold, for buccaneering adventure, and for vulgar praise, is seen miserably united with the pious pretensions and fraudulent ingenuity which were, in Europe, old-fashioned three centuries ago, and which are now kept alive only in a few petty or despised states where dynasty is on its last legs.

"I know that there are better men, and plenty of them, in America than those who represent the nation in the view of Europe; but these better men are silent and inactive; and the national retrogression is not visibly retarded by them. I fear it cannot be. I fear that when the bulk of a nation is below its institutions—whether by merely wanting the requisite knowledge or by being in an immature moral condition—it is not the intelligence and virtue of a small, despairing, and inactive minority that can save it from lapses into barbarism. I fear that the American nation is composed almost entirely of the vast majority who coarsely boast, and the small minority who timidly despair, of the Republic. It appears but too probable that the law of Progression may hold good with regard to the world at large without preventing the retrogression of particular portions of the race.

"But the American case is not exactly of this kind. I rather take it to be that a few wise men, under solemn and inspiring influences, laid down a loftier political programme than their successors were able to fulfil. If so, there is, whatever disappointment, no retrogression, properly speaking. We supposed the American character and policy to be represented by the chiefs of the Revolution, and their Declaration of Independence and republican Constitution; and now we find ourselves mistaken in our supposition. It is a disappointment; but we had rather admit a disappointment than have to witness an actual retrogression."

THE MUNICIPAL CONTEST IN NEW YORK.

"The one issue in this campaign," concludes the admirable platform adopted by the Republican City Convention last week, "is an upright administration of municipal affairs, conceived and executed solely for the benefit of the people. It is the issue of common honesty. It is the fight of good citizenship against bad, selfish, and careless citizenship." It would be difficult to better this compact and forcible statement of the contest upon which we are just entering.

The conventions of both the Citizens' Union and the Republicans showed the right spirit. The threatened attempt to "stampede" the Union Convention for Mr. Coler was not made, the Comptroller's chief advocate announcing that he had refused to allow the use of his name; but it was obvious that only a small minority of the delegates would have supported such a movement under any circumstances. Moreover, the especial champions of Mr. Coler announced their loyalty to the principles of the Union, and their purpose to stand by the candidate who was selected for the head of the ticket. The temper and the action of the Republican Convention were all that could be desired, from the excellent speech which Mr. Robert C. Morris delivered, as temporary chairman, throughout the proceedings. Hearty coöperation is assured between the two

great anti-Tammany organizations in the support of Seth Low. Such minor organizations as have participated in the preliminary conferences and really desire the overthrow of Tammany, will now fall into line; such as do not, will become simply the allies of the common foe whom they have professed to hate.

The figures of 1897 are full of encouragement. Four years ago Tammany cast only 233,997 votes, against 253,413 by the Citizens' Union and the Republicans together (151,540 for Low and 101,873 for Tracy). Here was a plurality of nearly 20,000 against Tammany, if the votes divided between the two chief opposing organizations had been concentrated upon one man. But the real plurality against Tammany was more than twice 20,000, for Henry George had run as an independent; and even after his sudden death, on the eve of the election, 21,693 votes were cast for his son and namesake. Mr. George was as strongly opposed to Tammany as Mr. Low, and not long before the end declared that, "If I cannot be elected, I should prefer that Mr. Low should occupy the chair of Mayor of Greater New York. If I thought I could not win, I would say, Vote for Low." The chief supporters of Mr. George in 1897 are prominent in the Citizens' Union now, and one of them is a candidate on the fusion ticket. It must be remembered also that the real anti-Tammany plurality of more than 40,000 in 1897 was secured under conditions far less favorable for the opposition than those which now exist. Tammany had then been out of power for three years. The public memory is short, and the recollections of Tammany misrule were dim. There were even people who pretended that Tammany had reformed, and that it would be decent if it returned to power under a mayor who had won a respectable reputation as a judge. It was impossible to arouse the voters to a realizing sense of the peril which confronted the city, because the object-lesson was too remote. Now we have had Tammany in power for nearly four years, growing steadily worse from first to last. Apologies for the organization are impossible; hope of its reform is absurd. It stands before the public for what it really is—the exemplification of all that is bad in government. Its continuance in authority means only greater license for the powers of evil, and lower depths of shame for decent citizens. In short, to support Tammany means that one connives at the degradation of the city. It seems impossible that a majority of the voters should not see their duty, and do it. Meanwhile, Mr. Low, who has been three times a candidate for Mayor, twice in the old city of Brooklyn and once in Greater New York, and fully realizes the pressing necessity of an immediate start by the reform forces, has saved practically a week by making his replies on Friday and Saturday to the notification committees of the Citizens' Union and Republicans largely anticipate the letter of acceptance which he will write, after all the bodies that joined in selecting him have formally communicated their action.

In the language of his first speech, "to wrest the control of the city from those who permit one man to govern it from his English home, like a second George III., and to make millions for himself and his friends out of his control of it, as though this imperial city of New York were his private gold mine," is the supreme object of the campaign. In his second speech, to the Republican Committee on Saturday evening, Mr. Low further characterized the existing administration as one "under the direction or by permission of an absentee who is not responsible to the people," and defined what is offered in its stead as "home rule, carried on by the Mayor himself, who is responsible to the people, and to them alone." This sole responsibility to the people was also emphasized by Mr. Low's statement that it would be his "duty, in case of election, to stand as the representative of the city itself, and to administer the city government in the public interest only," and by this explicit declaration of independence of all bosses and machines:

> "It is indeed highly important that all who vote for me shall understand that, if elected, the actual as well as the nominal head of the city Government will be in the City Hall. As I shall accept the responsibility incident to such a conduct of the city as we propose, so I shall reserve the right to act on every question to come before me according to my best judgment."

Mr. Low laid stress in each of his speeches on the importance of registration, and especially of early registration. This is a matter which Tammany never neglects, but which the other side is only too apt to overlook. It may be taken for granted that the Republican managers will send by mail a personal notification of the arrangements for registration to every voter whose name is on the rolls of the organization. The Citizens' Union will, of course, do the same thing for all members of that body, but it should do much more; it should make sure that everybody who can be persuaded to vote against Tammany shall be registered. We learn of one district where the Union has already decided to do this, and the example should be imitated throughout the city. There are more voters in this city who oppose Tammany than there are who favor it. The organization can be dislodged from power if the majority of honest and decent citizens can be got to the polls. A good start has been made in the campaign, but hard work will be required every day of the five weeks before election to secure the end in view.

"A COUNTRY WITHOUT STRIKES."

Considerable surprise, tinged with not a little indignant incredulity, has been provoked by recent dispatches concerning the labor situation in New Zealand. Trades-unionists, and all those who advocate an extension of "the economic functions of the state," have refused to believe that a land of industrial peace could by any possibility contemplate a return to the vicious system of free competition. But the information from New Zealand is now too well authenticated to admit of its being waved aside in any cavalier fashion, and there can no longer be doubt that the whole body of legislation which has received so much praise from social reformers, bids fair to be repealed before a great while by the very men who secured its adoption.

It will be remembered that, some ten years ago, after the maritime strike which practically resulted in a war of classes, the New Zealand Parliament passed a series of measures designed to secure industrial quiet by means of compulsory arbitration of labor disputes. The new legislation provided for a final Court of Arbitration and for Boards of Conciliation, in which employers and employees should be represented by men of their own class and choice. The country was divided into "industrial districts," and one Board of Conciliation was to be appointed in each. Neither court nor boards were to interfere in any industrial dispute, but the boards were merely to deal with such matters as should be brought before them, the Court of Arbitration acting as a tribunal of final appeal whenever conciliation should prove ineffectual. Authority to make its decisions binding whenever advisable was bestowed upon the court.

With these extensive powers it might reasonably be expected that compulsory arbitration would succeed in New Zealand, if anywhere. As a matter of fact, the advocates of state interference in labor disputes have pointed to the colony as a classic example of the proper mode of dealing with industrial questions, and an idyllic picture of the conditions there prevailing has been drawn by economists of the impressionist school. According to Mr. Henry D. Lloyd,

> "The Compulsory Arbitration Law of New Zealand and its laws for progressive taxation, land resumption, and labor regulation are in truth the most advanced applications yet made in the modern world of the doctrines of Carlyle and Ruskin, . . . that captains of industry are captains in the public service."

Mr. Lloyd describes the working of the compulsory arbitration acts as being highly satisfactory. The boards succeed, he says, in settling most of the disputes brought before them; they throw light upon mooted questions, and assist in shaping public opinion. But their crowning service is that they have made New Zealand "a country without strikes," thus doing away with the use of vio-

lence in settling labor disputes, and even "blazing the trail along which international arbitration must move if it would succeed."

No one would wish to dash the hopes of those who are desirous to improve this wretched world, and it is to be regretted that the roseate views of the admirers of New Zealand conditions cannot be accepted, nor the reality of their Utopia recognized. But the interests of economic truth demand that the full facts concerning every economic change shall be known, that all things shall be proved, and those only held fast which are good. However desirable it be to have a country without strikes—and few would hesitate in deciding that question—it is of more importance that industry go on upon some terms, and that it hold out some prizes whose attainment would be worthy even of a strike. In this view of things, conditions in New Zealand wear an aspect somewhat different from that customarily presented by the Utopists. According to Mr. J. Grattan Grey, who has lived in Australasia the greater part of his life, and has been an observer of the situation in New Zealand from the beginning, "the working of the conciliation boards has been so mischievous and ineffectual as to demonstrate quite clearly that they ought to be done away with." They have developed some of the characteristics of our own legislatures, for they protract their sessions in order to earn more, since they are paid upon the "more days, more dollars" principle. Instead of discouraging industrial disputes, they are constantly fomenting them, preventing the expansion of industrial enterprise, and leading capitalists to keep their wealth locked up in banks, through fear of the conditions under which investment must take place, if at all. Nor have the long and ill-considered lucubrations of the conciliation boards resulted in maintaining industrial peace. From 1896 to 1900, no fewer than ninety trade disputes were brought before the boards by trades-unions, and of these only twenty-nine were settled. Belonging largely to special trades, the board members have been too ill-informed and too narrow to act intelligently in the settlement of disputes in lines of work other than their own. The whole experiment has, in fact, turned out to be a disastrous failure.

The general economic outlook in the island is also far from possessing the roseate tint it has been supposed to have. The public debt is increasing, and per-capita taxation is heavy, exceeding that of any other Australasian colony. The colony is over-governed and badly administered. The Parliament contains a large number of self-seeking men, who pose as friends of labor, and whose efforts, far from promoting industrial peace, have seriously strained the relations between employer and employee.

It would be fair to inquire how it is that such a conflict of evidence concerning the state of things prevailing in New Zealand has come to exist. On this point a remark made by Mr. Grey furnishes some light. Commenting upon certain bright pictures of the New Zealand labor situation, he suggestively observes that they have, as a rule, been drawn by "birds of passage," "who have taken a run of a few weeks through the colony," and "who appear to throw themselves straight into the arms of those who wilfully mislead them." Appeal may safely be made to the opinions of the colonists themselves. What is really the view held by New Zealanders concerning their own prospects may be inferred from the political movement now making head. The farmers, who have all along found themselves seriously hampered by the system of legislation there prevailing, as well as by the heavy tariff charges upon manufactures, are now demanding repeal of the laws from which they are suffering, and modification, if not abolition, of the import duties. Whether they can carry both these reforms may be doubtful. In their opposition to labor legislation, however, they will have the support of manufacturers and investors; and the ultimate disappearance of the socialist Utopia which has been so widely lauded by onlookers, but which has caused so much dissatisfaction to those who have lived under it, is reasonably to be looked for, and probably at no distant day.

THE GERMAN DREYFUS CASE.

Just two years ago German military men were reading the accounts of the second trial of Capt. Alfred Dreyfus with unconcealed satisfaction. Such monstrous falsehoods, such wicked conspiracies, such deliberate schemes to entrap an innocent man, were possible only in the French army, they concluded. The Rennes revelations were to them proof positive that, as the true soldier spirit was so obviously wanting, the Republic's forces were internally as disorganized as was the case in 1870. That there was anything wrong with the system of universal conscription itself they indignantly denied. So, too, in observing the British failures in South Africa, German military critics have not hesitated to say that the internal discipline of Kitchener's forces was at fault, and that a respectable army could never be secured if a country had to rely upon voluntary enlistments, instead of upon conscription.

Now, however, it is Germany itself which furnishes us with a glaring illustration of the depths militarism can reach, even when the circumstances under which it flourishes are most favorable. At Gumbinnen a court-martial has offered as a sacrifice at the altar of the god Discipline a non-commissioned officer named Marten, found guilty of having shot his captain. Although the two civilian law members of the court voted for his acquittal, although not a single newspaper of any party believes that the evidence offered was in any way conclusive, he is to hang, after serving a year's sentence for a minor crime. The *Kölnische Volkszeitung* has kindly explained that, even if innocent, it is advisable that Marten should die, lest Discipline suffer by a failure to find any criminal.

This sounds monstrous enough to Anglo-Saxon ears, but it reads still worse when one remembers that the available evidence against the victim was purely circumstantial, and that his life had been placed in jeopardy for this same offence on a previous occasion. At the first trial he and the other suspects were acquitted. This did not please the general, who, as reviewing authority, passed upon the papers, and solely at his instance the trial began anew, with the result that Marten's death was decided upon. The other non-commissioned officers involved were acquitted, only to be dishonorably dismissed, with the loss of the 1,000 marks bounty to which they were each about to become entitled by virtue of long and faithful service.

If there were those who thought that the German press and public were so under the domination of the military aristocracy as to remain silent in the face of this judicial outrage, the wave of indignation which has swept over the Empire should convince them of their error beyond all cavil. Every newspaper, irrespective of party or creed, whether Conservative or Liberal, Agrarian or Socialist, has registered its protest, with the exception quoted above. If no Zola and no Picquart have come to the rescue of this victim of military despotism, there have at least been no public men ready to demand his sacrifice. Among the people the feeling of dissatisfaction is deep and universal. No judgment in recent times, says the Berlin *Tageblatt*, has so stirred the public and been so universally condemned as this. In Berlin, the home of militarism, Dr. Carl Liebknecht, son of the famous Wilhelm Liebknecht, has had the temerity to address a great mass-meeting called in protest—itself an unheard-of thing. In a dozen different places money is being collected to make good the losses of the summarily discharged non-commissioned officers. The Association of German Watchmakers, 4,000 strong, has protested through its organ against the acceptance of that link in the fragile chain of evidence which hinges upon the reliability of several cheap watches, and with this link gone the entire chain gives way. Finally, the public is following Sergeant Marten's appeal from his death sentence with an intense desire for a reversal, which is strengthened by the announcement that

not one iota of additional evidence was produced at the second trial, and that the public prosecutor did not dare to ask for the death sentence which, to his amazement, the military members of the court pronounced.

That there have been reactionary voices heard, even among those who admit the injustice of the verdict, is true. The worshippers of Discipline have been on hand to deprecate the publicity of the matter, "so injurious to the service." Yet had not the law calling for the present partial publicity in military trials been passed, some two or three years ago, Marten might have gone to his death without the public's being aware that a trial had taken place. It would be hard to find a case which would more thoroughly demonstrate the vital necessity of unlimited publicity than has this very trial, in which all that related to the bad character of the murdered officer was heard only behind closed doors. The military officials will not see that their authority over their subordinates is in no way threatened by public trials conducted in accordance with the ceremony and procedure of civil courts, and that if their own methods are beyond reproach, full publicity will only strengthen them with their men and with the public. They are even protesting against the public collections on behalf of Marten's dismissed comrades on the ground that such actions are detrimental to Discipline, since they practically nullify and set aside the punishments meted out by the authorities.

The vital truth which the military autocrats cannot recognize is plain to both the press and the people. It is, that the mere suspicion of such a grave miscarriage of justice as that at Gumbinnen does infinitely more harm to the army's standing before the nation than would a thousand collections on behalf of too severely treated sergeants. Thanks to the court's disregard of the evidence before it, in its haste to find a victim, the press has had an incentive to speak its mind freely in criticism of the military system as it has hitherto never dared to do, and it has used its opportunity and recognized its duty in an inspiring way. The cause of freedom of thought and speech the country over has profited by this in no small degree.

MODERN ART IN VENICE.

VENICE, September, 1901.

Venice is not a town usually associated with enterprise. The casual tourist, by this time, knows that in its indolence born of decay he is to look for its charm. But there have been signs of change in recent years. Every one still remembers the loud outcry made when the little steamboat began its useful journeys up and down the Grand Canal. Then came the destruction of the beautiful Island of Sant' Elena—in the eyes of the faithful, a crime calling to Heaven for vengeance, and really, it must be confessed, a misfortune. The lace and glass industries, thanks largely to Cook and Ruskin, between them, have revived, until now, I am assured, the working-women in Venice, Murano, and the more prosperous islands actually get enough to eat. New big hotels have gone up on the Lido; as you steam or row over towards Mestre or Fusina, you see a cluster of tall factory chimneys belching forth clouds of black smoke, while parts of the Giudecca bear no slight resemblance to Jersey City. Rumors are rife of a scheme to fill up the canals. Altogether, the spirit of Young Italy begins to be active in Venice, but I am not sure that it manifests itself anywhere more diligently and unexpectedly than in the International Art Exhibition now held annually under municipal patronage and artistic direction.

The Exhibition is in its fourth summer, but this is the first time I have been able to visit it. So little has been heard of it in comparison with the shows of Munich, Dresden, and Vienna, that I was not prepared to find the general arrangement and management so excellent in many respects. The Exhibition building stands in the Public Gardens, within a pleasant ride on the penny steamboat—or, on a cool day, a pleasant walk—from anywhere along the Grand Canal or the Riva. The Gallery having for object primarily the display of works of art, space has not been ruthlessly sacrificed to architectural effect, as at Glasgow. The lighting is fairly good, though the uses of the velarium seem to have been imperfectly understood; a muslin veil or screen, drawn tightly, tempering the sunshine perhaps, but by no means helping it to fall just where it is needed. The decorations verge somewhat on indiscretion, color and pattern distracting the eye from the pictures that alone should attract it. But this very indiscretion is eloquent witness to the success of the Exhibition, for it was the surplus made in the first three years that has enabled the authorities to redecorate the building throughout.

The financial prosperity of the show is really one of its most extraordinary features. In England, nowadays, artists are bewailing the bad times and the rapidly increasing difficulty in disposing of their productions. But, to judge from the present Venetian Exhibition, times never have been more flourishing. Almost every other picture and print and drawing is already marked "Sold." Queen Margherita has set the fashion by investing in some twenty works by foreign as well as native artists, and the private collector eagerly follows suit. The permanent galleries of modern art in Venice and Turin seem to vie with each other in their efforts to appropriate to themselves as many of the exhibits as possible. Apparently, a very fever of buying prevails. I am told that this is, in a measure, due to the practical interest taken in the exhibition from the start by King Humbert and Queen Margherita, and still continued by the Queen. For its existence, indeed, I believe they are responsible; money which the loyal Venetians had proposed to lavish upon a regal gift to them, having been at their request devoted instead to the encouragement of contemporary art. But, whatever the causes, there can be no question that remarkable financial success has attended the undertaking from the first. And I think it is to be noted that there has been no foolish endeavor to protect or patronize Italian artists alone. The foreigner shares in the good fortune. Absolutely no national line is drawn. Only this year two pictures by British artists have been bought for the Venetian permanent gallery. I was specially struck with this, coming fresh from London, where, at the Academy, the foreigner is so grudgingly admitted, and where no municipal scheme or bequest like the Chantrey is ever likely to include him.

So far I have said little about the pictures, nor do I propose to go into detail on the subject. For one thing, the world has become sated with international exhibitions; for another, the same canvases have a way of reappearing in almost every show of the kind opened—artists having even begun to paint certain pictures for the sole purpose of sending them on tour from country to country. Besides, it is out of the question for Venice to compete with Paris in its international hospitality. Most nationalities are represented, but some very poorly—the Americans, for example. I could have wished my countrymen had stayed away altogether, to so little advantage do they show themselves. Indeed, the one section that makes any pretence to completeness is the Italian, which, perhaps, is natural enough. If last summer Frenchmen monopolized the greater number of galleries in the Grand Palais, it must not now be wondered at if Italians do what they can to profit by their opportunities.

Personally I cannot regret the chances this gives for the study of modern Italian art at home; as I have seen it abroad, it has always struck me as depressingly commonplace. Even in the Italian rooms at the Paris Exhibition, M. Boldini and Segantini were the only two men who stood out with distinction. The other exhibitors appeared to be preoccupied with reëchoing Fortuny, manufacturing Salon sensations, or turning out pleasing baits for the tourists who crowd the Piazza in Venice and the Corso in Rome. But abroad there is at least the possibility that many artists, for one reason or another, have not been included. At home there is less probability of important omissions, and an entirely representative collection is expected. Presumably this is found at Venice. In mere point of numbers the list of exhibitors is doubtless beyond criticism. I had no idea so many painters were at work to-day in Italy. And everything has been done that could be done for their benefit. Their pictures are well hung, never crowded, as a rule allowed the necessary margin. They are grouped according to the different modern schools—the Venetians, the Piedmontese, the Tuscans, the Neapolitans; all in their respective galleries, with separate rooms or special space set apart for the artists held in most honor in their own country—Morelli, Previati, Luigi Nono. Certainly the Italian exhibitors have nothing to complain of.

And now, what is the impression made by so large and complete a collection? I might as well be honest and say at once that I have come away from the Exhibition with my estimate of modern Italian art, if anything, lowered. I have wandered from room to room, searching almost in vain for work of genuine vigor, beauty, or individuality. There is nothing by M. Boldini, and next to nothing by Segantini.

Morelli, whose reputation is so great just now in Italy, I thought theatrical in his religious pictures, as if he were but bidding for popular favor in his choice of subjects approved by a fashion of the day. Previati, in his straining after mysticism, seemed a belated offshoot of the Rose-Croix, far more self-conscious in his recent work than in some earlier sketches I had seen a few days before in Milan. Luigi Nono might be described as an Italian Marcus Stone, providing the public with the sentiment it can best appreciate. And among all the others whose contributions were more limited in number, Fragiacomo, with one or two landscapes, Tito, perhaps, and Fattari (a Tuscan of decidedly original method, whom I have now met for the first time) are the only ones whose work detained or interested me. A Royal Academy would not be so well hung, but, otherwise, it could hardly prove more commonplace. To me this has been no small disappointment. Italian artists and dealers will talk to you of schools and movements and secessions; between them, they have even invented a new name for a certain group—Italian "Divisionists" having succeeded to French Pointillistes. But, for all the artistic smoke, there is very little fire. Segantini, a Divisionist probably without knowing it, has a few followers, as the Exhibition explains. But I discovered signs of no other movement, of no tendency, except to conform to the pictorial fashions at present in vogue, to come in first in the race for popularity. It may be the mistake in Venice to accept the Doge's Palace and the School of San Rocco as the standard. But, after all, the art that cannot be submitted to the standard of the masters is not worth consideration.

N. N.

CHATEAUBRIAND THE STATESMAN.

PARIS, September 17, 1901.

Nothing that concerns the personality of Chateaubriand can be indifferent to those who recognize in him one of the precursors of the Romantic school of literature, as well as one of the supporters of constitutional government in France. Chateaubriand deserves to be studied in this double character. I will not dwell to-day on the merits of Chateaubriand as a writer; some of his early writings, which excited great emotion at the time, are now almost forgotten. Few people read the 'Génie du Christianisme,' the 'Martyrs,' 'Atala,' 'René,' the 'Dernier des Abencerages.' The work which survives, and which will always be read, is the 'Mémoires d'Outre-tombe,' an autobiography which has pages never to be forgotten. Chateaubriand shows himself in it with all his passions, his defects as well as his virtues; and the dominant note of these memoirs is a certain feeling of sadness, of melancholy, of what might be called pessimism, which gives a dramatic and sometimes almost sublime character to these outbursts of a noble soul.

It ought to be said at once that the 'Mémoires d'Outre-tombe' are not merely a literary work. The incidents of the life of Chateaubriand are all more or less interwoven with politics. The political part is probably that in which he took the greatest pride. He resisted the power of Napoleon, and left the diplomatic service of France after the execution of the Duke d'Enghien. His pamphlet, 'Bonaparte et les Bourbons,' was worth to the Bourbons, in the words of Louis XVIII. himself, a hundred thousand men. His other political pamphlets, the most important of which was 'La Monarchie selon la Charte,' were an attempt to reconcile the old dynasty with constitutional government, and the country with the old dynasty.

It is rather difficult to reconcile the attitude of Chateaubriand towards the Bourbons, and of the Bourbons towards Chateaubriand, if we do not take into consideration his unbending character, which had all the tenacity of a Breton with the consciousness of genius; and equally the hereditary propensities of the Bourbons, who accepted constitutional government only as a necessity. In a curious study by M. Gustave Lanson, this author enters into interesting details on the rupture of Chateaubriand with Louis XVIII.:

"On the 6th of June, 1824, the day of Pentecost, Viscount Chateaubriand, Minister of Foreign Affairs, went, at half-past ten in the morning, to the Pavillon de Marsan, to pay his respects to Monsieur. He could not be received, and went to hear the music in the chapel. A servant came to fetch him; his secretary was asking for him. Chateaubriand found him in the Salon des Maréchaux: 'You are no longer Minister, sir,' were the first words of the secretary, who placed in his hands a letter from the President of the Council, M. de Villèle, with an ordonnance of the King. The latter was thus worded: 'Sir, I obey the King's order in transmitting at once to your Excellency an ordonnance which the King has just signed.' This royal ordonnance confided the Foreign Office *ad interim* to the President of the Council in place of Viscount Chateaubriand."

Two hours afterwards Chateaubriand left the Ministry, taking with him his two cats only, of which he was extremely fond. He had every right to be "mortally wounded" (such is his own expression), not only at being dismissed, but in such a manner, without warning, without a word of explanation or regret, after the eminent services which he had rendered to the royal family. He wrote to his friend M. de Montlosier: "They have put me out as if I had stolen the King's watch from his mantelpiece." M. de Villèle, in his memoirs, throws the whole responsibility for the act on King Louis XVIII. The reason of the misunderstanding was of old date. At the Congress of Verona Chateaubriand and Mathieu de Montmorency, who represented France, made a war of intervention in Spain necessary. Chateaubriand, who played the principal part in this Congress, wanted intervention, while Louis XVIII. would have preferred to avoid it. Chateaubriand's object was to give the French army an occasion to fight under the white flag and to reconcile it with the Restoration. The war was a mere military promenade. The army marched against the revolutionary troops, and, at the battle of the Trocadero, the Duke of Angoulême found an occasion to distinguish himself. The war in Spain was a success for Chateaubriand and for Emperor Alexander of Russia, who had favored it. It left a bad impression on Louis XVIII., who was in favor of an English alliance, and England had been opposed to French intervention. Chateaubriand triumphed perhaps a little too loudly over the King's policy, and that of his colleague, M. de Villèle, who was the King's obedient instrument. Their relations became more difficult, till the King dismissed Chateaubriand brutally. Chateaubriand was not one of those men who forgive and forget. He entered directly into relations with the *Journal des Débats*, and began an unmerciful war on the Prime Minister, M. de Villèle. He did not resume his pen as a journalist; he made himself again a pamphleteer.

The death of Louis XVIII. imposed for a time on Chateaubriand a sort of truce. He published a pamphlet under the title 'Le Roi est mort, vive le Roi!' If Charles X. had changed the Cabinet completely, Chateaubriand would probably have been quite disarmed, but the King retained Villèle, and, six weeks after the death of Louis XVIII., Chateaubriand recommenced his opposition. He attacked the subserviency of the Villèle cabinet to England; as for himself, he had, while he was minister, taken a proud position with regard to England. He counted upon the Emperor Alexander; his imagination represented to him a brilliant future for France through her atliance with Russia. Villèle had less imagination; he knew that the English Government had upset the Cabinet of the Duke de Richelieu, who was a friend of the Emperor Alexander; he was anxious to please Canning, to consolidate the credit of France. The collection of the articles which Chateaubriand wrote during the Villèle ministry in the *Journal des Débats* might be considered a model for a journalist anxious to carry on a furious and systematic opposition. Chateaubriand recognized and collected some of them afterwards (newspaper articles were not signed at the time), but he himself allowed some to sink into oblivion. It is fortunate for Chateaubriand that he had, in most cases, to defend a good cause. He wrote or spoke in the Chamber of Peers against the re-establishment of the censorship of the press, against the measure which disbanded the National Guard; he was a stanch supporter of the liberty of the press, and denounced with eloquence all the petty and arbitrary measures which were taken against the proprietors of newspapers, the writers, and even the printers.

In the Royalist camp many people were scandalized by the militant character of Chateaubriand; it was thought unworthy of a "man of quality" to write for the press, and Madame de Chateaubriand was of that mind. Others intimated that the attacks against a Cabinet would, in the end, weaken the cause of the crown; some people went so far as to call Chateaubriand a traitor. But he held that he was acting simply according to the spirit of the time and to the institutions of the country. Where the press was not free, where there was no real Parliamentary Government, there was no remedy but civil war. He maintained that opposition was legitimate and even necessary in a Constitutional monarchy, provided the person of the King and the crown should be kept outside and above the struggle. Some of his words were prophetic, and you may discern the Revolution of 1830 in these lines: "God knows what may be produced by a drop of blood shed on a soil equally ready to produce harvests or soldiers. When, in the troubles of empires, one comes to the use of force, it is no longer a question of the first attack, but of the final victory." During this period the real Chateaubriand reveals himself—the man of intellect, who knows and feels that intelligence is the greatest force, the ruling spirit of mankind.

What says he of the press? "The periodical press is an immense force, the offspring of modern civilization. It cannot be stifled either by violence or by disdain." What says he of liberty? "The illusions of the past are gone; each individual, having been freed by his misfortunes, has learned to count only upon himself, to esteem himself only according to his own qualities; and this natural legitimacy, which has replaced political legitimacy, has founded in minds an independence which is now invincible."

It cannot be denied that there appears a certain incoherence in Chateaubriand's political attitude during the Restoration; that sometimes we see him allied with the ultra-Royalists and sometimes with the Liberals, and that personal motives, likes or dislikes, had much to do with his conduct. But these contradictions, which have often been the subject of criticism, can, on the whole, be explained by the political creed which he had adopted, and to which he remained faithful. His motto was, all along: "The King, Religion, Liberty." He considered the King as intangible, whatever his opinion of him, and thus he professed the true doctrine of constitutional monarchy. He defended the cause of religion, but he would not be enslaved to a religious coterie, to what was called at the time the "Congregation," and he was the enemy of religious intolerance. As for the third term of the trilogy, liberty, his conduct under the Empire and during the Restoration shows that he never sacrificed it to transient circumstances. And how could Chateaubriand have ceased to be a liberal? In betraying the cause of liberty, he would have betrayed himself, his own genius, his own glory.

Correspondence.

MR. MICHIE AND THE MISSIONARIES IN CHINA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Perhaps a word will be welcome from China about the lecture of Mr. Michie, on the missionary question, which was noticed in your number of July 4, recently received on this far-distant shore. The lecturer threw much light on the question, as was to have been expected of a person of his long experience and observation. In particular, he rendered the missionary cause a good service by his clear testimony to the fact that "the Christian religion, as such, has never provoked the Chinese Government or people to acts of violence; and that their real objection to the propaganda has been, and is, primarily political, and only incidentally religious." Mr. Michie's plea, however, that missionaries themselves are to blame for the political complications and difficulties which excite hostility against their work, must be taken with due restriction. Not all of the lecturer's statements are entirely exact, and some of his generalizations are evidently exaggerated, as when he says, for instance, that the aim of Roman Catholic missionaries is to "convert the population of China into French citizens." As an example of the missionaries' tendency to meddle in politics, with consequent disastrous results, he states that the persecution which afflicted missionary work in the eighteenth century was caused by the plotting of the Jesuits against the Emperor. That is so far from being exact that the Jesuits, as is well known, were in high favor at the imperial court during all the persecution, up to the temporary suppression of the order towards the end of the century.

Mr. Michie's brief sketch of what he calls the modern missionary question, from the treaty of Nanking in 1842, is hardly given in as impartial a spirit as might be desired, nor would it seem to be borne out by the facts simply stated. His charge is that the missionary privileges were obtained by insidious and hypocritical diplomacy, and the capital offenders were the French Government and missionaries. Confining ourselves to the question of the missionaries, if, under the Government of Louis-Philippe in 1842 and 1844, they could not get the hearing they desired, nor obtain treaty sanction for privileges considered just and necessary, it is not surprising that they tried to get more when the question came up again under the Empire. The treaty privileges in question were asked by the missionaries simply for religious purposes, and for this end did they serve, as the history and the present flourishing condition of the missions in many parts of China amply testify. Even if French statesmen seemed to foresee advantages to their country in the privileges obtained for their missionaries, it could not therefore be argued that the treaty stipulations covered deceit and hypocrisy. Such a charge would suppose that missionary interests were only a pretext; which was not the case, as contemporary history of the missions shows.

Mr. Michie's strongest point against the missionaries is the charge of a fraud, as he says, "audacious and flagitious, perpetrated by a French missionary in the interests of the Catholic propaganda in 1860, when a clause of the most drastic significance was smuggled into the Chinese text only of the French treaty, unknown even to its nominal negotiator, Baron Gros." The reference here is to a curious fact, which is worth stating clearly, but briefly, that it may be seen whether it is really as "audacious and flagitious" as might at first sight appear. In the first place, Mr. Michie is mistaken in saying that the clause stipulated the restitution of former missionary property; that point is clear in the French text as well as in the Chinese. The clause not found in the French text consists of just eighteen words, and it concedes to missionaries the right to rent, buy, and build in any of the provinces. Abbé Delamarre, acting as interpreter to Baron Gros, secured the insertion of that clause in the Chinese text, to render more clear and precise the rights already implicitly conceded by previous treaties, in particular by that of 1858. In article xiii. of that treaty, missionaries were granted the right of going into the interior to pursue their work, and, unless that clause were to be rendered purely nugatory, they thereby acquired the right of having chapels of some kind and houses to live in. The same is implied in the restitution of missionary property, which, as I have just noted, is clear in both texts.

That the clause was not inserted without the knowledge of the Chinese, or at least that its stipulations were not considered to exceed known treaty rights, is sufficiently proved by the fact that the form of the passport drawn up by convention soon after the signing of the treaty clearly states the privileges in question; nor was there any demur made to such insertion. Again, when the French Minister, M. Berthemy, brought up the question five years later, in 1865, Li Hung Chang and the members of the Tsung-li Yamen had not a word to say against the validity of the clause. Mr. Michie's explanation of such silence is hardly satisfactory. It is far more natural to suppose that they said nothing because the clause had been taken on the Chinese side as a valid part of the treaty from the very beginning. It is regrettable that it should have been left out of the French text, but better that than that it should have been found in the French text only; in which case the charge of fraud would have had more ground. Taking the matter at its worst, it does not appear so very "audacious and flagitious" to insert into the text which the Chinese were supposed to read, and most probably did read before signing, a clause which, far from violating the spirit of the treaty, is closely in keeping with, and a natural consequence of, other treaty stipulations. *Taking it at its worst*, I say, for it is by no means certain that the clause was not duly submitted to the commissioners, and agreed to on the one side and the other.

The above remarks follow the argument, and at times the words, of a letter of mine published in the Hong Kong *Daily Press* at the time of Mr. Michie's lecture.

All agree, I think, including missionaries themselves, that the mixing of political questions with their work, which generally comes in the form of invoking secular protection, is most undesirable. The opinion of Catholic and Protestant missionaries is on record to that effect. But many are inclined to look upon that course as a necessary evil. The deplorable abuses in the administration of justice, in the present state of the Chinese Government, must be borne in mind before condemning the missionaries too severely. During all the period of what Mr. Michie calls the modern missionary question, the government throughout the provinces generally has been most inefficient. In the case of disputes and law-suits, the side with the greater influence and the longer purse invariably carries the day. The police, moreover, being none at all, or most ineffectual, it is impossible for the missionary and his little flock to avoid questions with their pagan neighbors. Were the administration of justice anything like what it should be, the course of the missionary would be clear and simple—to stand by and let the law take its course. But, given the condition of things as they are, what is the missionary to do—stand by and let himself and his flock be imposed upon? Some might say that that would be according to the letter of the Gospel, but, in that case, in many instances, not only would he soon find himself alone, but his own life in the place would be rendered impossible. What many a missionary does in such cases is to appeal to the local mandarin, and, if that be unavailing, to the higher mandarins, and, if everything else fails, when the issue at stake is important, to his consul, and sometimes to the Minister at Pekin. Then the trouble begins. The Minister stirs up the Tsung-li Yamen, the Tsung-li Yamen, if the Minister is urgent, admonishes the Viceroy of the province, the Viceroy, in turn, sends word to his

subordinates, and finally the local mandarin must come to terms with the missionary. Restitution is to be made, if it is a money matter; reparation of honor must be gone through. Several thousand firecrackers are set off for the latter purpose, some bowing and other acts of civility are performed, with an outward show of reconciliation, and there the matter ends for the moment. But, of course, that is not the end; the rancor and embittered spirits remain, and upon occasion will make themselves felt.

The fundamental reason of this particular source of missionary troubles lies in the inefficiency of the government of the land in which the missionary's lot is cast. Assure China an efficient and just administration of justice in the provinces, and then missionaries might be blamed for the troubles which attend their work. Of course, while awaiting such a consummation as a good government for China, the greatest prudence should be exercised by the missionaries, and, failing such prudence on their own part, something might, as Mr. Michie suggests, be done to teach them prudence. What an imprudence it is, for instance, not to speak of other matters, to take children into the interior of China! Is it commonly known that at least thirty or forty children of missionaries were killed in the massacres of the summer of 1900?

In the Roman Catholic missions, the prudence of the workers is generally pretty well insured by the authority and the vigilance of the bishops, who are, as a rule, persons of experience, moderation, and prudence. The subordination of the missionaries is such that little can be done without their bishops' knowledge and authority. Hence, in their sessions, external control of missionary conduct would seem to be less called for than in missions of a looser organization, where there is not so great respect for ecclesiastical authority. To take but a single instance; against Catholic missionaries there has not been the least accusation with regard to the odious affair of looting. Whether other missionaries were guilty or not, we need not say; but one of their number has at least published rather dubious doctrine in that regard which he would probably not have done if his elucubrations had had to pass through the hands of a prudent bishop, or if even he were responsible to ecclesiastical authority for his utterances.

This letter has grown into something longer than I intended to make it, but, writing from such a distance, on a subject of which I know something from personal experience and observation, I hope the length of the communication will be excused if its contents be acceptable.

Yours, etc., WILLIAM L. HORNSBY.

MACAO, August 21, 1901.

THE TAX ON KNOWLEDGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In view of recent communications to the *Nation* on the subject of the administration of the United States customs duty on books printed in a foreign language, the following facts may be of interest, as illustrative of the over-exact nicety with which our revenue laws are executed:

On August 24, 1901, I paid, at the San Francisco Custom-house, import duty to the amount of $4.75 on fifty copies of a dissertation that had been presented for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Göettingen, in Germany. This thesis, a copy of which I am sending you, was, of course, entirely in German. The pretext on which duty was levied was that, in the appended "Lebenslauf," several untranslatable English expressions (names of schools attended and titles of high-school and college positions held by the writer of the dissertation) were incorporated into the German.

Irritated at the time-consuming annoyances of the Appraiser's Office, I filed a written protest, but it was only after the protest had reached the Collector of the Port and received his courteous consideration that the matter was adjusted, and the unlawfully collected duties refunded.

Respectfully, CHARLES A. NOBLE,
Instructor in Mathematics.

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, BERKELEY,
September 20, 1901.

BERNINI'S CONSTANTINE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In using the excellent 'Cyclopædia of Architecture in Italy, Greece, and the Levant' of W. P. P. Longfellow, I find a slip of the pen which it may be useful to correct. On p. 413 it is said of Bernini: "He also made the statues of Constantine and Charlemagne that occupy the two vestibules." These statues are in the vestibules of Bernini's colonnades of St. Peter's at Rome, but only the Constantine is by Bernini. S. Fraschetti, in 'Il Bernini,' published in 1900 at Milan, on p. 320 calls the Charlemagne "poverissima opera del Cornacchini." This attribution to Cornacchini, a Pistoian sculptor who flourished about 1730, is also to be found in Nägler's 'Künstler-Lexicon' (Munich, 1836), vol. 3, pp. 87-88. Fraschetti gives an excellent phototype of the Constantine. WILLIAM CAREY POLAND.

PROVIDENCE, R. I., September 27, 1901.

MALAHACK ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: From 1865 to 1872 I lived in Harrison County, West Virginia. I then moved to Roane County, where I lived until 1885. The word *malahack* was in common use there, in the sense of deface or injure; *e. g.*, "Who *mollyhacked* your hair?" "If you dare to do it, I will *mollyhack* you." (Observe the spelling and pronunciation.)

T. M. BROADUS.

GORDONSVILLE, VA., September 27, 1901.

Notes.

Doubleday, Page & Co. announce 'A Modern Antæus,' by the author of 'An Englishwoman's Love Letters'; and 'Camera Shots at Wild Game,' by A. G. Wallihan and Mrs. Wallihan.

McClure, Phillips & Co. will be the American publishers of Dent's new edition of Boswell's Johnson in three large volumes, edited by Arnold Glover, with an introduction by Austin Dobson. They have also in preparation Eastman's 'Indian Boyhood,' with illustrations by Ernest L. Blumenschein. Finally, C. H. Van Tyne, Ph.D., is editing for them more than a thousand unpublished letters from Daniel Webster's correspondence with his family, his constituents, and the public men of his time, derived from the collection of Webster papers owned by the New Hampshire Historical Society and from private libraries.

Harper & Bros.' announcements for October include 'Heroines of Fiction,' by W. D. Howells; 'Two Treaties of Paris and the Supreme Court,' by Sidney Webster; and 'The Baby: His Care and Training,' by Marianna Wheeler.

We learn from A. C. Armstrong & Son, the American publishers of Dr. George A. Smith's other works, that they have now made arrangements for the exclusive sale in this country of his Map of Palestine, which we noticed last week.

'Essays in Historical Criticism,' by Prof. Edward Gaylord Bourne; 'Fables for the Fair,' by Josephine Dodge Daskam; and yet another juvenile abridgment of Lewis and Clark's Journal, compiled by Noah Brooks, are on Messrs. Scribner's list.

A new edition of Mrs. Jameson's 'Shakspere's Heroines,' with illustrations by R. Anning Bell, will be issued by E. P. Dutton & Co. during the present month.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. inform us that they have in preparation a new edition of Tolstoy's 'Anna Karenina,' translated direct from the Russian by Nathan Haskell Dole, from new plates, with illustrations, in three volumes.

From Brentano's we are to have 'Memoirs of Countess Cosel,' by Joseph J. Kraszewski; 'Studies of French Criminals of the 19th Century,' by H. B. Irving; and 'Wise Men and a Fool,' essays by Coulson Kernahan.

The "Temple Bible" in seventeen and seven volumes for the two Testaments respectively, in the Authorized Version, and "printed consecutively" (*i. e.*, without sentence paragraphing), with special apparatus, is to be marketed here by J. B. Lippincott Co. They announce also 'Through Persia on a Side-Saddle,' by Ella C. Sykes.

A *de luxe* edition of Dumas's 'Celebrated Crimes'; 'Florence,' by Grant Allen; 'Grand Opera in America,' by Henry C. Lahee; and 'A Critical History of Opera,' by Arthur Elson, are among the immediately forthcoming publications of L. C. Page & Co., Boston.

The John Foster Kirk edition of Prescott's 'History of the Conquest of Mexico,' in three handy volumes, is now included in Bohn's Libraries (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan). We detect no changes since the work bore an American imprint.

The third issue of 'The American Jewish Year-Book,' that for the year 5662, has just appeared. It contains the usual calendar and also some statistical information, but the elaborate directories of the previous years are not reprinted. Of its 308 pages, no less than 118 are given to the report of the Jewish Publication Society, and 59 of these give a list of the members of that society. The precise utility of this in a year-book may be doubted. The point of interest, however, in this new issue is certainly the sketch of the history of the Jews in Rumania, and of the Jewish situation there since the Treaty of Berlin. It is by Dr. E. Schwarzfeld, the Rumanian novelist and journalist, and is a timely if somewhat excited and high-pitched discussion of what is at present the most acute phase of the anti-Semitic problem. There is added an account by D. M. Hermalin of the

Rumanian Jewish immigrants and of their life in this country.

The attention of theologians and students of comparative religion may be called to a recent volume in the admirable series of French publications of the Musée Guimet. It is devoted to a study of beliefs with reference to the doctrine of a future life according to Mazdaism, or Zoroastrianism, in comparison with other religions. The author, Professor Nathan Söderblom, of the University at Upsala, was for some time pastor of the Swedish Church at Paris. His previous contributions on Zoroastrianism have met with a favorable reception among Iranian specialists, and he has now written a work that will appeal to a larger audience as well. The volume contains an elaborate discussion, from the comparative standpoint, not alone of the faith in a life after death, but also the doctrine of future punishment and the regeneration of the world. A comparison is drawn between the teachings of Iran, India, Greece, Judæa, and the West on the life eternal and union with God. The treatise is the work of an Oriental scholar who is at the same time a professor of theology and a minister of the Gospel, and there need be no hesitation in commending it to favorable notice. It bears the title: 'La Vie Future d'après le Mazdéisme: Étude d'Eschatologie Comparée' (Paris: Leroux).

Doubleday, Page & Co.'s new venture, *Country Life in America*, assumes that the occupants of cottages and country places require an organ to represent their interests and to celebrate their rural avocation. The first number proves that there is material in the idea for a very original and attractive magazine. Like its English forerunner and exemplar, *Country Life in America* offers as its prime attraction excellent pictures from photographs of the homes and lawns and gardens which the text discusses; and the large folio form permits the reproductions to be of generous size. Information and practical advice are naturally the chief aim of the publication, so the *clou* of the present number is a richly illustrated account of Mr. Levi P. Morton's place at Rhinebeck—"Ellerslie, an American Country Seat." Articles on plant-growing in garden and field, on real country homes, and on "a home-maker's lawn" serve for practical counsel and suggestion. Literature is represented, among others, by Mr. J. P. Mowbray's appropriately florid "A Sniff at Old Gardens," and by John Burroughs's poem on the cuckoo. Prof. L. H. Bailey of the State Agricultural School at Ithaca is the editor, a choice which should prove of good augury for the conduct of this new enterprise. The pictorial photographic advertisements of country places to sell or to rent are a further and useful imitation of the English practice.

To point out the inconsistencies in Nietzsche's writings does not require the dialectics of M. Alfred Fouillée. Still, the article entitled "La Morale Aristocratique du Surhomme," which the French thinker contributes to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of September 1, is an arraignment of the poet of Zarathustra, which for analytic reasoning has hardly been equalled by any former criticism. Students of Nietzsche cannot afford to pass it by unnoticed.

The *Geographical Journal* for September opens with an account of some explorations in the Great Bear Lake region, by J. M. Bell. He reports the country south of the lake as fairly well wooded, with numerous lakes teeming with fish and waterfowl. Caribou are still plentiful at certain seasons, but "every year the Indians and Eskimo kill thousands of them for their tongues alone, and even for the 'sport' of killing them, so that there is a probability in the near future of this beautiful and useful animal sharing the fate of the North American buffalo." Mr. J. J. Harrison describes a journey through southern Abyssinia to Lake Rudolf, in which he records the effects of the two years' drought that had prevailed in East Africa. Extensive regions were almost depopulated, and the level of Lake Rudolf had sunk twelve feet in a year, while Lake Stefanie, thirty-seven miles long by twelve broad, was "nothing but a vast extent of ground, strewn with shells and heaps of fish bones." He passed through the "devil-haunted" Ulamo (Walamo), but without any of the ill effects experienced by the late Capt. Wellby and his companions. In a sketch of Bahrein, on the Persian Gulf, reference is made to its submarine fresh-water springs, of which the head of water is so great that the water will rise through a hollow bamboo above the surface of the sea, so that vessels may be filled.

Petermann's Mitteilungen, number six, contains an account of the mineral resources of Hayti. These are principally iron and copper, and the assertion is made that, at a cost of $12, a ton of the latter ore could be landed in New York. Other subjects treated are the Antarctic climate and the structural features of southeastern Anatolia. In number seven is a review of the climatological atlas of Russia, published by the Physical Observatory of St. Petersburg on the occasion of the fiftieth anniversary of its foundation. The other principal contents have reference to the magnetic and bacteriological work of the German Antarctic expedition. Among the notes is a reference to the setting out last March of two native Indian surveyors from Assam to trace the still unexplored course of the Bramaputra or Dihong through the Himalayas, a stretch of about 150 miles. Their success will resolve the last lingering doubt, if there be any, as to its identity with the great Tibetan River, the Tsanpo. Number eight contains the conclusion of Tippenhauer's account of the geology of Hayti, an article upon the relations of Russia with Korea, and some letters giving the latest news of the Koslow expedition in Central Asia. The twenty-seven Greek islands or island-groups in the Ægean, Eubœa excepted, are described by Dr. A. Philippson in supplementary number 134, as to physical features, geology, inhabitants, and their industries, with admirable maps. Another supplementary number is the eleventh of the series devoted to a periodic survey of the population of the earth. In this the editor, Dr. A. Supan, gives the areas, the political changes, and the numbers of the inhabitants of the different countries of Asia, Australia, and the South Sea Islands. The Philippine statistics are both those of the year 1887 and those of the American Commission of 1900, the former being regarded by Dr. Supan as the more trustworthy. A map shows the density of the population of Asiatic Turkey, the average being about fourteen to the square mile.

Two years ago the French established in Saigon in Indo-China an École Française de l'Extrême Orient, modelled after the French schools in Athens, Rome, and Cairo, in order to create a headquarters for the scientific investigation of Eastern Asia. It is managed by the Paris Academy of Sciences, and enjoys a vigorous youth. As with other institutions of this kind, the new school is now publishing a *Bulletin*, the first sheets of which have recently appeared in Hanoi, in the province of Tonkin. Introductory articles are furnished by the members of the Academy of Inscriptions, Barth, Bréal, and Sénart, on the purpose and object of the School, while L. Finot, who is at the head of it, has a special article on the Mussulman tribes of Cochin China called Châm by the French, their history and literary remains. The new periodical is a quarterly. The Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung* reports that both Germany and Russia contemplate the establishment of similar schools in China in the near future, and the combined labors of these will doubtless shed an abundance of new light on the literature, history, and civilization of that ancient country.

The *Korea Review* for August tells, along with the tiny empire's chronic impecuniosity, of the lighting of the city of Seoul with electricity, of the prevalence of long drought and an impending famine that compels prohibition of rice export, and of the breaking of ground for the Seoul-Fusan Railway, which will, along the direct line of the march of the Japanese invaders in 1592, join the east and west coasts. From a non-clerical resident on Quelpert Island, we learn that the recent rebellion and massacre were the results of the imposition of new taxes and the jealousy of rival officers, as well as of the introduction and spread of the Roman form of Christianity by French priests. A very appreciative yet none too flattering article on the late George C. Foulk, in charge of the United States legation in 1884, one of the youngest and ablest of our naval and diplomatic officers, shows what a powerful personality he was in the opening of Korea to modern influences. An article that compels reflection is that on Rice and the Ideograph, which shows that as the grain and the writing grew up together, so also, as the Chinese begin to import wheat flour in large quantities and to make it for themselves a staple food instead of rice, we hear of projects being formed for the making of a phonetic alphabet for China. We have another instalment of Professor Hulbert's history of Korea, and various shorter items of interest, one being that in the Japanese fleet of eight war vessels which cast anchor in Chemulpo harbor on July 31, two were over 15,000 tons, and three over 9,000.

Consular Reports for September contains a significant statement, by Consul-General Mason, of the disastrous deficit in Prussia in the wheat and rye crops of nearly two million tons, "valued, at the average prices of last year, at $67,246,500." A memorial calling the attention of the Government to the threatened calamity points to the fact that the deficit has had but a slight effect upon the world's wheat market, as proof "of the need of higher protection for German agriculture." The growth of German commerce, on the other hand, is indicated by the fact that while twenty years ago only fifteen German vessels passed through the Suez Canal, last year there were 462. Among other subjects treated

are the reduction of copper ores in some twelve foreign countries, and the long working day in the Russian cotton mills, the average for one spindle in 1899 being 15.8 hours per day. There is also noted an increase of nearly 50 per cent. in last year's cotton-planting in central Asia; and a report on automobiles in Europe presents a list of French periodicals devoted to this interest—two dailies, seven weeklies, and two monthlies, all published in Paris.

At the recent meeting of the German Geographical Congress at Breslau a committee was appointed to take measures to promote the scientific study of the geography of the Empire. This committee has offered a prize of at least $150 for the best answer to the question, "What have been the changes in the course of the Rhine between Bonn and Cleves in historic times, and how have they affected the settlements on its banks?" The essay should show not merely the results of an examination of the written, but also of the physical records of these changes. Our geographical societies would do well to imitate this example.

We have received from Gustav Kruell, East Orange N. J., specimens of bookplates on copper from the hand of this master of wood-engraving. The contrary nature of the two processes makes the success here attained in metal engraving very notable, and these intrinsically beautiful plates well deserve a place in the affection of collectors.

—The third volume of 'A Register of the Members of St. Mary Magdalen College, Oxford, from the Foundation of the College' (new series), edited by the Rev. W. D. Macray (H. Frowde), opens with entertaining extracts from the registers and from the bursars' accounts (1576-1648), the period of Shakspere and the Civil War. From 1584 to 1606 there was a noticeable attempt, with lapses, to introduce the Gregorian calendar, and this has caused no little disturbance in the chronology. In both series of documents here digested there is a mass of valuable economic material regarding prices; and one of the three appendices is a reproduction of inventories of plate, etc., 1590-1685, while another is an inventory of donors' plate now in possession of the College. In his preface, Mr. Macray explains a puzzling entry, in the first volume, from the bursars' accounts, assigning the value of 24 shillings and a penny to 17 sheep dead of the murrain. The next year, 607 lost sheep were valued at only five pounds and sixpence. The late Professor Sylvester solved the enigma: "Arabic numerals were just beginning to take the place of Roman, '607' being simply a mistaken way of writing 67." Hence a sheep was valued at one shilling fivepence in 1499-1500; at one shilling sixpence in 1500-01. The bulk of the present volume is taken up with biographical sketches of the Fellows, year by year. Of these, William Dayrell (1576) died the following year "of the desease theare," the plague, namely, contemporaneously described as "pestem grassantem" or (in 1593 and 1603) "ingravescentem," the cause of many suspensions and leaves of absence. Robert Ashley (1584), famous as scholar and traveller, gets the largest share of attention, in ten pages, thanks to use of an inedited Latin MS. autobiography now in the British Museum. More conspicuous names are Peter Heylyn, chaplain to Charles I. (1618), and the Rev. John Ricard (1640). Nicholas Richardson (1614) supplies, in 1620, an early instance of pulpit quotation from Shakspere. The Parliamentary Visitations bore heavily on royalists who could not yield obedience. This admirably executed work supplements the Dictionary of National Biography, of which it may be deemed a sort of extension.

—The long-promised translation of Dr. Karl Bücher's much-valued 'Entstehung der Volkswirthschaft' has at last been published by Henry Holt & Co. under the title of 'Industrial Evolution.' It is from the hand of Dr. S. Morley Wickett of the University of Toronto. Since the book was first reviewed in these columns, in its original form, it has passed through three German editions and has been somewhat modified. At the outset merely a collection of lectures, delivered to audiences not composed of specialists, the chief value of 'Die Entstehung' was nevertheless found in its use by students and others as an introduction to the study of industrial evolution. This fact led naturally to a modification of the book. Several chapters have been thoroughly reconstructed, and one of semi-statistical character omitted. On the other hand three valuable sections (chapters i., v., and vii.) have been added in order to present more fully the course of economic development. The book would, we feel, have gained by the omission of one or two other chapters (like that on the Genesis of Journalism), since, whatever their intrinsic value, they mar the unity of the treatment. On the whole, however, it would be hard to find a more thorough, stimulating, and interesting volume for the beginner in industrial history. Of course it is impossible to cover in a single volume the whole course of industrial development, nor does Professor Bücher make any such formal attempt, although he succeeds in conveying a philosophical conception of the general sweep of economic tendency. It is his great merit, too, in addition to much original matter, to take the results of the "historical" economists and put them into readable form after stripping them of the crudeness and extravagance of their original dress. What he has to say of the deductive method in economics is of the greatest value, yet his own use of it is always checked by thorough historical learning. Dr. Bücher, as well as his English readers, is fortunate in having secured a translator as sympathetic and painstaking as Mr. Wickett seems to have been.

—Years ago the late F. T. Vischer, professor of æsthetics in the University of Tübingen, used to regret the lack of a general history of caricature, and often expressed the hope that some competent person would soon supply the long-felt want. This wish seems about to be fulfilled by Eduard Fuchs and Hans Krämer's elaborate work now in process of publication under the title 'Die Karikatur der Europäischen Völker vom Alterthum bis zur Neuzeit.' It is issued by A. Hofmann & Co., Berlin, from the office of the well-known comic journal *Kladderadatsch*, and will be complete in twenty numbers, of which nine have already appeared, forming together a large quarto volume with nearly six hundred illustrations either in the text or in supplementary sheets, and some of them in colors. The first number is introductory, and discusses the essential nature of caricature and its different manifestations in the various stages of European culture. The author comes to the conclusion that, with rare exceptions, it has been employed not to scoff at justice and virtue, but to defend the right and to promote the good, the beautiful, and the true. Indeed, this may be said of all the great representatives of satire in art, such as Hans Holbein, Lucas Cranach, Leonardo da Vinci, Hogarth, Gillray, Gill, Daumier, Cruikshank, Leech, and their compeers. The other eight numbers begin with an appreciative analysis of the satirical humor of the ancient Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans, followed by a description of mediæval caricature with its extravagant and often coarse symbolisms, in which Satan and his satellites play the chief part; the genial satire of the Renaissance, which found its fullest expression in literature rather than in the formative arts, and culminated in the fantastic creations of the genial Rabelais; the caricature produced by the Reformation and by the struggles for freedom in Holland during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; political caricature at the time of the Revolution and under the Consulate and the Empire in France; and finally social caricature, the father of which was Hogarth, to whom a special chapter is devoted. We may add that the work is written in a clear, simple, and succinct style, wholly free from the barren verbiage and "gush" which too often characterize the treatment of such subjects by German writers. The illustrations are well chosen and admirably executed, and the price of the volume (15 marks, or $3.75) is very moderate.

—With the death of the Marquis Sho Tai, formerly the King of the Loo-Choo Islands, who died in Tokio on August 19, ended also the last of the dual sovereignties once so common in Asia. The various names of the defunct little kingdom suggested, from the Chinese side, the pendant tassels on the fringe of China's mighty robe, and Japanwards the long thread (*okinawa*) which the Japanese silkworm outlined on the map of the islands, with its head at Kiushiu, spins to make the cocoon of Formosa. A thousand square miles and a population of 170,000, with a soil fertile enough to produce sugar and rice very easily, and of the latter two crops a year, with a most delightful warm elimate tempered by the sea breezes, make up the chief assets of what in mythology is the Eternal Country and in modern conditions the land where it is always afternoon. The Okinawa-ken, as it is now officially styled, is getting to be more and more visited by steam-yachting parties in the Pacific, and promises well as a sanitarium. Sho Tai was born in 1845. As a little boy of eight, he enjoyed, not without some feeling of terror, also, the advent of Perry's ships and the marching of our marines to his father's capital. He received his investiture from China as one of her many vassals, but the great Middle Kingdom did nothing for his protection, and, in spite of the protestations of King and court that China was the father and Japan the mother of Loo-Choo, and their willingness to pay tribute to both states, the Japanese Government, after the revolution of 1868, when the empire was consolidated, brought Sho Tai a captive to Tokio, making him a marquis. Though he considered himself an aggrieved sov-

ereign, he soon came to enjoy himself, while in the islands themselves, although the aristocracy forfeited most of their privileges, the people were immensely benefited. Commodore Perry's pity for the Loo-Chooans as the worst-treated people on earth has now no basis of fact.

MAHER'S PSYCHOLOGY.

Psychology: Empirical and Rational. By Michael Maher, S.J. Fourth edition, rewritten and enlarged. Longmans, Green & Co. 8vo, pp. 602.

Father Maher's purpose is so to present psychology as to illustrate the advantages of the Thomistic Aristotelian metaphysics, as well as the positive contributions to psychology by St. Thomas Aquinas and by Aristotle. This is done with a remarkably complete acquaintance with modern psychology, and a sufficient acquaintance with scholastic writings for this purpose. Here and there we detect a vague conventionality in the accounts of mediæval scholasticism which leads us to surmise that, as it was in its full bloom, it is not very well understood by the author. But that is of small consequence. The great scholastic psychologist was Aquinas; and Aquinas has been thoroughly mastered.

The volume verges upon corpulence, and when one finds that much the larger part of it is in one or other of three grades of small print, one gets the impression that it is a pretty full treatise. But when one comes to find not only that it covers everything usually called psychology, including both *Erkenntnisslehre* and such branches as Animal Psychology and Hypnotism—pausing, too, to make practical applications—but that, besides, it discusses Free Will, the nature of the Soul and its connection with the body, and, furthermore, that the position taken involves considerable controversy, it is evident that, although concision has been studied, the work can really do little more than outline what is known upon each topic. The historical matter, the summaries of different opinions, and the select references to places in other books where each matter is treated more at large, would be sufficient to give this treatise a real utility for the student, but its main interest is as a defence of Thomism as a grounding for modern pyschology.

"My aim," says the author, "has been, not to construct a new original system of my own, but to resuscitate and make better known to English readers a psychology that has already survived four and twenty centuries, that has had more influence on human thought and human language than all other psychologies together, and that still commands a far larger number of adherents than any rival doctrine."

As to the last pretension, if noses are to be counted simply, regardless of what lies behind each nose, and if notions about mind and body, however vague, are to be dignified as psychological "doctrines," no doubt the author is right. If we are to exclude all but readers of psychological treatises in English, French, German, and Italian, taken collectively, the estimate is probably much exaggerated; and if we confine ourselves to scientific psychologists, the majority is great on the other side. Perhaps, however, in one sense, it might not be so, if scientific men were accustomed to draw the distinction that ought to be drawn between the hypothesis which is preferable in a given state of general scientific research, and the hypothesis which is preferable for instant action. It is true that, after induction has done its work, or has substantially done it, no such distinction is to be drawn; for then the hypothesis has ceased to be a mere presumptive hypothesis. But as long as experimentation to test the hypothesis is in its early stages, which is the case in regard to the deeper questions of the science of the soul, the economies of a research which may probably be protracted through several generations, or even centuries, render indispensable a system of procedure which will have little relation to what seems likely at the moment. There is nobody who is experienced in difficult inquiries—say, for example, the detection of the author of a crime—but is well aware that nothing is more fatal than to attach much weight to what merely seems likely towards the beginning of an investigation. Probably, during such an inquiry, several theories will have to be tried and rejected; and in what order they shall be tried is a question of economy. But if one be forced, without completing the study, to act upon one theory or another, quite a different series of considerations ought to be decisive. In particular, good scientific economy will usually prescribe that simple hypotheses shall be thoroughly tested before resorting to complicated ones. This is the truth in Ockham's razor. But it is very far from being true, in questions concerning any science of life—psychology, physiology, and the like—that the true hypothesis is likely to be simple. On the contrary, the history of discovery in those departments shows many more examples of the old theory being found to be too simple than of its being found to be too complex.

Now the main, and almost the only, general difference between the psychology which Father Maher defends, and that which is current among modern scientific psychologists, is that the former admits an element, that of the efficient agency of reason, which the latter excludes. Certainly, the proper scientific method is to try first whether all the phenomena may not be explained without that agency, and to resort to it only after it shall come to be overwhelmingly proved to be indispensable. But as long as it is very far from having been proved that the phenomena of the universe and of mental action, so far as we know them, can be entirely explained without the efficient agency of reason, not merely upon mind (and *that* the modern psychologist practically refuses to admit), but even upon matter, there is nothing illogical in entertaining, as a small party among the warm advocates of the existing method of study do entertain, the opinion that science will ultimately be driven to have resort to that theory.

We fear that the perusal of Father Maher's treatise may rather weaken than strengthen any previous bias toward his views. There is a charm about Aquinas. His reader breathes, for the time being, a mediæval atmosphere; and in the dim cathedral light of that interesting age that built the Sainte-Chapelle, and Amiens, and much of Notre Dame, theories look very attractive which, when they are set down on a modern page, and are examined in the hard daylight of the twentieth century, strike him as cramped and grotesque, not to say crude. It may be doubted whether Father Maher has, after all, done the best for the essential theory. It may be doubted whether a man of his profession could do that, although his thought is, very likely, quite as free as that of an average North German university professor. But in the one case there is an external rule which draws a sharper line than exists in the other.

However, it was in no way incumbent upon him that he should fall into the very fallacy which he justly condemns in many of the works that build on modern ideas. Although this book has been almost entirely rewritten, yet it is based upon an original edition of 1890, so that much of it was written before James's great 'Principles' appeared. Now, in the fundamental conceptions of the science there has been a great advance since then. They are not by any means thoroughly clear, even yet; but probably nobody would now propose, as James then did, to write a psychology altogether uninfluenced by any metaphysics. As Ladd well names it, the "clandestine" metaphysics which such an attempt inevitably brings with it, is all the more dangerous from its lying in ambush. But Father Maher does substantially this very same thing. It is true that he avows his metaphysics at the outset, but he makes no formal defence of it until he reaches page 459. "In fact," he says, "our chief contention is that a complete and accurate separation of the two branches of Psychology [positive psychology and metaphysical psychology] is impossible." There is no need of considering absolute cleanness of cut; that is not the question. The point is that it has been made manifest that positive psychology cannot escape taking for granted a metaphysics of one kind or another in no inconsiderable measure. But what never has been proved, nor can any good reason for believing it be found, is that metaphysical psychology stands in need, in any degree worth consideration, of the scientific results of positive psychology. We must distinguish between results which depend upon the validity of the scientific method of psychology—scientific discoveries—and those rough facts about the mind which are open to everybody's observation, and which no sane man dreams of calling into question. As a matter of fact, it is upon these latter facts, and upon a series of similar facts about the outer world, that every man actually and really bases, first, his general metaphysics, and then his metaphysics of the soul. Even modern conceptions of the nature of intelligence, although facts of physiology have aided their development, can be more logically defended without resort to anything but those general facts about which nobody any longer ever simulates a doubt, and never did do more than simulate one. But as for the general Aristotelian metaphysics upon which Father Maher builds, it would be ridiculous to say that it cannot find all the support that is to be found for it anywhere, in the common facts upon which Aristotle himself rested it; nor is anything more needed for Father Maher's pneumatology.

It is remarkable how very little his Book II., on metaphysical psychology, would have needed to be modified had he chosen to transpose this with Book I., on positive

psychology. The result of his doing so would have been that a good many discussions in Book I. could have been dispensed with; and the whole work would have been at once more sincere—we mean, more true to the author's real thought—and vastly more logical. As it is, we should decidedly recommend this transposition in reading the book. There will, however, still remain the fault that the general metaphysics, upon which the decision of the dispute really must turn, is not made the subject of an explicit and separate examination. That ought to have come first of all. Logic required it; good rhetoric, too. For a way of thinking so different from that of our day that it would have come upon the reader as a complete surprise, has everything to gain by an overt attack. It is only assumptions that the reader already makes that can to any purpose be slipped in surreptitiously.

To conclude, the book will be found well worth consideration by students. It has much to recommend it, also, for those who never expect to read another on this subject, although its concision renders it just a little dry. Let this be followed by the delightful perusal of James's smaller book, after which Baldwin's little 'Story of the Mind' will be an *entremets*, and the reader will have a very decent knowledge of what psychology is.

CARMICHAEL'S TUSCANY.

In Tuscany: Tuscan Towns, Tuscan Types, and the Tuscan Tongue. By Montgomery Carmichael. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1901.

On beginning this book, and, indeed, while reading the first hundred pages or so, it seems that nothing could be easier than to render an account of it; a dozen extracts taken almost at random here and there, and the thing is done. But it turns out that the book is divided into two parts, and the second, and by far the larger, part does not lend itself to such informal treatment. The first third is made up chiefly of portraits of the cook, the valet, the gardener, the coachman (or, rather, more humble *vetturino*) of the author, all of whom appear to have been chosen rather for their defects than their qualities; and yet they form a service that would excite the envy of any British or American matron. And the explanation is not so far to seek as one might think. It is only that the Tuscan, even the most ordinary, is like a piece of furniture of many compartments, some of them secret, and all full of delightful surprises; to get at its treasures you need but to be worthy—that is, to be a very good fellow yourself—and the Tuscan land will be made for you a very Paradise. There have been those who have brought away a different report, but in so doing they merely condemned themselves. The author recognizes that a genial courtesy, equal for the lowly as well as the lofty, is not the attribute of every one among his countrymen; that there are even those who journey from Dan to Beersheba and cry: "'Tis all barren!" And it is not to be wondered at if the Tuscan whom they spurn should on occasion furnish to these outer barbarians some reason to complain of him; he is not absolutely perfect in a naughty world—he is only far more nearly so than his supercilious contemner.

In all this no one will deny that there are many grains of truth. The crusty, the stupid and prejudiced Briton is not altogether a thing of the past; and among the smiling Italians not all are cheats; some even are as good as their manners—and that is saying a great deal. It is pleasant, then, to find an Englishman (it would be no less pleasant were he an American) who recognizes the solid virtues as well as the graces of the Tuscan, and who records his convictions and the experiences in which these are founded in a style of unusual lightness and amenity. And having said thus much, we indulge in one or two citations, by no means the best that might be selected, but merely representative and easily separated from the context. In the first chapter, on the Tuscan temperament:

"With all his faults, in spite of all the difficulty we have in comprehending his character, in spite of contradictions, complexities, and crudities, the Tuscan is perhaps the most charming of all the children of Adam; just as his country, in spite of all its drawbacks, in spite of fierce heat, damp, scirocco, tramontano, mosquitoes, and all the plagues of a vexatious bureaucracy, is more nearly like the Promised Land than any other. But to live in that enchanted land and dwell among its siren people needs an apprenticeship not easy to serve [our author talks as a Briton, you see], and many a Philistine from beyond Jordan cancels his articles early in the apprenticeship and flees the country in affright or disgust. It is only after years of hard service, constant uneasiness, and continued perplexity that the stranger sojourning in the land awakens one day to find that he is dwelling in Eden, and sees on all sides of him, living in the flesh and working in the spirit, characters and ideals which had dimly figured among the dreams he dreamt in the far-off days of his generous, romantic boyhood."

And in the amusing chapter on the Tuscan tongue:

"A great impediment to acquiring Tuscan is the cleverness, and especially the courtesy, of the Tuscans themselves. They read your wants without any need of speech, and, if you make a mistake, are even capable of adopting it for the sake of saving your feelings. One of the first happy thoughts of the beginner is to Italianize French words. It answers so often. He knows, to begin with, that if he changes the French *eau* into *ello* (*agneau, agnello*), or the French *eur* into *ore (vapeur, vapore)*, he will probably be right. He is tempted to soar beyond these ascertained rules, *garçon, garzone; jardin, giardino; hier, ieri; jamais, giammai;* how smoothly the system works. He goes into a *pizzicheria* and asks the price of *jambon, giambone*, pointing to a small, juicy ham of the Casentino cure. 'Questo giambone,' says the courteous shopman, 'costa novanta centesimi la libbra.' The ham is bought on the spot and sent home. The cook is asked what she thinks of the *giambone*. 'The what!' she asks in bewildered astonishment. 'The *giambone* that I myself sent home from the *pizzicheria*.' 'Ah!' she gasps apologetically, 'it is excellent *giambone!* Will the Signore have some of it fried with eggs after the manner of the Americans?' And so, thanks to an infamous conspiracy of courtesy between a shopman, a cook, a parlor-maid, and a serving man, it was six months before I found out that there was no such word in the Tuscan tongue as *giambone*, and that the Italian for ham was *prosciutto!*"

The second part of the book has also its claim to being something out of the common. It is Tuscany without Florence and Siena, without history or art or literature, without politics or the labor question, and with very little landscape. At first blush we thought it was a great falling off, and that the author was, after all, only one of what Gottfried Keller somewhere calls the *Dutzendmenschen*, the men who are turned out by the dozen. But we read on until we repented of this hasty judgment; indeed, the Englishmen who have so far forgotten their insular origin as to be capable of writing the earlier pages of 'In Tuscany' do not exist in dozens; and though we cannot think the notices of towns equal to the personal experiences, they too have their spice. Mr. Carmichael lives at Leghorn, which occupies the first chapter of this division, and fills the others with accounts, all pleasantly written, of places easily reached from there, Pisa, Lucca, Montecatini, Porto Ferraio, Orbetello, Volterra, La Verna, Camaldoli. The chapter on the cheerful little watering-place, Montecatini, might perhaps have been left to repose in the columns of the journal where it made its first appearance, but more than one will smile at learning that it was through living in Leghorn, of all Italian cities, that the author learned that Tuscany is the earthly Paradise. This is enough to prove that he is no *Dutzendmensch;* for one might search in vain for the remaining eleven of such a dozen. Neither is he commonplace in other interests: "If the foreign observer desires to learn the history of a Tuscan town or to understand its people, let him immediately find out the miracle picture of the place and commence to study and acquire its legend; the rest follows of itself by some mysterious process." So as a key to Leghorn we have an account of the picture of Our Lady of Montenero; for Lucca we have a description of the "Volto Santo," and for Pisa of Santa Maria sotto gli Organi. "It would be impossible to enumerate the number of times that the city [Leghorn] has been preserved from the plague, and the lives of its citizens saved during the perils of an earthquake, through the intercession of our Lady of Montenero." Such passages as this are numerous, and it is hard to resist a smile at them, as well as at the enthusiastic veneration for the monk, which sees almost angelic virtues in every brother who wears a frock; but in days when the Inquisition is laic, it is the part of mere everyday courtesy to be indulgent to the blind indiscriminacy of such faith. Two chapters are devoted to visits to La Verna, where St. Francis received the stigmata, and to Camaldoli, where is a summer hotel united to a convent; besides which, the monks are frequent figures throughout the volume. Other two chapters, and these are the closing ones, have an air of being surprised at finding themselves in such saintly company; one is on the fine national game of *pallone*, with a plea for the *totalizzatore* (a sort of coöperative betting system common in Italy, such as is practised on transatlantic steamers anent the number of the pilot-boat), and a very clear account of the State lottery, the usual modes of playing, and the advantages accruing therefrom to the State and to the individual.

The book is generously illustrated with well-executed views from photographs, with the arms of the various towns described or rather visited, and with three maps, a general one of Tuscany, with lesser ones respectively of the island of Elba and of the region about Orbetello.

The Book of Genesis in the Light of Modern Knowledge. By Elwood Worcester, D.D. McClure, Phillips & Co.

We have here the work of a trained student, of adequate learning in the field which he investigates, of wide reading, independent thought, and a spirit of perfect candor and open-mindedness. It deals with what may be called the cosmical portion of the book of Genesis, from the Creation to the myth of the Tower of Babel, which it illustrates by a wide survey of the affiliated myths and cosmogonies of the great peoples of antiquity. In doing this, the author makes use of the original sources (the Hebrew text, cuneiform inscriptions, etc.), and the highest authorities, literary and scientific, with careful discrimination. In criticism and interpretation, it is only necessary to mention, among others, Dillmann, Wellhausen, Holzinger, Bacon, and Zimmern. His data have been corrected by correspondence with scholars like Jastrow, Jackson, and Professor Barton. Hence this series of lectures, though designed to be popular, in a certain sense, is as far as possible from being superficial or perfunctory.

The Deluge myths are treated in a special study, consisting of six chapters, which embrace the whole range of such legends, and discuss the views of Gerland, Cheyne, Ihering, and Usener. The author does not fully agree with any of these, but suggests a view which may be called original, and which, as to the reasonableness of its geologic details, is supported by the high authority of Eduard Suess, the Austrian geologist. The Flood myth, Dr. Worcester observes, is, as a rule, associated with the Creation myth, with the belief in a past Eden of felicity, a subsequent deterioration of morals, and a necessary corollary of punishment and perdition. After destruction follows a re-creation, the problem of which is exactly similar to that of creation. From this chain of events a moral motive is naturally developed. As to the flood legends of Genesis, the author regards them as variants and amplifications of the older story contained in the Babylonian poem of Izdubar. This older poem is, in all probability, a fairly accurate reminiscence of an actual local flood, caused by an earthquake, which upheaved the alluvial soil of Babylonia and the waters beneath the soil, and propagated huge tidal waves from the Persian Gulf (at that period extending one hundred miles further inland), northward up the Euphrates and across the plains to some bordering mountain in the land of Nisir, where, according to the poem, the ship of Sit-napistim was driven and finally lodged. Such a seismic disturbance, accompanied by wind, thick darkness, thunder, and lightning, is within the range of physical possibility, and fits well some of the picturesque details in the Babylonian and the Hebrew narratives. The poem of Izdubar evidently contemplated a flood sent to destroy the single city of Surippak on the Euphrates. This tradition the Hebrew narrators expanded, emphasizing the ethical motive, and "building up a great religious myth, the destruction of the world as a judgment for sin." The Hindu and the Greek flood myths are probably borrowed from these Semitic sources. That the Greek flood legends are derived, and not indigenous, seems probable, from the fact that they do not appear in Homer or Hesiod.

The chief significance of this volume lies, however, in its tone and spirit, and in the fact that the lectures it contains were addressed, on Sunday afternoons, by a divine of the Episcopal Church to an intelligent congregation in Philadelphia. From this point of view it is a good book to begin the century with. It is not addressed to pious readers "who believe every word of the Bible from cover to cover," nor to that class who listen to the reading of a chapter as if it were a form of incantation. It does not assume the attitude of those preachers who "teach with authority" books whose language and real meaning they have never taken the pains to fathom and understand. The author has so much reverence for the Bible that he is eager only to ascertain its truth; he has no thesis to maintain, no doctrinal position to defend; his object is to discover the precise meaning and purpose of the authors of Genesis. Hence he is able to say with perfect frankness:

"The narratives of Genesis are not history as we understand it; they are largely mythical—that is to say, history idealized. Does that in any way affect their inspiration or religious value? Speaking for myself, I can only say, not in the least. The error lies with those who attempt to interpret materially and scientifically what was intended religiously and ideally. The truth does not lie in the supposed fact, but in the lesson that is drawn from it. . . . The story of the Fall of man is 'pure poetry,' 'a sad and somewhat pessimistic tale,' invented to account for the origin of evil."

And again:

"We admit, then, that these are myths and sagas—the unconscious product of faith, marked by childhood's happy disregard of reality, and true in precisely the same sense that Shakspere and Milton are true—that is to say, true to nature morally and spiritually for ever. . . . The only safe test with which I am acquainted of the inspiration of any book is the effect that book is able to produce."

And finally:

"The task of reconciling the physical theories in Genesis with the recent results of modern science, I gladly leave to those who are ignorant alike of science and of Genesis. My own firm conviction is that the book is so great in itself that it does not need the assistance of maladroit apologists."

All this is not exactly new, but it comes from a new quarter, and it reveals a streak of daylight. If a new generation no longer knows the Bible, it is partly because that book has been betrayed in the house of its friends by the timidity and ignorance of "maladroit apologists." If the most inspired and the most inspiring of the Sacred Books of the East is to be known once more, and if its nobler spell is to be reëstablished, it will be by the conscientious labor and the enlightened honesty of treatises such as this.

The Thirteen Colonies. By Helen Ainslie Smith. Two vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1901.

In writing a sketch of colonial history for the "Story of the Nations" series, Miss Smith has adopted a new method, which may be most briefly explained by citing a passage from the preface: "So far as I can learn, after an examination of a long series of admirable works in this department of American history, this is the first single work in which is presented separately the record of each of the thirteen colonies from its first settlement to the Declaration of Independence." The parallel or horizontal treatment which has usually been employed is thus abandoned, and each colony is regarded as a separate State. Not only is Miss Smith's idea uncommon in its application to the American colonies, but it is one which has seldom recommended itself to the historians of other countries, like Italy and Switzerland, where the local tendency has been strong. It also runs counter to the modern belief in the value of comparative study. Such are some of the facts which occur to one on reading this announcement of the preface, and which quicken one's curiosity regarding the success or failure of the experiment.

The advantages of Miss Smith's method are equally obvious. When the development of each colony is traced from its foundation to 1776, the reader can be left with no doubts about the nature of the materials out of which the Federal State was formed. Every one understands the difference in character between Jamestown and Plymouth, between Connecticut and Rhode Island, between the Calverts and the Penns; but when the action shifts to the first half of the eighteenth century the outlines begin to be blurred unless the historian makes a special point of keeping each colony distinct from its neighbors. Miss Smith really says, by modelling her book as she has done, that the separate origin and continued isolation of the colonies are more significant than the features of resemblance which they have in common. She has succeeded in showing how widely the colonies differed from each other; on the other hand, we doubt whether her general scheme of treatment gives better results than the method which she has discarded. Where the local side of colonial life is concerned, she gains something by reason of greater distinctness. Where broad questions, like the dealings of the colonies with the Crown, with the Indians, and with the French, are concerned, she loses by throwing away her standards of comparison and by taking up in pieces what could better be discussed as a whole. Her account of the relations between French and English is decidedly weak from being so disconnected, and we ascribe this partial failure to the inherent weakness of a method which yields good results only in the field of domestic annals. The difficulty might be overcome, when the work goes into a second edition, by adding a few supplementary chapters on the larger aspects of colonial life.

Miss Smith's narrative is largely political, though economic and religious motives are kept well to the front. By writing a continuous sketch of each colony, she can mark with clearness the stages of growth through which the community passed; while, again, she loses some part of her space by describing the deeds of obscure Governors, who would probably be passed over if the subject were treated after the customary manner. The two volumes represent a wide range of reading, and are written with a zest which gives lively color to the text. According to the preface, the work has not been done at the gallop: "In the preparation of a history on this plan, a number of years have been devoted to a study of the older records and of the works of modern historians, and yet other years to sifting out prejudice and to shaping the results into a simple, straightforward narrative." The study of older records and of

modern historians shows itself by numerous extracts, many of which are excellent, though some from recent and very accessible writers might have been omitted.

While there is more in this book to praise than to censure, we must call attention to certain shortcomings which it does not escape. Without saying that Miss Smith shows a partisan spirit, we frequently discover a fondness for using stronger language of praise or condemnation than seems warranted. We could collect repeated illustrations of this tendency, but one example will be enough to show what is meant. Volume ii., page 275: "The last and best-known period of the province's [Massachusetts] history began under his masterful Majesty, George III., and the disputatious, avaricious thief and liar, Gov. Francis Bernard, whose term of ten years ended in disgrace on both sides of the water." But when describing Bernard's previous career in Pennsylvania, Miss Smith says (vol. ii., p. 44):

"Indians began to harass the frontier after Braddock's defeat; but Francis Bernard made his two years' term memorable by his general council of sachems at Easton, Pennsylvania, when he quieted the claims of the tribes marauding on the borders and turned their hostility into good will, which saved the colonists untold distress. Bernard was a royal officer, who, forgetting his salary in solicitude for defences, could raise money, enlist regiments, and even assert the royal prerogative without exciting the resentment of the representatives. There was harmony while he ruled, and regret when he left in 1760, to go to Massachusetts."

These passages reveal an exaggeration of language which does not, probably, reflect an equal exaggeration of sentiment, but which seems more like a trick of style. "Forgetting his salary in solicitude for defences" and "avaricious thief" are expressions that ought not to be used without some note of explanation.

Miss Smith falls into more than one error when she goes beyond the limits of local history. Thus (vol. i., p. 2), she states that the Dutch were under the yoke of Spain in 1493. On page 35 it is affirmed that Catherine de Médicis was determined to rid France of the Protestants at the time when Ribaut sailed for Santa Elena. On page 52 Queen Elizabeth is called "the source and centre of all this heroism," where the allusion is to the American voyages of her reign. Montreal (p. 165) was not founded before 1613. Amherst and Wolfe (p. 424) did not capture Louisbourg in 1759, and Wolfe was not killed on the 17th of September. Misprints also occur too frequently. However, most of the slips which we have noticed are apparently due to carelessness rather than to lack of information.

Despite some blemishes and some necessary limitations, which may be connected with the author's method, this book justifies the attempt to study the different settlements in detachment. Miss Smith has not supplanted the works of her predecessors, but she has made a place beside them for her own.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Becke, Louis. Yorke the Adventurer. London: T. Fisher Unwin; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Botsford, G. W. A History of Greece. Macmillan. $1.20.
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Catherwood, Mary H. Lazarre. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Comstock, Harriet T. Cedric the Saxon. Thomas Whittaker. 50 cents.
Daring, Hope. Paul Crandal's Charge. American Tract Society. 25 cents.
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Davis, A. McF. Currency and Banking in the Province of the Massachusetts Bay. Part II.: Banking. (Publications of the American Economic Association.) Macmillan. $1.75.
Dodds, Susanna W. The Liver and Kidneys. The Health Culture Co. 25 cents.
D'Ooge, B. L. Latin Composition. Boston: Ginn & Co.
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Lamb's Biographical Dictionary of the United States. Vol. 4. Boston: James H. Lamb Co.
Magnay, Sir William. The Red Chancellor. Brentano.
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Naylor, J. B. The Sign of the Prophet. The Saalfield Pub. Co. $1.50.
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Sibley, F. O. Zanee Kooran. F. Tennyson Neely Co. $1.50.
Sichel, Edith. Women and Men of the French Renaissance. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
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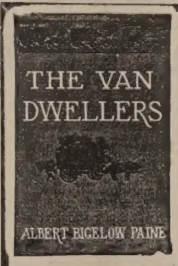

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 10, 1901.

The Week.

Much significance attaches to the selection by President Roosevelt of ex-Gov. Jones as United States District Judge for Alabama, to fill a vacancy caused by death. The late incumbent was a Republican, and the Republican politicians of Alabama took it for granted that a Republican President would consider only Republican candidates for the vacancy. But when it appeared that the party had nobody to present who was worthy of the place, Mr. Roosevelt concluded to look elsewhere, and to pick out the best man without regard to his political affiliations. The man upon whom his choice fell served the State with honor a few years ago, as Democratic Governor, and more recently has distinguished himself in the Constitutional Convention as the opponent of extreme measures directed against the blacks, and as the advocate of provisions designed to restrain the spread of lynching. He enjoys the confidence of the best elements of both races, while his high standing as a lawyer abundantly qualifies him for good service on the bench. Of course, this appointment is not to be regarded as an isolated act, but rather as the first illustration of a policy which the President means to pursue in the South, viz., to appoint only fit men to office in that section, as elsewhere. Being a Republican, he will naturally give the preference to representatives of his own party when it presents worthy candidates, but he knows that in many regions the Republican organization is so weak and disreputable that this is impossible. In such cases Mr. Roosevelt will insist upon finding the right type of man, even if he is compelled, as in this Alabama instance, to take a Democrat.

Dispatches from Washington concur in saying that W. F. Wakeman is to be removed from the office of Appraiser of the Port of New York. This is not a case of removal during a term of office, since there is no term to the office of Appraiser. He holds the place during the pleasure of the President, and this would ordinarily mean, under a good civil-service system, that he holds it while he performs his duties satisfactorily. Mr. Wakeman, whatever may be said of his intentions and motives in the premises, has kept the Custom-house and the importing business in hot water nearly all the time he has been in office, by his extraordinary and unexpected rulings. He has made more work for the Secretary of the Treasury than any other incumbent whom we can now recall. During the greater part of the time that he held the office of Appraiser, he also held that of Secretary of the American Protective Tariff League. It was a manifest scandal that a man should hold these two positions at the same time. As Secretary of the League, he was committed to the doctrine that the importation of foreign goods should be curbed. As Appraiser, he was in a position to put on the curb. This scandal was so glaring, and was brought to public attention so often by Wakeman's rulings, that the Secretary of the Treasury finally required him to resign one place or the other, and then he resigned the Secretaryship of the League. But of course he saw no impropriety in holding both places, and it must be admitted that, if importation is a crime, it would be quite proper for him to hold both. If, on the other hand, it is a lawful and necessary vocation, yielding about one-half of the public revenues, then a decent regard for the opinion of mankind requires that the judgment of all the men employed in the customs service should be free from bias in their official action, or the suspicion of it.

The demonstrations which took place at Havana and Santiago de Cuba on Thursday in favor of trade reciprocity with the United States were so formidable in point of numbers that they cannot fail to make a strong impression upon our Government and people. It is needless to say that a movement for annexation will not be far behind reciprocity. In fact, the demonstrations were almost as pronounced for the one as for the other. Therefore, they may as well be considered together. We have never considered Cuba a desirable addition to the American Republic. We do not desire her for the sake of bigness, because we are big enough already. We think that her population, race, religion, ideas, habits, traditions, are incongruous with our own. We are of the opinion that the marriage would not be a happy one, yet our chief objection to the policy mapped out in the Platt amendment has been that it did not leave Cuba a free hand in deciding her own destiny. The Platt amendment, however, has been adopted by Congress and accepted, albeit with a bad grace, by Cuba. No other pressure rests upon Cuba. If the people of the island decide to be a part of the United States, now or later, they can become such without any violation of the Teller resolution, which, at the beginning of the war with Spain, pledged us to leave her people free to form a government to suit themselves. The question for us to decide will be merely whether we want her for a partner, with a voice in our government corresponding to her population.

Massachusetts elections are seldom close enough to be interesting, and this year the Democrats stand absolutely no chance of beating Gov. Crane for another term in view of his admirable conduct during the past two years. Josiah Quincy accepts the candidacy of the Opposition now solely in order to be the party leader after Gov. Crane shall have retired a year hence, when conditions may be much more favorable to the Democrats. The real significance of the State Convention last week is the proof which it has afforded that the party has cut loose from Bryanism, and that the sober and conservative elements which gave it strength during the days of William E. Russell, and which were driven out under the management of George Fred Williams, are again in normal control. Massachusetts Republicanism has suffered from having the Opposition become contemptible, and the Commonwealth will gain by the return of Democracy to its right mind.

Complete fusion against the Quay ring in Pennsylvania is now assured. In a letter of admirable temper Representative Palm, who was nominated by the Democrats for State Treasurer, has withdrawn in favor of the nomination on the fusion ticket of Representative Coray, the candidate of the Independent Republicans. The State Committee authorized to make substitutions will meet in a few days and formally complete the ticket in the manner indicated. The fusion campaign will then begin, with what seems, at the outset, to be an excellent prospect of success. The evidences of revolt from the machine on the part of Republicans throughout the State are increasing daily, and altogether it seems to be a bad year for bosses in Pennsylvania. The discomfiture of the Donnelly-Ryan Democratic machine in Philadelphia is soon to be made complete by the appointment, by the authorized committee, of real Democrats to take the place of the Donnelly-Ryan representatives on the State Committee. The men who, under the name of Democrats, have for years been acting in alliance with the Quay machine are thus practically to be read out of the party. The days of their influence for evil in Philadelphia are over, and they will doubtless find cold comfort even with the corruptionists whose tools they were.

When Chairman Baldwin of the Committee of Fifteen last spring pleaded for the passage of the new Tenement-House

Law in order that prostitution in such houses might be broken up, Tammany officials sneered at his earnestness and denounced him as a falsifier. The partial report just made by the Committee as to its work under the new statute is Mr. Baldwin's complete vindication. In the space of a few weeks it has secured conclusive evidence against women occupying 290 rooms in 237 tenement-houses in Manhattan Borough, and this does not represent "even a formidable fraction of the prostitution existing in tenement-houses in the borough." So successful has been the work of the Committee's investigators that complaints have been made to the Board of Health in 244 cases, and the offending tenants in 173 separate apartments have already been evicted. A census showed that in many instances an average of nearly thirty children to a tenement-house were subjected to the evil influence which Tammany has fostered through its connivance at prostitution under these conditions.

Comptroller Knight's report, in which he reviews the fiscal receipts of the past year accruing from New York's corporation, organization, and inheritance taxes, shows that the most productive of the three has been that on corporations, which has brought in $4,966,680; the inheritance tax standing next with $4,084,606. As might be expected, the receipts from the organization tax have fallen far below those from either of the others, amounting only to $293,856, this being partly due to the nature of the impost, but also very largely to the fact that the laws relating to the organization of corporations are not yet thoroughly understood. The sources of these large volumes of tax receipts are as instructive as their relative amounts, and it should be noted that over one-fifth of the total collected has been gathered through the agency of savings-banks and trust companies, which have turned in, all told, $2,104,132. Many suits have been filed by these institutions, with reference to technical points as to the application of the law to interest at different stages and to various sorts of securities, and when these shall have been settled, the receipts from such institutions will probably be yet larger. The report as a whole is most instructive in that it points out the important and highly productive character of tax sources yet untouched in most of our commonwealths.

The decision just handed down through Justice Kruse of the Supreme Court on the subject of advertising sign-boards in Buffalo will strengthen the hands of those who have been conducting a campaign against the bill-board nuisance. Both in Chicago and in Buffalo, ordinances have recently been enacted regulating the erection of such boards, and ordering the destruction of those not conforming to the law. Requests made by advertising companies in these two cities for injunctions protecting their boards from condemnation have in each instance been denied. No actual steps against the boards have as yet been taken in Chicago, but the special term of court called by Gov. Odell, at the request of certain citizens of Buffalo who wished to destroy the signs before the close of the Exposition, has resulted in a final decision of the court against the bill-boards. Justice Kruse's verdict makes two main points. He upholds the ordinance on general grounds, and waves aside the plea that, in the special case before him, the "system" of signs objected to could not be defined as "bill-boards." For more comprehensive reasons, he shows that, even were the ordinance defective, the order for their removal could be sustained should it prove that the boards are in fact public nuisances. That they are so is shown by their tendency to increase the danger of fire and accident, and to furnish a screen for disorderly and unsanitary conditions.

To what extent the Constitutional Convention authorized on Monday by the voters of Connecticut will remedy the gross inequalities and injustices in legislative representation, is problematical. To correct those inequalities is the motive for the calling of the Convention, which is to meet in January next, but the limitations on its make-up do not warrant expectation of any adequate reform. Constituted, as it will be, of one delegate from each town, it will be overwhelmingly controlled by the representatives of the little towns, which must lose some part of their legislative membership in any workable plan for a more equitable representation of the cities and larger towns. Such reform as may be had, therefore, will be measured by the sense of justice and fairness in the minds of the rural delegates. This sense has not been conspicuous hitherto, the dominating sentiment in the little towns being to keep what they have. But out of the selfish motive may come some measure of relief, if the rural delegates can be persuaded by the Republican leaders and newspapers that the way to preserve town supremacy in the Legislature is to concede a little to the cities. Much will depend upon the character and ability of the delegates who are to be chosen next month. Meantime, another gain has just been made. Hereafter Connecticut State officials will be chosen by a plurality of the votes cast and not by a majority, as has been the rule since the preceding Constitutional Convention in 1818, under which procedure the choice of State officials often developed upon the Legislature, almost invariably Republican. By still another Constitutional amendment, the Senate is to be made somewhat more representative in character.

It is gratifying to learn that the work of the Indianapolis Monetary Convention will be continued during the coming session of Congress, and will be directed toward changes in the existing banking system. According to Col. John P. Irish, the effort will be made to get such legislation as will tend to equalize rates of interest throughout the country by making possible the distribution of surplus capital from the business centres to outlying districts. Col. Irish sounds the right note when he says that legislation of this character "will have a tendency to obstruct the unsound-money campaign, which has been promoted in States remote from the money centres by the false cry that there is not money enough in the country to do its business." He is well aware that while the free-silver movement may be dead, the spirit that gave rise to it is certain to reappear as soon as any check to the country's prosperity, and particularly to that of the farmers, has been felt, and that the only thoroughgoing remedy for currency dissatisfaction lies in the supply of suitable means of turning property into means of payment.

We regard the publication of the United States Steel Corporation's monthly net earnings, by order of the directors, as a development of the very highest importance. Whether for good or for ill, the fact has been obvious, during many months, that the investor was turning his attention, more freely than ever before in our financial history, towards shares of industrial corporations. One reason for this—perhaps the main reason—was the extravagant price to which most railway securities of the higher grade were advanced at the opening of this year. Wall Street's way of describing the situation was to say that the larger capitalists already held the bulk of such high-grade shares. This was true only in part; but the existing situation was much the same as if it had been wholly true. From the average investor's point of view, the railway shares were too high in price to attract his capital; he was, in a way, forced to consider the industrial shares. That he did place his money in them very largely has been shown by the history of the great American corporations organized and "floated" during the recent period of prosperity. But behind all this evidence of increased willingness, on the public's part, to consider industrial investments, there has existed from the start a very formidable danger—the refusal of the companies to make their financial condition public, or at best to do more than issue an annual statement.

It is needless to explain why this situation was extremely dangerous. It

necessarily became more dangerous the more extensively the investing public bought industrial shares. What might at some future time occur, through the tempting of outside capital into a company which refused to make known in any official form its real condition, has been forcibly suggested by the recent Copper Trust incident. But there has also been very grave reason to doubt the efficacy of annual balance-sheets alone. We do not refer merely to the dismay and astonishment with which a number of yearly industrial balance-sheets were received during August by investors. It is more noteworthy still that the old Cordage Trust at the close of 1891 showed an ample surplus on its balance-sheet, but went into hopeless bankruptcy only a year and a half later. How was the average investor to know, in the case of any company, whether the same misfortune might not befall himself? He had, of course, via the Stock Exchange, the word of "people close to the management." What this amounts to, the story of the "copper deal" is sufficient witness. The only safeguard worthy of real consideration was a full and fair exhibit of earnings for the quarter, or, preferably, for each month, with a showing of fixed charges, surplus, and disposition of surplus. The fact that this has now been officially adopted as the policy of the "billion-dollar Steel combination" settles the merits of the question. If this huge organization can prepare and publish such a statement, there is no other which cannot. In our judgment, the example set by the United States Steel Corporation will render hopeless any further effective and general resistance to the movement for publicity.

Good evidence of the prosperity of the farmers of the United States is furnished by the latest report of the English Mortgage and Debenture Company, Limited. This association, whose business consists in lending English capital upon American farm mortgage security, now announces a dividend of 10 per cent. on its common shares. During the past year it has realized a profit of over $100,000, and has carried a reasonable amount to the credit of the "reserve" account. Only a relatively small number of foreclosures have taken place, and considerable capital locked up in foreclosed lands has been released. The average rate obtained on farm loans has been 6.7 per cent. This situation contrasts very favorably with the history of some of the older English mortgage companies, which were forced to the wall after 1890. It ought to be added that the more favorable condition of the Mortgage and Debenture Company is not wholly due to the current prosperity of the United States, but also in part to the fact that it has confined its operations to States in which the loan market is settled and the security offered of known value.

Columbia's victory on Friday was by so narrow a margin that the best judgment is inclined to see in it a triumph for Barr's seamanship rather than for the boat. Comparing the concluding race of the series with the first, it appears that no two boats could be sailed more nearly on equal terms in light airs, and yachtsmen cannot be too thankful for Thursday's race in a half gale, which conclusively proved the superiority of *Columbia* over the challenger. Now that the limit has been reached in the development of the racing-machine, it is a question whether some attempt should not be made to return to normal yacht-building. The aim of such building is to combine with reasonable comfort and safety a maximum of speed. Beautiful and swift as the modern racing-machines are, no one would ever follow their lines for either safety or comfort. The fin is structurally a weak element, and the consequent reduction of the head-room makes for discomfort in all the living arrangements. The long overhangs are again a most vulnerable portion of the modern boat, and in a heavy sea-way actually dangerous. And yet, in spite of the obvious disadvantages of the Herreshoff type for cruising, many Corinthian yachtsmen are sailing in boats which, though too deep to enter our smaller harbors, would have, without an exaggerated deck-house, insufficient head-room. Is it not time for the New York Yacht Club to call a halt, and seek to restore to honor the real boat—the yacht like the great forty-footer *Minerva*, which crossed the Atlantic under her own sail, scored a season of straight wins, and meanwhile accommodated her owner and his guests?

The current number of the *British Economic Journal* contains an interesting analysis of the now famous Taff Vale Railway case. It will be remembered that the decision of the House of Lords in this case was pronounced in favor of the legal liability of trades unions, irrespective of their actual incorporation. This decision traversed several previously accepted doctrines. It appeared to run counter to the express provisions of the Trades Union Act of 1871, which placed the unions on a separate basis by providing for their registration, and by exempting them from the special acts of incorporation governing companies, friendly societies, etc. They were by the Act of 1871—so it was supposed—placed upon a footing where their funds could not be jeopardized by the acts of their officers. According to the Taff Vale decision, it would seem that the House of Lords recognizes such a thing as a tacit or implied incorporation. The writer in the *Economic Journal* shows that such a decision, whatever its merits, violates accepted ideas on corporations. He suggests some curious corollaries of the decision when he remarks that under it clubs, partnerships, etc., would now have to be regarded as corporate bodies—an anomalous situation.

It is just short of two years since the Boer war was precipitated, yet that frank—that terribly frank—Conservative, Mr. Winston Churchill, rudely tells the Government and the English people that the military situation in South Africa is to-day "not less momentous than when the Boer armies threw themselves into Natal at the beginning of the war." In saying this he but reflects the universal feeling and anxiety in England. Gen. Kitchener comes in for a lot of condemnation, probably undeserved, and the War Office for a good deal more—richly merited, we suppose. But is it not a strange figure which Mr. Kipling cuts in all this business? He now comes forward as an expert military authority. What the Secretary of War ought to do, how the army should be reorganized, what generals should be appointed and what dismissed, the poet of empire knows perfectly. He is the infallible one. But where was his infallibility when he was shouting, two years ago, for the launching against the Boers of an army which he now admits was in a "rut of impotence, pretence, and collapse"? Even a poet going to war should not make war on his own consistency. After hallooing on the dogs of war as he did, Kipling should not turn round and abuse the Government because what he thought to be powerful mastiffs have turned out to be mangy curs.

Interesting light is thrown upon some recent tariff predictions by the reception that is being accorded to the new German customs law. According to the latest dispatches, the law, if enforced, will lead to reprisals by Austria-Hungary. The tone of the Austrian press is distinctly hostile, and emphasizes the threatening attitude of the Hungarian Prime Minister. In view of these facts the suggestions of a tariff union between Austria and Germany, made as they are at a moment when the two countries seem to be on the point of coming to blows, are peculiarly inapposite. Only one thing appears to stand in the way of the enforcement of the new law. The German industrial situation is already very grave, and would be aggravated by Austrian tariff reprisals, owing to the closeness of commercial relations between the countries. For the moment German conditions are at a crisis, due to the closing or winding up of one or two of the West German banks. The unwisdom of introducing any new element of disturbance is apparent even to extreme protectionists.

TAMMANY AND "RESPECTABILITY."

What would have been pronounced inconceivable a month ago has happened. Tammany has nominated as its candidate for Mayor a man who has pronounced Tammany government "the most insolent and audacious, as well as the most reckless assault we have yet known upon the welfare of Greater New York, and of the masses, especially the less fortunate masses, of its people"—and that, too, at a time when Tammany was far less offensive than it has since become; a man who, only four years ago, advocated a non-partisan administration of municipal affairs, instead of the rule of the city for the benefit of Tammany which that organization always represents; a man who, so recently as 1897, supported the present candidate of the anti-Tammany forces as one who could be trusted to give the city such a non-partisan administration as he advocated. Disregarding the example of Mr. Orr and other men of high standing whom Tammany emissaries have approached, Mr. Edward M. Shepard has cast in his lot with an organization of plunderers masquerading as a political party. And yet it is becoming more and more clear to the moral sense of New York that the proper attitude, at this juncture, of any man who values his own character, and to whom the welfare of the city is dear, is an indignant spurning of a nomination for any office that Croker might propose. "Is thy servant a dog that he should do this thing?"

Any man asked to lend his honorable name as a cloak for Croker's foulness ought, at least, to keep his eyes wide open; to look at the facts; to consult the past; and to make sure that he is neither cheated himself nor willing to cheat the city. For ourselves, we consider it impossible that a respectable man could take the Tammany nomination for Mayor, as things stand in this city to-day, without deceiving either Croker or the people whose votes he asks. Richard Croker will not voluntarily put an honest and fearless man in the Mayor's chair. As well expect a thieving bank cashier to bail the arrival of the inspector. Croker may easily seek the aid of a citizen of fair repute to aid him in retaining his imperilled power to prey upon this city, and plan to make of him a puppet or a victim later on; but the devil cannot dread holy water more than he would a Mayor who should undertake to rule with an eye single to the city's good. Therefore, as we say, it is a case for his nominee of playing false either to Croker or to New York. No man can serve those two masters; and however high his standing, however praiseworthy his motives, however honorable his purposes, he should know that he will accept a Croker nomination only at a fearful risk to his own character, and in the certainty that he is inviting a renewal of the city's calamity.

But how about Mr. Hewitt and his acceptance of the Tammany nomination in 1886? This is the instance which is always cast in the teeth of those who maintain to-day that a self-respecting and respected man would no more think of foregathering with Tammany than he would of making his home in a lazar-house. There is, however, an immense difference between the case now and the case then. In the first place, Tammany was not in 1886 the exposed and loathsome thing it is to-day. There was an effective Democratic opposition to it in the city, and it had to walk with some circumspection. It had been beaten in 1884 by Mayor Grace. Moreover, there was on the horizon in 1886 the cloud of the Henry George movement, and Mr. Hewitt thought, as many thought, and as proved to be the case, that the surest way to repel that thinly disguised attack on property was to work through the Tammany organization. He was elected, but what was the result of his attempts to give the city good government in and through Tammany Hall? Any man trembling on the brink of a decision to cast in his lot with Croker to-day should mark well what happened to Mr. Hewitt. He was thwarted at every turn all through his administration by the men who had professed to seek good government by means of his election, and was finally repudiated by them with open hostility and contempt. When so strong and brave a man as he, so far back as 1886, found the Tammany opposition to decency and reform in the city government too powerful for him to overcome, what could a slighter Mayor expect to accomplish against the Tammany of 1901?

The real spirit of Tammany is most clearly revealed in that part of the platform which concerns the administration of justice. During the past nine months the District Attorney's office, for the first time in many years, has been administered by an honest man working solely in the interest of the public. Mr. Philbin has been exactly the sort of public prosecutor that the law contemplates. He has pursued rascals and criminals wherever he found them, and without any reference to their political affiliations or influence. He has set a standard which no successor could well hope to surpass. He has earned the praise of every good citizen. But what does the Tammany platform adopted last week say of him? This:

> "We denounce the conversion of the great office of District Attorney into an instrumentality for the harassment of political opponents, the carrying forward of partisan aims, and the terrorism of citizens and officials not found subordinate to the purposes of men who aim at the control of the community in its business, social, and governmental aspects alike. In the course of the present occupant of the District Attorney's office, appointed avowedly to advance the interests of political superiors whose purpose is to substitute for the will of the people of New York their own sinister determinations, we see not only a blow directed against the well-settled principles of American law and liberty, but the unveiling of a purpose, the logical consummation of which would be the establishment of a tyranny at once infamous and intolerable."

It is because Tammany, like the evil men and seducers of Scripture, has so visibly waxed worse and worse, that clear-headed men now feel that a respectable citizen cannot accept its favors without betraying both his own class and the whole city. In 1886 it might plausibly assert that it was a political party; now it is little better than a detected den of thieves. Its only definition of politics is plunder. So far from there being any possibility of its giving the city an honest government, the crushing of Tammany is the thing that must be done before we shall get within sight of honest government.

It is not a case of weighing the merits of one estimable gentleman against those of another. We are confronted by a system of public robbery, an alliance with crime, a city government organized bottom upwards; and how can a reputable man think it possible to become the respectable figure-head—the inevitable blind—of such an organization as Tammany, and still retain the good opinion of his fellows? We confess, for our part, that we do not see how. To put one's self at the head of the Tammany cohorts to-day is, to our mind, in the act to join the enemies of the city, nay, of civilization itself.

MR. SHEPARD'S APOLOGIA.

It is not often that a candidate's acceptance of a nomination for a great office consists of an apology for consenting to take it; but that is the irresistible impression produced by the proceedings at Mr. Shepard's home in Brooklyn on Monday night. The Tammany spokesman began with a noble defiance of the "calumniators" of his immaculate organization, as a proper preliminary to offering its highest honor to one of its leading calumniators. Then Mr. Shepard made his speech of acceptance; but it was obviously addressed, not to Congressman Cummings, not to the committee, not to his Tammany nominators, but to those life-long friends and associates of his in opposition to Tammany who have been painfully wondering for a week past how he could possibly justify himself for having lent his honored name to a company of political freebooters, which he himself had described as "the distintegrating, corrupting power that is undermining the very vital foundation of our civilization."

Let it be said at once that his speech is exceedingly adroit. We know no man who could have done better in attempting to reconcile contradictories. And we are bound to admit, also, that Mr. Shepard saved his reputation for sincerity.

He retracted nothing of his avowed hostility to civic corruption, declaring that he had hated and fought it all his life, and was not going to leave off doing so now. He even spoke specifically of the Police Department, and described the sort of Commissioner he should name, if elected Mayor, in terms which were tantamount to serving notice upon Murphy and Devery that they must set their house in order, for their end is near. All this was courageous and satisfactory on Mr. Shepard's part, and shows that his heart is still sound. We wish we could say as much for his head. But we cannot shut our eyes to the intellectual confusion which marks his speech. In fact, he so completely ignores or obscures the great issues and salient facts of this city campaign that one can only compliment him as the gamekeeper did the nobleman who lamented that he was such a bad shot. Donald had seen worse. "But how can that be when I have missed bird after bird?" "Aye, but your Lordship misses them so *clean!*"

Mr. Shepard makes a clean miss in his attempt to raise partisan prejudice. First, he charges that Mr. Low's candidacy rests wholly upon "a partisan basis." He intimates that there has been a great change in this respect since 1897, "when President Low and I stood in the campaign" against Tammany. At present Mr. Low's candidacy is, to Mr. Shepard, "only partisan and factional, and in no proper sense municipal." Now to this it is only to be said that it is in flat contradiction not only of the platforms of the various organizations which put Mr. Low in nomination, but of Mr. Low's open and explicit assertion. Both they and he affirm in the roundest terms that the movement they stand for is not partisan in origin and will not be partisan in execution. But Mr. Shepard, in his passion for non-partisanship, has detected the falsity and treachery of all this, and has discovered that an edict has gone forth that "under no circumstances" will the Republican organization of New York support a Democrat for Mayor—a strange edict, falsified by the fact, which Mr. Shepard has forgotten, that the Republicans supported Scott for Mayor in 1890! But, granting that Mr. Shepard's facts and insinuations are well founded, with what grace can he fling at Mr. Low as a partisan, when he himself hastens to boast that he is "a Democrat through and through," and that he takes the nomination for Mayor in the interests of "the Democratic party"?

Nor can Mr. Shepard fail to see, when these present mists are off his mind, how vast would be the difference between Mr. Low's position and his own, after election, in this very matter in which he challenges comparison. Mr. Low could point to platforms laying upon him the mandate to conduct the city government in a non-partisan way. But Mr. Shepard stands upon a platform which flouts the need of change and calls for a continuation of present conditions—conditions which Mr. Shepard himself is compelled to admit are in need of drastic reform. "We have nothing to apologize for," said the Tammany Chairman of the Convention which nominated Mr. Shepard. It was a fulsome eulogy of Tammany as "sheathed in integrity" which he had to listen to from Congressman Cummings before announcing his own purpose to "destroy and punish" corruption in New York. These are but incongruities now; after election, in case of Mr. Shepard's success, they will become opposites impossible of reconciliation.

And this, after all, is the fundamentally unsound nature of Mr. Shepard's plans and proposals. He is acting in complete oversight of the tools with which he will have to work. His success will mean general Tammany success. That will mean a District Attorney, a Board of Estimate, and Aldermen banded to thwart and defeat him from the very beginning. Mr. Shepard appears to think that, from a benevolent idealist in the Mayor's chair, virtue will go out to regenerate the whole Tammany organization. The moral interchange of evil companionship is not usually of that sort. Tammany will be bound by the law of its being to denounce and oppose Mr. Shepard in every effort he may make as Mayor to cleanse the city. It will see to it that his fellow-officials are men who will serve it and baffle him. Indeed, it is more than likely that it will throw him over in advance, in the desperate attempt to secure the minor and county offices. In any case, it is clear to us that Mr. Shepard has made the great mistake of seeking ends without considering whether he will be in possession of the necessary means. Tammany as a means to reform is like a gambling-house as a training-school for the church. If Mr. Shepard were to work in the most effective way for the reform of our city government, he would vote for Mr. Low. The latter can do the job, and Mr. Shepard cannot possibly.

THE STRIKE IN SAN FRANCISCO.

Two murders, half a dozen deaths, three thousand personal assaults—one hundred of these so severe as to call for surgical treatment—the sacrifice of a large part of this year's crop in the surrounding country, of several million dollars in delayed shipments, and of more than half a million in wages—this is the cost of the war which has for several weeks been raging in San Francisco under the name of a strike. But heavy as have been the measurable losses of the contest, the sacrifice in more imponderable elements has been greater. The list of losses must be increased by the destruction of San Francisco's character as a law-abiding city, and by the rude shock administered to those who have sympathized with the legitimate claims of labor. The contest has now been terminated, thanks to the intervention of the Governor of California, after a conference with the strike leaders lasting for more than a week. His task had been lightened by the practical exhaustion of both sides, and the universal condemnation of the cause of the labor leaders.

Strained relations between employers and employed first set in some five months ago, as the result of a strike of machinists, and the ill-will generated in this comparatively unimportant dispute was fomented by a certain section of the press and of the clergy until it became general. Finally, the teamsters suspended work. This was in consequence of a letter written to a member of the Employers' Association by the Teamsters' Secretary on July 17. In this letter, and during the controversy which preceded it, the Secretary declined to permit union teamsters to haul goods for those who had in their employ non-union men. No question of wages or of hours was involved. Every reasonable demand had been conceded by the employers, and, most important of all, contracts, upon explicit terms, had been signed by both parties to the controversy. Nor had any new elements been introduced into the labor situation. Union men had for years been working side by side with non-union. Yet, in the face of these facts, the Teamsters' Association sacrificed its contracts, gave up remunerative work, and called out its men.

From the first it was plain that a resort to violence would be the only means of winning the contest. Men in numbers sufficient to take the places of the striking teamsters were at hand within a week. Had it not been for riotous demonstrations whenever a team appeared upon the streets, and had not the fear of violence deterred respectable men of family from working, the incident might have been closed within a few days. But street battles between strikers and police, in which victory inclined now to the one side and now to the other, afforded small encouragement to such persons.

It was not long before conditions were complicated by a sympathetic strike among 'longshoremen, coal-handlers, and others. Traffic in the city was almost wholly suspended. Loaded vessels were unable to discharge their cargoes. Sea-going ships failed to secure men sufficient to load their freight. Expedients of all sorts were resorted to, and Filipinos, Japanese, and university students were pressed into service. These expedients naturally developed the unsympathetic character of this sympathetic contest. Pitched battles between strikers and the police became a frequent occurrence, and hundreds of new men were brutally assaulted, many of

them being maimed or permanently disabled. City government had apparently been suspended. An exciting political campaign, coming in the midst of the strike, seemed to have paralyzed office-holders, who feared the "labor vote." Mayor Phelan refused to recognize the existence of violence, and practically repeated the disgraceful history of McKeesport during the steel strike. It was difficult to find police justices who would return a verdict against strikers convicted of violence, and those already in office were renominated with applause because they "guaranteed the members of the unions fair treatment." Worst of all, the lawless and brutal excesses of the men were excused and even praised by a small section of the press and the clergy, which pretended to stand for the interests of labor. In the meantime fruit crops had been accumulating and had spoiled while awaiting shipment. A labor leader to whom the danger of loss of the crop was explained, and the imminent ruin of the farmers pointed out, returned the brutal reply, "Let it rot." It was not until efforts at arbitration had been made by various commercial bodies and had been indignantly rejected by the men, that the community saw the need of action. The organization of a special police force, the threat to organize a vigilance committee, the utter revulsion of public opinion from any shadow of sympathy with the men's demands, are all that has brought the agitators to hear reason, and has finally terminated the strike where it began, without the gain of a single point by the trades-unionists.

The story of the San Francisco strike is an epitome of many recent labor difficulties. It has the wretched preëminence of repeating the history of all the most disgraceful labor disputes of recent years. Not an outrage upon independent workmen but has had its parallel in San Francisco during the past few weeks. Not an instance of savage brutality but can be equalled there. Not a failure of municipal officers through truckling to the vote of an insolent union but finds an analogy in the government of the city. There is nowhere a more discreditable display of low methods in journalism than must be attributed to the San Francisco newspaper that has done its best to stir up a war of classes.

The San Francisco strike has, like the steel strike and several other recent disputes, been a strike for a principle—the alleged right to centralize the control of labor and establish an industrial oligarchy. The outcome of each contest points to one conclusion—the American public is not ready to accept the notion of labor monopoly. It insists upon competitive freedom. No strike based upon this issue can succeed. And by the side of this axiom must be put one principle for future enforcement—that of trades-union responsibility. No common carrier whose negligence had caused enormous loss to shippers could escape its legal liability. Then why grant greater immunity to an insolent union disturbing the business of a State and destroying the prosperity of a city by its outrageous efforts to establish a monopoly?

THE NEW EDUCATION OF THE ARMY.

In allotting $100,000 for the purpose of preparing Washington Barracks for the use and occupation of a War College and School of National Defence, Secretary Root has taken a first and extremely significant step towards placing the army of the United States upon a footing similar to that of European armies. It is the first announcement to the public that the far-reaching plans for a modernization of the service which have been forming in the Secretary's mind, are now approaching completion. It means that within a very short time the army will be as well equipped with professional training-schools as the navy itself. It means that a Secretary of War has at last been found with the energy and ability to put an end to existing wasteful and impotent conditions.

In every other country except China it has always been recognized that an army existed primarily to prepare for war. In the United States, until the war with Spain, the sole concern of the War Department was with the feeding and outfitting of the 25,000 troops which it controlled, and the promotion of their officers. The war with Spain revealed facts to the public which were patent to any one familiar with the system, or, more truthfully, with the total lack of system, which prevailed. When hostilities broke out, no army official knew how many transports the Government could secure, or where they were to be found. No one knew the military capacity of a single railroad or the terminal facilities at a single harbor along the coast. Although war had been impending for some months, no bases had been selected for movements against Cuba, no supplies had been ordered to selected points, no camp sites had been agreed upon, no military leaders had been chosen—in short, there had been absolutely no forethought. While the main concern of the Continental armies, for decades past, has been with their general staffs, organized to be the brains of each service, to think out every possible emergency, and to provide the means to meet it, our own War Department would not even recognize an emergency when it knocked at the door.

To remedy this situation has been Secretary Root's task. He found, on taking office, a civilian President practically commanding the army; a Commanding General such only in name and without proper duties of any kind; an Adjutant-General become chief of staff by force of circumstances and by virtue of unusual executive ability; a number of topheavy staff departments bound up in red tape, possessed of great political influence, and utterly defiant of any efforts to reduce them to their proper status as subordinate business enterprises; and last, but not least, a system of military education totally disarranged because of two wars. Although the choice of evils to attack might well have confused him, he is wisely giving his attention primarily to the question of education. He first addressed himself to the lower steps of the educational ladder by ordering the reëstablishment of the post lyceums, or barrack schools, in which officers are required to produce a certain number of professional studies each year. With this as the public school of his system, he ordered the re-establishment of the post-graduate artillery, cavalry, and infantry schools at Forts Monroe, Leavenworth, and Riley (abandoned at the outbreak of the war with Spain) upon a more elaborate basis than hitherto. The student-officer who does well in the post lyceum is to go to these high schools, which, in the case of Forts Leavenworth and Riley, will include a summer course in military manœuvres executed by troops of every branch of the regular service in conjunction with National Guard regiments. The honor graduates of these high schools are in turn to go to the War College and School of National Defence now to be established in connection with the post-graduate Engineer School at Washington Barracks, and intended to be the university of this system of instruction.

To reach this select army university an officer must plainly have shown unusual fitness or ability, just as the men appointed to the Berlin General Staff are those who have demonstrated their talents in the Bavarian or Prussian or some other war school or general staff. Once in the War College, the aspirant for army honors will deal with the highest problems in military science, in logistics, and in strategy. Just as has been done in the Navy War College at Newport, it is the War Department's plan that its picked officers shall work out problems of exterior and interior defence, of mobilization, and plan for raising volunteer armies or for any conceivable emergency.

With this War College once established, it is plain that the blunders of the Spanish war should be impossible of repetition, for the reason that there will then be officers whose business it will be to think of the most important matters with which no man concerned himself in 1898. There should not, in the event of war, again be those harassing delays which cost the Government such unnecessary millions in 1898, nor the mistakes of the fever camps which

unnecessarily sacrificed thousands of precious lives. Every man should go to his appointed place at the first signal exactly as is done in Germany and France, without friction, without delay, and without suffering.

How great a change this will be from the army of to-day, as well as from that of 1898, the civilian can hardly realize, since it goes to the bottom of the army system, and even threatens the rule of favoritism and of pull which has been the bane of the army ever since the civil war. For the first time it will insure to the army officer an opportunity to rise on his merits and by devotion to duty, since the War College graduates will be the men to be selected for responsible duties and promotion the instant an emergency occurs. For the public this reform means that, if followed up, another branch of the public service will take its place alongside the navy as one honestly and efficiently administered in the public interest.

THE WORK OF THE CLEARING-HOUSE.

At the annual meeting and election of officers of the Clearing-house last week some facts of importance to the business condition of the country were made public. The first of these is, that the average daily clearings for the year ending September 30 have been $254,193,638, as compared with $170,936,146 for the previous year. The highest average for any former year was in 1899, which was a little less than $190,000,000. The largest daily transactions on record were those of May 10 of the present year, when they reached the enormous total of $598,537,409. The gain over the year 1900 has been 44 per cent.

Another fact of interest is, that, while the aggregate amount of the clearings has increased in the ratio indicated, the proportion of cash used in settling balances has declined. In 1900 the average daily balance was $8,981,716, or 5.25 per cent. of the clearings. In 1901 it was $11,600,784, or 4.57 per cent. In other words, it takes less money proportionately to do a large business through the machinery of the Clearing-house than to do a smaller business. Comparing the returns of the forty-eight years during which the New York Clearing-house has been in existence, we find that the average balances have been 4.77 per cent. of the clearings, as against 4.57 per cent. now. In the year 1854, when the daily clearings were $19,000,000 per day, the balances were 5.17 per cent. They are now thirteen times larger, yet the percentage of cash payments is less.

The Clearing-house is thus seen to be one of the greatest labor-saving machines of the modern world. It would be impossible to transact business on such a scale of magnitude without it. Prior to its introduction it was customary for each bank to send a messenger to every other bank each day with a passbook and a package of claims. Bank A would sort out all the checks and other claims it held against Bank B, and write the amount in the book on the debit side of the page assigned to that bank, and send the book and package to the latter. Bank B would acknowledge receipt of the checks and write on the credit side of the page the amount of its claims on Bank A, and would deliver by its own messenger the corresponding checks, etc., drawn on Bank A, and have the proper acknowledgment made in its own passbook. There were thirty-eight banks in New York at that time. So there were seventy-six bank messengers continually traversing the streets, getting in each other's way at the bank's counters, and in the way of the bank's customers, and liable to assault or accident. The balances were shown each day by the footings of the passbooks, but, on account of the labor of carrying and counting gold coin, which was the only money receivable between banks, the settlements were made only once a week, and then by actual delivery of the coin, which was also carried through the streets, at considerable risk to the owners.

Payments of clearing-house balances are now made with gold coin, gold certificates, or legal-tender notes. Gold certificates, when not otherwise defined, are those issued by the United States Treasury, but the New York Clearing-house has vaults for the reception of gold deposited by its own members, for which certificates are issued which are available in making payments at the Clearing-house. Here we note another interesting fact, namely, that the balances are now paid almost exclusively in gold. Of the total cash passed through the Clearing-house during the year ($3,515,037,741), all but $5,000,000 was gold certificates, the small remainder being legal-tender notes. In 1895 all but a small fraction of the balances were paid with legal tenders. Of the gold certificates used during the past year $3,000,000,000 were those representing gold in the Clearing-house vaults, and $414,000,000 those issued by the Government.

Next to the remarkable growth in magnitude of the clearings, we have to note the different varieties of clearings which are admissible in different places. In New York the only things admissible to the clearings are checks, drafts, and certificates of deposit or other valid orders on the banks payable at sight. Some clearing-houses, however, admit, in addition to these instruments, the promissory notes and acceptances of private individuals, which are drawn "payable at the ——— Bank," and which have matured. Others admit checks and drafts drawn on out-of-town banks which are correspondents of members of the Clearing-house. In some clearing-houses payment of balances may be made by drafts drawn on other designated cities, or partly in cash and partly in such drafts.

In Boston the practice exists of borrowing and lending balances among the members, on the floor of the Clearing-house, immediately after the day's balances are ascertained. Sixty per cent. of the balances are usually disposed of in this way. Thus, suppose that a certain bank has a credit balance of $100,000 at the Clearing-house, for which it has no immediate use. In order to save interest on this sum, even for a single day, it lends its balance to a debtor bank "on call," that is, repayable at demand. The creditor bank, in that case, gives an order in writing to the manager of the Clearing-house to transfer its balance, in whole or in part, to the borrowing bank. This practice is so common in Boston that the Clearing-house rate of interest is quoted regularly in the newspapers. These and many other varieties of Clearing-house practice are described in Mr. James G. Cannon's excellent treatise on 'The Clearing-House.' The New York Clearing-house Association has pursued a very conservative policy, both in the kind of instruments admitted to the clearings and in the method of paying balances.

The magnitude of the clearings at New York is truly indicative of the state of trade in the country. They are generally twice as great as those of all the other cities put together—a phenomenon which is accounted for by the fact that the other cities habitually settle their transactions with each other at this point. Thus, for example, the clearings of New York for eight months of the present year were $55,746,132,290, while those of ninety other cities together were $25,626,692,784. This means that New York is the financial centre of the United States, and that the state of trade in the whole country at any particular time can be best learned by observing the course of the exchanges at our Clearing-house. Judged by the figures just made public, the situation is most encouraging.

TRACKING DANTE TO INDIA.

Some historians are so keen sportsmen that they override, and the chase ends as with the animals in a circus when the pack, faulty only in excess of zeal, sweeps in ahead of the game. This image rises naturally in the mind as one sees the outcome of the hunt which started long ago to run Dante to cover. First he was tracked back to Greece, and then for a time he disappeared, but a decade ago the hunt began again and he was followed east as far as Persia. Thither a self-contained hunter might be willing to follow and there be content to rest; but of late, with a fresh cry of "hot scent," a noble hunter after nobler game has begun the pursuit anew. The noble hunter, Count Gubernatis, after a long chase *su le orme di Dante*,* dismounts at

* 'A. De Gubernatis: Su le Orme di Dante.' Rome: Tipografia Coöperativa Sociale. 1901.

length in India, satisfied that he has at last tracked the stag back to the starting-point. Remains the question whether he has not overridden the quarry.

Sentimentally, it is a pity to admit failure here, for it is distasteful to see an Italian run down an Italian without need. But Count Gubernatis is an Indologist as well as an Italian, and what glory he detracts from Italy he adds to India. Still, he can but feel troubled in his patriotism, and though he comes triumphantly to the conclusion that Dante's poem reverts to India, and that one must "look for the origin of Lucifer only in India, particularly in Ceylon," he yet softens the blow to national pride: "Dante coglieva come ape il miele da ogni fiore; ma ogni fiore colto da Dante riceveva, nelle sue mani d'artista, un nuovo profumo, indistinto ed ineffabile." Doubtless. So that, even if history, "on the tracks of Dante," shows whence he started, it cannot thereby lessen what he is. For Dante, even granting that he did not make his own threads, and that (to take another of the Count's metaphors) *la prima trama di tutti questi tessuti* is Indian, is none the less the weaver and the Maker of the magic web.

But to grant even this is too much; and with no disparagement to the Hindus or to the Count's ingenuity (rather in praise of his ingenuity), it must be said, not for Dante's sake but for history's sake, that Count Gubernatis's contention will probably satisfy the Sanskritist as little as it will please the poet's admirers. Step by step, the argument is defective. What facts does it rest upon? The earthly paradise, according to Brunetto Latini, Dante's master, is situated in India. Pietro Lombardo speaks of it as "separated from our world" (just as Ceylon is separated from India!). Then Dante knows something about India, speaks of the Ganges, is acquainted with Oriental products, pearls and sapphires,

"Dolce color d'*oriental* zaffiro,"

and may have got the notion of the tree of paradise from the "tree of knowledge," Bodhi-tree, so famous in Ceylon (!), where Christians and Mohammedans find the "footsteps of Adam," as Hindus and Buddhists find the track of Rāma and of Buddha respectively. Then, again, the swamp of the "Purgatorio" bears a resemblance to a Ceylon swamp described by travellers in the East. Further—for what is lacking in Dante may be complemented by what is found in Immanuel Ben Salomo—there is the latter's pass to the Inferno over a bridge,

"ed un ponte mirai mobile e tristo,"

like the Persian bridge of souls and the Nala bridge, which once connected Ceylon with India.

Here it is well to pause and note that even the American Indian had a bridge of souls, and that the same conception is found not only in the Chinvat Bridge of the Persian, but even in Scandinavian and Chinese mythology, so that the Hebrew's bridge is not necessarily derived from India; not to speak of the fact that Dante has no bridge at all. And the other factors of the argument, as recounted above—are they not almost all explicable through Christian tradition and through Pliny, who has much to say in regard to India?

But this is only the beginning. Ceylon is the seat of the war besung in Vālmīki's epic, the 'Rāmāyana,' where is described how men and monkeys battle with fiends on that island. The fiends are those of all Oriental literature, the conflict one between good and bad spirits; and the hells of India's theosophy are the tortures of every-day life in the East. Out of dozens of such hells it is not surprising that some torments should coincide, but there is no special resemblance between the two groups of hells. Nor is there any special pit of hell in the Rāmāyana, as there is in Dante (Inf. ch. iv.), though the "blind depth" or pit is an early Hindu notion. Here, again, however, rises the question whether the Hindu King of Death is a necessary historical prototype of Lucifer. The *somiglianza* may be granted. Hells are much alike wherever found, and the King of Death is always a terror, but the Hindu Death is not a fiend, and the epic fiend par excellence is Rāvana, who is not by any means King of Death. In short, to effect a parallel it is necessary to compare Lucifer first with a Vedic god, the King of Death, and then with an epic fiend whose chief fear is death. Even with this combination, can all classical history be ignored in favor of Oriental legend as a source for Dante's conception? Was Dante quite uninfluenced by gigantomachias and titanomachias, but a copier of Vālmīki? Through what means? Count Gubernatis gravely says that *il dotto padre* Antonelli has calculated Lucifer's height as "over a thousand metres," and Vālmīki's fiends were four hundred cubits high, a coincidence which cannot be explained by reference to classical mythology "without the aid of the Hindu epic." According to Count Gubernatis, then, the idea of an Inferno, with its horrors and its Lucifer, came from India, through Syria and Persia, somewhat transformed by contact with "gnostic, Nestorian, Biblical, Talmudic, Mohammedan, and Christian traditions." To this the sober historian must reply that the Count has furnished no proof of such a derivation, and has not even made it probable in the slightest degree. The hunter, in a word, has overridden his quarry.

Dante was left (implicitly) in Persia, before Count Gubernatis thought to find him in India. Here the parallel is at least close enough to suggest the possibility that the Persian's pilgrimage to Hell and Heaven was indirectly known to the later writer of the 'Divina Commedia.' A Persian writer, Virâf, perhaps as early as the fourth century, certainly not later than the seventh, falls asleep and has a vision of the other world. The best one of three, who were in turn the best of the best seven of all the people, he had been elected by the people and then sanctioned by divination to see the wonders of purgatory, heaven, and hell (in this order). The record is not a poem, but a prose narrative without style or grace. Virâf is guided by God's messenger and the angel of fire. They take him by the hand, as did Dante's guide, and show him a purgatory of heat and cold (the Hindus, by the way, have no purgatory), a graded heaven with good kings in the top heaven, etc., a pit for a hell across a sad river (made by the tears of them that weep for their dead), in which hell a cold wind is blowing; and here are snakes, the eating of human skulls and brains, rending by beasts, suspension upside down, pressing with weights, foul smells, and inclement weather—all similar to punishments in Dante's poem.

Perhaps, as Count Gubernatis says, Dante's friend Immanuel knew of the 'Virâf-Nâmeh'; and Dante himself may have heard of it. Just so much history can affirm, and no more. For the only close parallels (the fact that each guide took each pilgrim by the hand, though emphasized by Gubernatis, is not important) are in the description of torments, as given above. In a few other cases there is a slight resemblance, but not more than would naturally be the result of working out the same conception. When it comes to verbal similarity, the parallelism is strained. Thus, the souls of the saints say to Virâf in Paradise: "How hast thou come from that perishable world of troubles, to this imperishable world free from troubles? Taste immortality; for here you will find eternal pleasure." And St. Bernard says (Par. xxxiii):

"Perchè tu ogni nube gli disleghi
Di sua mortalità co' preghi tuoi
Sì che 'l sommo piacer gli si dispieghi."

This is curious and interesting, but in view of the facts that it is the only verbal similitude between the 'Virâf-Nâmeh' and the 'Divina Commedia,' and that the slightest report of the former would suffice to explain the other parallels between the poems, each one of which, however, from an historical point of view, is perfectly explicable without the other—for the 'Virâf-Nâmeh' is based on Zoroastrian mythology and tradition quite as thoroughly as the 'Commedia' on classical antiquity—it is quite superfluous either to imagine that Dante had a *diretta notizia* of the Oriental work (even Count Gubernatis regards this supposition as *pericoloso* and *temerario*), or (with the Count) "to suppose that he had in his hands a European version, perhaps Hebrew-Latin, of the 'Virâf-Nâmeh,' as he most likely had in his hands more than one variant of the Hindu legend of the Seven Wise Men." Count Gubernatis, it will be observed, does not give up the old parallel for the new (which is his own). He still clings to the Persian origin of the 'Commedia,' but, going back of this, derives from Vālmīki's Rāmāyana the features wanting in Ardâi Virâf's 'Nâmeh.' When Virâf's Vision was first known, it was supposed to be copied from Isaiah's Ascent, till it was shown to be thoroughly national and based on the 'Avesta.' So it will probably be thought, despite the spread of Oriental sagas and fables in Europe in the Middle Ages, that Dante's own genius, added to classical mythology and mediæval tradition, suffices to explain the 'Commedia.' At most (for the Orientalist), Dante may have heard of the conception of Ardâi Virâf. That he knew anything of Vālmīki's work, or much more of India than did Pliny, is most unlikely. In sum, a comparison of the 'Commedia' with the 'Rāmāyana' shows only vague resemblances not indicative of borrowing, while the plan of the 'Virâf-Nâmeh' is close enough to that of the 'Commedia' to merit, as a literary parallel, the attention of Italian scholars, even if there be no historical connection between the two works.

A SWISS OBERAMMERGAU.

BERNE, September 20, 1901.

Selzach is a pleasant little village of some 1,500 inhabitants, situated near the banks of the Aare River on the gentle southern slope of the Jura, a few miles west of Solothurn.

Its inhabitants are chiefly given over to agriculture; but here, as in so many Swiss villages, the factory is gradually forcing itself to the front by the side of the barn and the granary, and the watch-making industry of the town is not inconsiderable. Though the bulk of the population is Catholic, there are a good many Protestants among the factory hands; yet the only church of the village, a structure going back to the fourteenth century, but renovated in the style of the seventeenth, is still dedicated to the old faith. Among the houses there are only a few fine types of the old wooden homestead of the Swiss farmer, with its spacious galleries and wide, overhanging roof; the majority are of stone and not particularly picturesque. Nor is there anything in the appearance of the neat, but ordinary, streets and squares of the village which would lead one to think that the townspeople were following anything but their own peaceful and humble domestic avocations. And yet, among these quiet and unassuming villagers there has been ripening during the last ten years an undertaking which, if brought to its final consummation, will give to Selzach a fame as world-wide as that now enjoyed by Oberammergau or Bayreuth.

It was in 1890 that the owner of the principal watch factory of the town, Mr. Adolf Schläfli, visited the Oberammergau Passion play, and, carried away by the impressions received there, conceived the idea of attempting a similar thing in his native town. As is the way with most enterprises before they have succeeded, the idea was at first ridiculed, scorned, ignored; but gradually Mr. Schläfli's unflagging enthusiasm and spirit of self-sacrifice, and the executive and artistic ability of his chief supporter, the head-master of the village school, who is also church organist and musical director of the local singing society, overcame all doubts and difficulties; and only three years after the plan of a Selzach Passion play had first been suggested, it could be carried out with a remarkable degree of popular interest and zeal, almost one-fifth of the whole population being in one way or another connected with its representation, and, what is particularly noteworthy, Protestants as well as Catholics taking an active part in it. Since then, the play has been repeated during the summers of 1896, 1898, and 1901, with constantly increasing success and with a constant raising of its artistic standard. At present it has become so elaborate an affair and has come to require so extensive preparations that, from now on, it will be given only at intervals of five years.

This is, in brief, the history of the religious spectacle which induced me, a few Sundays ago, to undertake a pilgrimage to the pretty little village on the slope of the Jura. We arrived in time to attend the morning service, which assembled a large crowd of worshippers at an early hour in the handsome village church. Probably a good many of the Passion players were among the audience; for, as we noticed later, even waitresses and domestic servants belonged to the performers. I was somewhat surprised, therefore, that the priest made no allusion whatever in his sermon to the coming event of the day. Evidently a play, even though it be a sacred play, was considered by him outside the holy of holies; perhaps all the more so since Protestants also had been admitted to participate in its production. There was time, before the beginning of the performance, to take a stroll over the surrounding hills, which afford a charming view of the wide, fertile Aare valley, with its wooded slopes and brightly shining hamlets scattered here and there. There was even time to sit for an hour or so in the garden of the Tavern of the Cross, take a glass of wine and chat with some of the villagers who, like ourselves, had taken this mode of preparing themselves for the spectacle to come. Here we learned that two militia men in uniform sitting at a table not far from us, a sergeant and a corporal, were the impersonators, the one of Christ, the other of Pilate; that both were by profession watchmakers, and that they were at present called into service for the autumn manœuvres. We also learned that the Virgin was likewise acted by a watchmaker, a widow whose husband had recently been killed in an accident; and that the innkeeper's baby, a charming little infant which we saw in its mother's arms, was on that selfsame morning to reappear as the Christ-child in the Nativity scene.

Towards eleven o'clock, the sound of trumpets from the various squares of the village announced the beginning of the performance, and, together with the crowd which meanwhile had been brought together by carriage and train from near and far, and which now was filling the little town with unwonted life, we made our way towards the Passionsspielhaus, an oblong wooden structure of barnlike appearance with a seating capacity for some twelve hundred persons, and a covered stage of some fifty feet depth attached to it at right angles. While the audience were taking their seats, the orchestra, which, in Bayreuth fashion, was hidden from view, played a few introductory strains from Haydn's "Chaos," preparing our minds for the opening scene of the spectacle, the Creation.

I must confess that the first part of the production, from the Creation to Christ's entry into Jerusalem, was in some respects a sore disappointment to me. I had hoped, if not for the popular gayety and broad impressiveness of the Alsfeld or Frankfort or other religious dramas of the fifteenth century, at least for something like the simple and serious dramatic effect of the Oberammergau play. But what was offered us here was neither popular nor dramatic; it was nothing but a series of living pictures, chiefly from the Old Testament, loosely held together by the loquacious and obtrusively didactic narrative of an all too officious Prologus, and accompanied by arias, recitatives, choruses, and orchestral as well as organ selections of a decidedly dilettantish order. In other words, it was a rather mediocre oratorio, interspersed with more or less objectionable declamations and more or less meritorious tableaux. By no stretch of imagination could it be called a play.

There was, however, even in this first part, one element of distinction: the living pictures. I have called them more or less meritorious; it would be more correct to say that, while nearly all of them were impressive, a few were of surpassing excellence. Remarkable in the grouping of the masses, in color effect, and in treatment of the landscape, were such scenes as the "Gathering of the Manna" or the "Sermon on the Mount," both breathing the spirit of the desert, both bringing before us solemn and varied types of man's yearning for a higher existence. Full of idyllic charm and clearly suggestive of a Memlinc or Perugino were such scenes as the "Adoration of the Shepherds" and the "Flight to Egypt," the Virgin particularly being the perfection of grace, delicacy of feeling, and dreamy pensiveness. And truly sublime was the "Annunciation," a scene which, moreover, had the merit of surprising originality of conception; for, instead of turning toward the heavenly messenger and responding to his greeting, the Virgin was here represented as breaking down in speechless awe, and, with covered face, committing herself to the divine mystery.

Even from this introductory part, then (and, by the way, it occupied nearly two hours), it was clear where the peculiar aim and merit of the Selzach Passion play were to be sought. Evidently, here there was nothing resembling the exuberant, turbulent life of the religious drama of the Middle Ages. Nor was there any approach toward the naïve, homely realism of the sturdy Bavarian highlanders. What we saw here was a conscious attempt to produce clearly defined artistic effects of the highest order. Considering that this attempt was made by people who, by profession, were either farmers or artisans or factory hands, could we wonder that it was only partially successful? Was not the wonder rather that such people could produce such results?

It was with feelings of this sort that we returned in the afternoon to see the second part of the performance, the Passion proper; and here our partial admiration was changed to unconditional surrender. What gives to this portion of the Selzach spectacle its unique æsthetic charm is the truly wonderful blending of a genuinely dramatic element with the living picture and the choral and instrumental accompaniment; a blending which, in its way, realizes Wagner's ideal of the combination of all arts in one common endeavor. The dramatic scenes are such as lend themselves naturally to a lively realistic treatment—above all, the machinations of the high priests against Christ, and the various scenes before Pilate. The living picture is reserved for moments of the highest religious or emotional import, such as Christ's leave-taking of his mother, the Last Supper, the Betrayal, the Crucifixion, the Resurrection. And chorus and orchestra serve to connect the action and the tableau and to give to the latter especially its proper setting. In this way a whole is produced remarkable both for its compactness and its variety; and I, for my part, am free to confess that few dramatic productions have ever afforded me as pure a joy and as deep a satisfaction as this part of the Selzach Passion play.

The opening scene, the Council of the Jews, is a decidedly clever bit of dramatic composition, which was acted with a great deal of skill and animation. The Sanhedrim is assembled in state; one member after another rises to denounce the demagogue, the rebel, the blasphemer, who is desecrating the Temple and disturbing the public peace. That the welfare of Church and State demands his being put out of the way, there is unanimity of opinion; the only question is how to lay hands on him without irritating the populace, which has been led astray by his seditious harangues and miraculous healings. Most opportunely there appears at this juncture a deputation of the money-changers whom Christ has expelled from

the Temple, to insist on their legal right to carry on their business unmolested, and to prefer charges against the wilful reformer. The high priest assures them of the righteousness of their cause, incites them still farther against the disturber of their trade, and finally commits him to their revenge. With a universal cry of passion and rage from priests and people the scene comes to a close.

Beautiful is the contrast between this turbulent, tumultuous action and the two following tableaux: Christ's leave-taking of his mother at Bethany, and the Last Supper, both accompanied by most impressive choruses and solos, the latter (strangely enough) in part by the melody of Luther's 'Ein feste Burg ist unser Gott.' The unsectarian spirit of the whole performance could not have been more clearly demonstrated than by the fact that Luther's religious battle-hymn should have been sung here by Catholics and Protestants as an accompaniment to the most solemn scene of Christ's life. To describe these two tableaux is impossible. They were simply perfect—in the leave-taking at Bethany, an inner harmony and calm, in spite of the bitterest agony, which were beyond words; in the Last Supper, every one of the disciples a complete character, every one reflecting in his own way the feelings common to them all, while Christ seemed entirely raised above them, and yet to impart something of his divine countenance to each of them.

A powerful Miserere, consisting of chorus and solo, gave to this series of scenes a most impressive ending, bringing out the grief of God over his perverted, reprobate people, and the contrition of mankind over its lost grace.

My people, what have I done to thee or wherein have I grieved thee? Answer me!

Holy God! Immortal Saviour! Eternal God, have mercy on us! Holy, all-powerful God, have mercy on us!

I have led thee out of Egypt and have sunk Pharaoh in the Red Sea, and thou hast surrendered me to the high priests and hast thrown me in chains and fetters.

Holy God! Immortal Saviour! Eternal God, have mercy on us! Holy, all-powerful God, have mercy on us!

I have fed thee with manna and given thee to drink in the desert, and thou hast beaten my cheeks and hast lashed my body with scourges.

Holy God! Immortal Saviour! Eternal God, have mercy on us! Holy, all-powerful God, have mercy on us!

It would lead me too far to enter into the further development of the action. I must content myself with saying that, from here on to the end, the principle of composition—that is, the constant change between animated dramatic scenes, full of swift and racy dialogue, and tableaux of wonderful calm and beauty—remains the same, and that at last the Ascension dismisses us with the feeling of having witnessed with our own eyes, and of having lived through in our own hearts the eternal struggle of mankind with sin and corruption, and the final triumph of love and light.

As I said before, the Selzach play, as a whole, is by no means free from very serious defects. The text needs a thorough revision so as to be purged of many platitudes and crudities. The portion referring to the Old Testament should be shortened. The rôle of the Prologus should be curtailed, and as soon as possible be placed in more skilful hands. And, above all, the musical part of the performance should receive stricter and more effective drill and thereby be made less dilettantish and incoherent. In other words, the technique of the performance should in every way be raised to the level of the professional stage. If this be done, then the noble and pure spirit of the spectacle will shine forth with unimpeded and spotless lustre, and five years from now Selzach will give us a Passion play more artistic in its composition and more truly human in its spirit than any religious drama of our time.

The sun was setting behind the ridges of the Jura when we left the little village which, in the brief course of a day, had given us so much. Before us, toward south and east, there stretched the wide plateau of the Swiss Midland with its wooded hills, its green meadows, stately farmhouses, and gay, flourishing towns. And above it all, on the horizon, there stood in cloudless grandeur, towering against the evening sky, the whole range of the Bernese snow mountains, from the Wetterhorn to Jungfrau and Blümlisalp. The train was crowded with shouting and singing soldiers, returning from a day's furlough to their regiments in camp. They were of both French and German extraction, and in the most fraternal spirit sang alternatingly or even in unison of the "heiliges Vaterland" and the "chère patrie," of the "schwarzbrauns Liebchen" and the "jolie bien-aimée." They, too, as well as the noble religious spectacle from which I was returning, were a living proof of the essential soundness, vigor, and joyfulness of Swiss democracy.

KUNO FRANCKE.

Notes.

'Practical Life-work of Henry Drummond,' with a preface by Hamilton W. Mabie, is in the press of James Pott & Co., along with Saint-Simon's Memoirs, translated by Bayle St. John, in four volumes, and Miss Pardoe's 'Court and Reign of Francis I.,' in three volumes.

A Life of the late Dr. John Hall of this city, by his son, Prof. Thomas C. Hall, will be published by Fleming H. Revell Company.

'The Personality of Thoreau,' by Frank B. Sanborn, is to be most attractively brought out by Charles E. Goodspeed, No. 5A Park Street, Boston, with the aid of the Merrymount Press, in a limited edition.

Additional announcements by Messrs. Scribner are 'Unknown Mexico,' by Carl Lumholtz; 'The Literary Diary of Ezra Stiles, D.D., LL.D., President of Yale College,' edited by Franklin B. Dexter, M.A.; and 'A Hermit of Carmel, and Other Poems,' by George Santayana.

Prof. Franklin H. Giddings's 'Inductive Sociology' will be published directly by Macmillan Co.

The choice of Professor Woodberry for editor of the one-volume Cambridge Edition of 'The Complete Poetical Works of Percy Bysshe Shelley' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) was inevitable. As naturally, he has made use of his labors on the 1892 Century Edition, placing his memoir here at the front as a biographical sketch. He has been well advised by the general editor as to omissions in Shelley's notes, and he accepts the challenge of his epithet "Complete" in the title by declining to insert the well-lost and ill-recovered 'Original Poetry of Victor and Cazire' (1898). In sum, this volume worthily extends an excellent series.

We have too recently discussed the character of Cromwell, in connection with Dr. Samuel R. Gardiner's 'History of the Commonwealth,' to make it needful to pass under review his compact direct biographical sketch, 'Oliver Cromwell' (Longmans). This work has already appeared in a more sumptuous edition in the Messrs. Goupil's "Illustrated Series of Historical Volumes." It would have been some equivalent for the illustrations (of which only Cooper's portrait is retained) if an index had been provided. The volume, of 319 pages, is convenient for the hand.

Mr. A. W. Pollard's bibliographical introduction to Carlyle's 'Sartor Resartus and Heroes and Hero-Worship,' in Macmillan's taking "Library of English Classics," relates the fortunes of the former work, and shows how a public that was used to ask, "Who reads an American book?" was led to read an English book by its merit being first discerned and honored with publication on this side of the water. The text reproduced is that of 1858.

From John Lane we have a pretty volume of 'Shakspere's Songs' for which the excuse is eleven full-page drawings by Henry Ospovat. These are essentially decorative and will be valued as such, though not remarkable as interpretation.

'The Land of the Amazons,' by the Baron de Santa-Anna Nery, previously reviewed in these columns, comes to us in English dress bearing the imprint of E. P. Dutton & Co., having been translated from the French by George Humphrey. No additions have been made to the text, and the illustrations are the same as those which appeared in the original edition. While containing very little that is new, the work is the most notable contribution to the literature of the Amazon published in recent years, and will be welcomed by English readers interested in the future of this great valley.

The republication, under the heading 'Poverty and Un-British Rule in India' (Swan Sonnenschein & Co.), of old state papers and of addresses made during the last thirty years by Mr. Dadabhai (Naoroji) does not make a new book, though it puts old material together in a convenient form. Like some other reformers, Mr. Dadabhai believes that many "mischievous results" due to the demonetization of silver may be corrected by opening the mints "to the unrestricted coining of silver." This would have pleased that ardent English Anglophobe, Mr. Hyndman, who twenty years ago announced that the demonetization of gold over the whole earth would cure India's ills. "Un-British Rule," according to Mr. Dadabhai, is rule without representation. If Hindus were represented, they would reduce the taxes. There is, naturally, much discontent among educated Hindus at being kept out of all higher offices, but there is, in Mr. Dadabhai's opinion, no desire to get rid of the British oppressor, because "thinking Hindus" know that India's political and material advancement "depends upon a long continuance of the British rule."

The addresses delivered at Boston and Cambridge on February 4, 1901, in commemoration of the one-hundredth anni-

versary of the appointment of John Marshall as Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, have been edited by Mr. Marquis F. Dickinson of the Boston bar, and are published by Little, Brown & Co. A photogravure from the portrait painted by Henry Inman, in 1831, makes an appropriate frontispiece for this handsome volume. The crayon drawing made in 1808 by Saint-Mémin is also reproduced, and photographs of the gentlemen who delivered the addresses are superadded.

Prof. Arlo Bates has just printed a second volume of 'Talks on Writing English' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). His chief concern in the present series is for the niceties of rhetoric. There are some excellent remarks upon particles, participles and gerunds, figures, principles of euphony, and other details of composition, which, if not attended to, may prove pestiferous "little foxes" to spoil the vines of good writing. The work as a whole is decidedly healthy. It should be usefully suggestive to any person interested in writing, whether as art or trade.

Mr. William Harvey Miner has made a "contribution toward a bibliography of writings concerning Daniel Boone," which the Dibdin Club of this city has printed in a very limited edition ('Daniel Boone,' M. L. Greenhalgh, No. 1135 Madison Avenue). The introductory note is a valuable conspectus of the sources of information about Boone, who is still sadly in need, according to Mr. Miner, of a thoroughgoing biographer. He inclines to the latest view that Boone was a native of Berks County, Pa. The thin volume is altogether choice in its manufacture.

In connection with the bicentennial anniversary of Yale University, a series of volumes has been prepared by a number of the professors and instructors, to serve as a partial indication of the character of the studies in which the University teachers are engaged. In the volume of 'Contributions to Mineralogy and Petrography' (Scribners) are gathered a series of reprints, fifty in all, embodying the results of the researches in these lines. In point of time the papers cover the last fifty years. In subject-matter they deal chiefly with the descriptions and chemical composition of new minerals, only seven of them being petrographical in character. The mineralogical portion has been written or edited by Prof. S. L. Penfield, and the petrographical by Prof. L. V. Pirsson. It is not possible here to review these papers or even to mention the titles of all, but the following indicate their scope: "On American Spodumene," "The Chemical Composition of Iolite," "On the Chemical Composition and Related Physical Properties of Topaz," "Petrography of the Rocks of Yogo Peak," "Andesites of the Aroostook Volcanic Area of Maine." In addition to the technical papers, there are two treating respectively of the history of the mineralogical and of the petrographical departments at Yale. These papers, gathered from various scattered sources and put into permanent form, will prove a useful addition to the literature of the closely allied sciences involved. The volume is dedicated to the graduates of the University.

A bibliography of the principal geographical publications of 1900, both separate works and articles on geography and its allied sciences in the leading periodicals, the proceedings of societies, and Government publications, forms the September number of the *Annales de Géographie*. Its 908 entries are carefully analyzed and annotated by the editor, M. Louis Raveneau, aided by fifty-five eminent geographers of various nationalities. An examination of the different subjects shows that the number of titles relating to the United States—sixty—is greater than that for any other country, Spain bringing up the rear with three. An index contains about two thousand names of authors and travellers whose works are analyzed or referred to. Among the eccentricities of geographical spelling we note the use of the obsolete Ktaadn for the name of Maine's highest mountain.

The Vienna papers report that the pious desire of archæologists, who for years have been pleading for a museum in which to deposit the rich finds of Roman antiquities made in that city and the surrounding country, is now being gratified. The City Council took the matter in hand and appointed a special committee, which has now, at least provisionally, established a Museum Vindobonense, in a school building on the Rainerstrasse, where a good-sized room is already filled with bronzes, terracottas, and iron utensils, while the second room is a "lapidarium," containing, among other things, a sepulchral monument of the first Christian century, the oldest historical find made in the city of Vienna. The establishment of the museum has given a new impetus to research in this line, as is evidenced by numerous additions recently made. The museum is to be opened to the public during the present month.

The University of Giessen has made a contract with the Nordstern Insurance Company of Berlin, by which all of the students of that institution become beneficiaries of an accident insurance. Only those more liable to accidents, in the departments of chemistry, medicine, physical sciences, and pharmacy, are required to pay special fees for this, as the premiums for the others are paid out of the sick and hospital funds of the University. The measure covers ordinary risks, including riding, turning, or sword exercises, conducted by the official masters appointed by the institution.

—The *Atlantic* for October brings its articles on Reconstruction to a close in "The Undoing of Reconstruction," by William A. Dunning, and an anonymous editorial review of the whole subject called "Reconstruction and Disfranchisement." These are by far the best of the series. Our objection to much of what went before was that the writers seemed so often to insist with solemnity upon what no one denied. But here the history of reconstruction is summed up and presented to the mind in a few strong touches. The negroes were enfranchised, *i. e.*, put in control of the governments of the Southern States, a generation ago, in order to secure "the results of the war," among others, their own freedom. Their white fellow-citizens have now in thirty years taken away the franchise from them; yet there is a general acquiescence in the final result, and the best friends of the negroes see nothing to be done but to educate and improve their race until it is more near the level of the whites. No doubt, as is here pointed out, in any broad view of our period the peculiar consequences of Reconstruction are likely to be looked upon as part of the general reaction against Democracy. People who hate Democracy, however, do not discriminate as nicely as they might between the principle of popular government and the principle of universal suffrage. Fifty years ago, one might be a sincere believer in democratic principles and yet an ardent adherent of a property qualification. It is obvious, not merely as a matter of practice, but as a matter of logical necessity, that universal suffrage will work only in a community which is fit for it. We may add that those who argue, as many in the South evidently do, that because negro suffrage is being blotted out, therefore it is a good plan to spend $500,000,000 to subjugate the "niggers" of the Philippines, are guilty of a non-sequitur, as they will find out by and by. The *Atlantic* demands that the South *apply to both races equally* whatever qualifications for the exercise of the franchise, or for holding office, each State may see fit to impose. If this were done, negroes of intelligence and property might yet regain the right to vote. It is a perfectly safe thing to demand. During 1902 the magazine will go on with the subject, and publish articles written by Southerners, by negroes, and by "impartial students of American social conditions."

—The article in *Scribner's* which will, perhaps, attract the widest attention is Mr. Roosevelt's first instalment of "With the Cougar Hounds." The author is probably the first President of the United States to be at once a sportsman and a writer on sport. By the way, it is rather odd to find one who has been a pretty steady writer for twenty years speaking of "the book people" as a class apart. He points out that the popular nomenclature of wild animals often differs widely, not only in this country, but in others, from the scientific, and adds that in most cases "it is mere pedantry to try to upset popular custom in such matters." At the same time, he thinks it desirable to call the particular animal now in question "cougar." It is also known as "painter" (*e. g.*, panther), mountain lion, Mexican lion, and among Spanish-American people simply lion or puma. A second instalment of Gen. F. V. Greene's account of the Army brings us down to 1857, thus covering the period of the Mexican and the Seminole wars. It seems that Calhoun was the first American statesman, after Washington, to insist upon the futility of expecting a militia to answer the purpose of a regular army. "It was during his administration as Secretary of War that our true military policy was adopted of a small, but highly trained and efficient, regular army in time of peace, supplemented by a large army of volunteers in time of war." Yet, curiously enough, the three generals who gained the greatest distinction in the war of 1812 were Brown, Harrison, and Jackson. Of these, Brown, a farmer, elected militia brigadier-general, and without any military experience, served with a distinction which made Sackett's Harbor, Chippewa, Lundy's Lane, and Fort Erie names famous in American history; Harrison, another militia general, recovered and held everything in the Northwest that had been lost at the beginning of the war; while Jackson, the hero of the war, was certainly not an educated soldier, and Gen. Greene himself says that discipline (which to the educated man of war is everything) meant to Jackson nothing more than "the enforce-

ment of his own will against those above him as well as those under him." The enemy he overcame were "the best regular troops in Europe, who had defeated the plans of Napoleon in Spain." The question is an old one, and will probably not be settled in our time. It is usually discussed too abstractly, as if it were possible to arrive at a theoretically best military system, without any regard to the circumstances of the country considered. Probably when the United States was a country of frontiersmen, the old militia system worked well, while as frontier life and Indian fighting declined, something more professional became needed. "La race, le moment, le milieu" applies to military as to literary questions. But it is preposterous to argue that a standing army in this country cannot be a menace to liberty. Militarism is the standing menace of every free government.

—The *Century* contains an illustrated article on "The Practice of the Law in New York," by Henry E. Howland, with reproductions of portraits by John Sargent. The full lengths of Messrs. Choate and Carter are interesting. So is an odd "chance portrait" of Mr. C. F. Southmayd, a lawyer of as high standing at the bar as the other two, though (not being noted as an advocate) not so well known to the public. Mr. Howland thinks, and very likely he is right, that there are as good lawyers among us now as there were formerly. But they do not go on to the bench, and, strange as it may seem, there is no court now in New York that can compare with the bench of the Superior Court in 1855, when J. S. Bosworth, John Duer, and Murray Hoffman sat upon it. But the article is mainly descriptive. So is John Mead Howells's "A French Government School from the Inside." In this Mr. Howells gives a very good idea of the atelier world, with its *anciens*, its *nouveaux*, and its *patrons*. The hazing and "fagging" seem to be very like hazing and fagging elsewhere, except that in schools and colleges *nouveaux* are boys, while in a Paris atelier the unfortunate novice may be a bearded man, in middle life. The manners of the atelier towards the newcomer are very much those of the Stock Exchange to a new member, but the humor of France is different from that of New York. One curious trait Mr. Howells notices, which he declares to be national, though we should imagine it rather a professional affectation —the proper "pose" is not to *seem* hard at work at any time even when you really are. Above all, avoid the appearance of seriousness, no matter how serious, selfish, ambitious, and eager you may be. "Do not so infringe on the next man with your importance or the importance of what you are doing." This is the very opposite of the gospel of "intensity" which was the Anglo-Saxon æsthetic affectation as caricatured twenty years ago. "A Grave Crisis in American History," by Milton Harlow Northrup (who was Secretary at the time of the Special Committee of the House of Representatives), gives the inner history of the origin and formation of the Electoral Commission of 1877. The notes of the committee meetings bring out the character of the principal actors in those scenes in an entertaining way. Mr. Edmunds, for instance, we find describing Judge Davis as "one of those Independents who stand always ready to accept Democratic nominations." We find Mr. Conkling, in a fine burst, declaring something or other—we do not quite make out what—to be "the *pediment* on which we rest." "Kick that from under," he goes on, "and we are gone."

—The leading illustrated article in *Harper's* for October is a sketch of tramp life, by William Sharp, called "The Hotel of the Beautiful Star." Tramp literature, of which the magazines have had for a long time a plentiful supply, is generally of a futile sort, and this paper is no exception. The art of giving us really attractive vagabonds and criminals seems to have gone out with Dickens. The tramp of our period is not at all "convincing." Mr. Sharp introduces us to one (he vouches for the truth of the story) who, a month after his discovery, is making from five to ten pounds a week by drawings and literary productions; six months later he has a picture at the Salon. According to the opinion of a police inspector here quoted, there are in London from May till September from fifteen to twenty thousand people without any "last or usual place of abode"; the average falling with the weather to a thousand, more or less, in January. "The New Psychology," illustrated from photographs, is by G. Stanley Hall, President and Professor of Psychology in Clark University. The photographs are pictures of the curious machines that make up the modern psychologist's "laboratory." Mr. Hall's description of this science will, we fear, seem to the laity (to say nothing of the clergy) rather materialistic. He declares, indeed, that this branch of knowledge "experiments on the soul," and "has made former knowledge of it definite, and added vastly to it"; but when we come to particulars, we find that laboratory work consists in such business as measuring with accuracy "the time required for a sensation to move from a finger up the arm to the brain, the time to transform it into a motor impulse, and the rate of the latter down the arm." We come a little nearer the soul when we learn the use of an instrument by which reactions in thought may be detected. The demonstrator says, for instance, "dog," with a lip key, upon which the attendant utters to another lip key the invariably suggested word "cat." So "boy" suggests "girl"; and "glass" ought to suggest "window," though on one occasion, to the surprise of the Professor, the word suggested to the attendant was "beer." Dr. W. E. Flinders-Petrie, the Egyptologist, contributes a valuable article, illustrated from photographs, giving an account of recent discoveries in the Royal Tombs of Abydos, and Henry James has a characteristic story called "The Beldonald Holbein."

—The recent discoveries in Crete are yielding immediate fruit in such essays as that which Mr. Evans has lately reproduced from the *Journal of Hellenic Studies*, in a convenient volume of 106 pages, entitled 'The Mycenæan Tree and Pillar Cult' (Macmillan Company). This monograph is illustrated by enlarged drawings, mostly from Mycenæan gems, which, with Mr. Evans's commentary, shed the most interesting light on the primitive religious ideas and ritual of the peoples bordering on the shores of the Mediterranean. These gems represent the worship of sacred trees, of bætylic stones, of the "pillars of the house" and "the horns of consecration." They furnish a commentary on the pillar, or bethel, which Jacob set up; as also upon "the horns of the altar," the terebinth tree of Mamre, and the burning bush of Moses; and they exhibit the immediate ancestry of many survivals of tree and pillar cult on classic Greek soil. They explain also the heraldic form of the Lion's Gate at Mycenæ, and certain symbolic peculiarities in architecture. The Romans seem to be indebted to the same source for their cult of the Ficus Ruminalis; their *ancilia* present the Mycenæan form of shield, and their legend of the war-god's twins suckled by the she-wolf is paralleled by the attitude of an infant and horned sheep on a seal found in the Palace of Knossos. On the whole, the illustrations show the constant intercourse, the action and reaction, both east and west, that went on around the basin of the Mediterranean, from Babylonia and Egypt as far as Sardinia and Spain. They reveal also an indigenous civilization, subject to all these influences, but reacting on them in its turn, as original and distinct as the extraordinary wasp-like figures of deities and worshippers which characterize the gems and paintings.

—The late John Fiske's 'Life Everlasting' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) acquires a pathetic interest from the writer's death before its publication, though it was delivered at Harvard University as a lecture on the Ingersoll Foundation in January last. As James Mill's belief in God was shaken by Butler's 'Analogy,' it seems not impossible that some who go to this little book with a stout faith in immortality will come away from it with that faith perceptibly decreased. Frail, indeed, its confidence compared with that large utterance of the theologians which is the popular staple of belief. For the most part the book is an examination of certain objections to immortality from the standpoint of science. Those who can recall Mr. Fiske's early manner of dealing with the dogmatists, will be interested to observe how much of their tone, when dealing with materialists and the ultra-scientific, he had assimilated at the close of his career. We have first a vigorous appeal from the attempt to discredit the doctrine of immortality by a consideration of the character of early animism. The next step is to inquire whether the primitive belief in immortality was a permanent acquisition or something analogous to the appendix vermiformis and other rudimentary organs. In this connection Mr. Fiske passes quite too trippingly over the deductions from a universal belief in immortality that must be made on account of Buddhist and Hebrew recessions from it. The unsettling of the primitive edifice of faith by scientific thought is next considered. At this point we have too much of the personal equation in the assignment to Herbert Spencer's 'First Principles' of a character as representative of our time as Aquinas's 'Summa' of the Middle Age. The apparent physical origin of thought is resolved into concomitance of the physical and mental by arguments which are familiar in their general drift. In conclusion, there is some endeavor to allay the anxiety of those who fear that the Indian's faithful dog will bear him company. A direct argument for immortality is not attempted; only the removal of objections that leave the ground clear for considerations of philosophical analogy and moral probability.

—Some years ago, Dr. Tjitze de Boer pub-

lished a study of al-Ghazzali's 'Destruction of the Philosophers,' which spoke highly for his knowledge of Arabic and his philosophic ability. A 'Geschichte der Philosophie im Islam' by him has now appeared (Stuttgart: Fr. Frommann). It forms the first attempt in this field since Munk's brilliant 'Mélanges' appeared in 1859, and, while it does not enter into such detail nor display such wide reading as De Vaux's recent 'Avicenne,' it covers with fair adequacy the whole development, from its beginnings until the system of Averroës passed over into mediæval Europe. In so small a book it was, of course, impossible to do full justice to all the aspects of a most complicated movement. It is, therefore, only a sketch which we have here, but still a most graphic and illuminating sketch. On the strictly philosophical side, Dr. de Boer is perfectly at home. He has breadth enough, too, to be able to sympathize with the frequent amateurisms and eccentricities of the Arabic thinkers. Perhaps he is weakest on the side of scholastic theology and mysticism. He has not remembered sufficiently that all the Arabic philosophers were more or less scholastics and mystics. It is, of course, hard for the modern student to have patience with such things, but it is through them only that the secret of the Muslim civilization can be read. Ritter's dictum that it is in the schools of the Muslim dogmaticians that the true Arabic philosophy is to be sought, is the last word on the matter. It is to be hoped that Dr. de Boer will in time give us a history of Arabic philosophy in the grand style, and will in it take account more fully of these influences and issues. There can be no question of his ability to do it.

THE AMERICAN BIBLE.

The Holy Bible. Containing the Old and New Testaments Translated out of the Original Tongues. Being the Version set forth A. D. 1611, Compared with the most Ancient Authorities and Revised A. D. 1881-1885. Newly edited by the American Revision Committee, A. D. 1901. Standard Edition. New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons. Pp. xvi+970+xviii+296. 12 maps.

It was inevitable that, sooner or later, something of this kind should come. Even if the Germans are hardly justified in speaking of "the American language," any more than the Bowery tough when he talks "United States," yet, beyond doubt, very many words and phrases have come to be intelligible on one or the other side only of the Atlantic, and still more have become obscure and seemingly affected. The writing of an American scholar too often grates unpleasantly on an English ear, and the style of an educated Englishman too frequently strikes many here as stiff and archaic. Added to this, there exists in the masses of America little or none of that reverence for the past and its associations that is so powerful an element in the English mind. The American is prepared to make changes in a heritage of the ages on shorter notice and for less cogent reasons than the Englishman will ever suffer. To the one, the cadence of a verse that has been in his ear since infancy is sacred beyond the conception of the other; and that subjective sacredness holds him to lost critical positions in a way that, to the other, suggests moral obliquity or mental decay. The truth is, that his brain moves more slowly—it may be more steadily—and allows more weight to what, for it, are æsthetic considerations.

All this was made perfectly clear during the work of the original Revisers and on the publication of the original Revised Version. That appeared in the same form for both peoples, but there was added to it an appendix of American preferences which had been rejected by the British Revisers, who, by right of priority, were accorded the last word. This appendix showed both the types of changes spoken of above—changes to produce a different sense, and changes to more modern diction. It was published by agreement, the American Committee on their side undertaking not to give its sanction for fourteen years to the issue of any edition competing with those of the English University Presses. That limit has now expired, and it has become possible for the present, a specifically American, revision to appear.

But in it much more has been done than simply to incorporate in the text the appendix of American preferences. The attempt had been made in that appendix to reduce the points of difference to a minimum, in the hope that, eventually, that minimum might be accepted in England; the appendix had also to be constructed under conditions of great haste. But the hope of ultimate unity through this compromise has proved fallacious. Very many or most of the readings of the appendix have approved themselves even in England, but the University Presses have not seen their way to any further changes. Nor does it seem probable that such will come. Confessedly, the Revised Version has not been a popular success, and King James's still more than holds its own. The drift now is towards private translations to be used as commentaries on the classical English version. There is a tendency to give that version a hieratic place for ecclesiastical use, in a sense like the Latin Vulgate in the Church of Rome, and to regard as hopeless the attempt at one version which will suffice at once for devotional and critical purposes.

But there is more faith in America, and so we have this renewed adventure. Dubious as we are of its success, we welcome its appearance in the field. One thing it undoubtedly will accomplish: it will be another blow to the implicit trust with which so many, even ministers of religion and students of theology, take their English Bibles, deifying what is not even an original text, but only a most ordinary translation. Those set by the Church to teach will be forced to consider for themselves what are the words which they will put before their people as divine; and perhaps in time even the students in theological seminaries may perceive that, before they dare to use a text, they must have some thread of connection with it in its original form. Before 1881 such used with calmness and great peace of mind the Authorized Version. Thereafter, the more adventurous turned to the Revision, and were equally slavish in their use of it. Now there are two Richards in the field, and it will be of interest to see what searchings of heart will arise. More than this, and this is much, will hardly be accomplished.

It remains, however, to estimate what degree of care, scholarship, and discretion have been applied to the preparation of this recension. That the patient labor expended on it has been great is manifest. That it has been directed by good sense, a fine feeling for English, and thoroughness in scholarship is not so clear. Naturally, it is necessary to make distinctions, and a broad line of cleavage seems to divide the New Testament generally from the Old. That is manifest even in the respective prefaces. That to the New Testament is a model of unimpeachable English, devout and reverent in its tone, conservative and cautious in its attitude. As to the text which follows it, such unsightly eccentricities as the semicolon and dash in the title to the Gospel according to Matthew should have been avoided, even if it had called for the expenditure of a special title-page for the Gospels. Similarly, "Wise-men" (so hyphenized), in the second chapter of Matthew, as a rendering for *Magi*, can hardly hope to live. The translation of the equivalent Hebrew—equivalent at least according to the marginal reference—is printed, Esther i., 13, Dan. ii., 12, as two words, and without capitals. But of such freaks there are few, and the English Revised Version is substantially reproduced.

The case is different when we come to the Old Testament. That the Revised Version of it needed further revision is certain. Whatever may have been the reason, the English Revisers left it in very sorry case, as compared with the New. Their New Testament is a fair equivalent for the Westcott and Hort Greek text; their Old Testament corresponds to nothing in earth or heaven, not even the Inerrant Original of apologetic hypothesis. It was a compromise and a flat failure. The marvel is that so much poor Hebrew and timid criticism should have come from the Committee in the Jerusalem Chamber. It was, then, open to the American Committee to take up their spoiled work and do it afresh.

Again the preface is significant of the event. Both the tone of mind which it represents, and the English in which it is cast, are different from those exhibited in the preface to the New Testament. The English may well raise a doubt as to the stylistic competence of its writer or writers. Nor is the doubt laid when we turn to the text itself. Here are "only a few of the many instances of phraseology which there is the best reason for emending" (p. iv. of preface). In Exodus xxx., 38, the English Version (the subject is the holy incense) read, "Whosoever shall make like unto that, to smell thereto, he shall be cut off from his people." This is surely plain enough, although "thereat" instead of "thereto" might be more modern. The new recension changes to "thereof," and raises the possibility that the unhappy one in question will use the incense to make himself odorous withal. "To smell of" in the sense "to snatch at a whiff of odor from" is common in "the American language," but unknown in wider English. Similarly, the new recension shies at the wording of I. Kings, xxii., 5, "Inquire at the word of the Lord," and substitutes, "Inquire for." Yet "at" in this case, if archaic, is also more exact. "For" introduces an intermediary to be asked, and all that Jehoshaphat really said was, "Seek the word of Yahwé." Again, it is the merest wantonness of logical grammar to change Proverbs xxvii., 3, "But a fool's vexation is

heavier than them both" to "than they both." Finally, for this time, Numbers v., 30, "and he be jealous over his wife," has stirred mighty doubts, and "over" is changed to "of." "Over," it may admitted, is archaic for "with regard to" or "about," but "of" is simple nonsense. The man is jealous "of" some other man, not of his wife.

Such are four out of the five examples in the preface, paragraph 5, page vi., "of the many instances of phraseology, etc." Yet we must add two further examples of such changes for the light which they cast on the methods and attitude of our revisers. For one thing, we learn that we must no longer speak of "spoiling the Egyptians." To spoil means nowadays to lay waste, ruin, or destroy, and, therefore, our word must be "despoil" (Exodus xii., 36). Americans have always been supposed to possess a peculiar sense of humor; the non-American world will now reconsider that point. For the second, "bolled" (Exodus ix., 4, misprint for 31), is classed in the preface, p. vi., as a term "obsolete, obscure, and ambiguous." In its place in the text we read "in bloom." It is perfectly true that "bolled" is obscure, but it is not obsolete or ambiguous. In provincial English it means "podded for seed" or "having the seed-vessels formed," and exactly that is one view which has been taken of the meaning of the original. The LXX. translate the Hebrew *gibh'ōl* by σπερματίζον, and the English revisers followed the LXX. "In bloom," on the other hand, expresses the Talmudic view of the meaning of *gibh'ōl*, and is not a modern, clear, and unambiguous synonym of "bolled"; it is a different translation entirely.

But we may pass from changes that are purely verbal, or supposed to be so, to such as express a different sense. The most conspicuous of these is the consistent rendering of Jehovah in all places where *Yahwé* (*Adhōnāy*) stood in the Hebrew text and had been hitherto rendered into English, "the Lord," "Lord," or "God." This change can be amply justified, but it is hard to see why Adhōnāy (*e. g.*, Ezek. xxviii., 22) is rendered "the Lord" and not "my Lord." That the termination continued in Biblical times to have the force of the possessive seems pretty clearly made out. Again, there are certain places (*e. g.*, Gen. ii., ff.) where, through textual conflation, Jehovah and God have come to stand together. That combination is here translated quite simply, "Jehovah God." What that will mean to the unsophisticated reader gives us pause. The Hebrew who had lost the sense of its being a conflate reading, probably took the "God" as epexegetic, "Jehovah, *i. e.*, God." But to produce that effect in English a comma, at least, should have been inserted between the two words. Of minor changes the multitude is so great that we can take almost no account of them. Very many are distinct improvements; some are certainly not. The change of *çalmāweth* from "shadow of death" to "thick darkness" cannot be justified. The possibility in Semitic of such a form and idea has been amply proved of late, and the Hebrew usage and parallelism seem to demand that sense for the word. So, too, in Ecclesiastes ii., 8, "men-singers and women-singers" is highly improbable against "concubines very many." But at this point we are cast into the chaos of variant interpretations, and, as suggested above, the final value of this recension will probably be that it will compel the theological student to find a footing for himself, and a reason for the philological faith that may be in him.

Yet, many as are the changes here, much more might and should have been done. To take the beginning of all things, we still await an English version that will translate grammatically the first three verses of Genesis. Similarly, we still await a correct translation of the first three words of Gen. iii., and of the first two of Gen. iv. So, too, Gen. ii., 19, is still in its grammatical misery. It is strange that eminent Hebraists, while they bestow unlimited pains on difficult poetical passages and on matters of the higher criticism, continue to countenance the most shrieking blunders in simple historical prose.

Another point in which the new Revisers have been lamentably deficient is in their treatment of the versions. In that, they have made a great step backwards. The English Revisers recognized that the Massoretic text was corrupt, at least in certain places, and that the versions had preserved, again in certain places, the true reading. They also recognized the existence in the versions of probable corrections of the text. These were indicated on the margin as the readings of "some" or "many ancient versions." This was not very much, but it at least put on record the value and use of the versions. The new Revisers, on the other hand, appear to have gone back solidly to the Massoretic text, and given up the use of the versions as, at present or for always, hopeless. Their texts cannot be certainly verified, and we cannot get beyond plausible conjecture in making use of them to correct the Hebrew text. So only one-sixth of the marginal references to them in the English revision are retained, but these are made specific as to the particular version meant. All this is unfortunate in the highest degree, and it is hard to understand how any body of Hebraists could be found at the present day to take up such a position. That the texts of the versions are corrupt is unhappily true; that they are corrupt to an unusable degree is not true. On the other hand, the Hebrew text is much more than "probably corrupt here and there." It is certainly corrupt in very many passages, and to a degree that we are only gradually realizing. Our only sound hope of correcting it is through the versions; otherwise we must make use of simple conjecture. To reject this is to fall back into absolute textual skepticism.

The present revision has been equipped throughout with marginal references to parallel and illustrative passages. These are not too numerous and are most clearly arranged; nothing but continuous use can determine their value. Topical headings have also been added—a much more dubious enrichment. In all but historical matters, theological exegesis is bound to creep in. In this case, that is abundantly evident in the headings to Ecclesiastes and the Song of Solomon. In the first, we read of "piety," "charity," "industry," "hope," all words which Qoheleth would have regarded somewhat askance. In the second, we have not any longer, it is true, the converse of Christ and the Church, but we have a very definite theory of the structure of the book.

It would be hard to praise too highly the printing and general get-up of this volume. But we must confess to disappointment with its contents.

RECENT WORK IN CHAUCER.

The Wife of Bath's Tale: Its Sources and Analogues. By G. H. Maynadier. (Grimm Library, No. 13.) London: David Nutt.

Chaucer's Franklin's Tale. By William Henry Schofield. Baltimore: Reprinted from the Publications of the Modern Language Association of America.

The Sources of The Parson's Tale. By Kate Oelzner Petersen. (Radcliffe College Monographs, No. 12.) Boston: Ginn & Co.

The Prologue to the Canterbury Tales, The Knightes Tale, The Nonnes Prestes Tale. Edited in critical text, etc., by Mark H. Liddell. Macmillan.

The Prologue, The Knight's Tale, and The Nun's Priest's Tale. Edited by Frank Jewett Mather, jr. (Riverside Literature Series.) Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Mr. Maynadier's book is of interest to a considerable variety of readers. For some years it has been known to the learned that an Irish story, extant in several versions, affords the plot of Chaucer's "Tale of the Wife of Bath"; but no one has hitherto ventured to grapple with the problem resulting from this curious discovery. The general presumption that everything in Middle English is based on Latin, French, or Italian is firmly rooted in the minds of all scholars. These Irish texts, however, give pause to such an assumption in the present case, and investigators have contented themselves with a Fabian policy. Mr. Maynadier deserves much credit for his courage in reopening the matter, and for the ingenuity and acumen with which he has conducted his investigations. His moderation, and the frankness with which he considers all sorts of possibilities, are prepossessing, and we imagine that his main results will meet with pretty general acceptance among those best qualified to pass judgment. He decides that, in the group of stories to which "The Wife's Tale" and its analogues in Gower and elsewhere belong, we have a strong case for the transmission of literary material from Irish to English without French intermediaries. This is his principal thesis, and it is well maintained. Its significance with regard to several moot points in mediæval literature will not escape our readers.

Apart from his main thesis, Mr. Maynadier's plan requires him to determine the literary relations of all extant forms of the type to which Chaucer's tale belongs. Here there are many hypotheses, and some of the results are necessarily provisional, but the qualities to which we have adverted stand the author in good stead. His genealogical table may perhaps be corrected in some of its details, as time goes on, but it can hardly be modified in anything essential. Incidentally, Mr. Maynadier refutes some of the arguments of Prof. Bugge with respect to the Helgi poems in the Elder Edda. Despite its learning and the detail inseparable from such a study, the book is unusually readable. The author never forgets that he is dealing with literature. He manifests a fine appreciation of the charm investing these oft-told

tales which the world has always been so ready to hear.

Mr. Schofield's paper is likewise excellent reading. He finds the kernel of "The Franklin's Tale" in a shadowy legend of Arviragus and Genuissa preserved by Geoffrey of Monmouth. This legend, he supposes, was worked up as a Breton lay, which reached Chaucer in a French version. The Oriental parallels cited by Clouston and others may seem to contravene this theory, but, as Mr. Schofield shows, they by no means invalidate it. The lays are full of material not originally Celtic, and the combination of two stories, widely different in source, is no strange phenomenon. Demonstration is impossible, and we should be unreasonable to require it. Mr. Schofield writes with a complete mastery of the subject, and makes out as strong a case as the nature of the question allows. The results of his previous investigations in mediæval romance have been widely accepted, and we anticipate a similar good fortune for the present paper.

Miss Petersen's monograph is the modest record of a remarkable discovery. Heretofore "The Parson's Tale" has usually been regarded as based upon the 'Somme des Vices et des Vertus' of Frère Lorens, though Professor Liddell, in the Furnivall Volume, has advanced a different theory. Miss Petersen, who is deeply versed in the confessional and penitential writers of the Middle Ages, finds that the Parson is indebted to two works—the third book of Raymund of Pennaforte's 'Summa Casuum Pœnitentiæ' and the Summa seu Tractatus de Viciis' of Guilielmus Peraldus. These important treatises were the ultimate sources of "The Parson's Tale." The immediate source remains to be discovered, but Miss Petersen is on the track of it. In her opinion—which is entitled to all respect—it will turn out to be a glossed copy of Raymund into which the substance of Peraldus's tractate has been inserted. We have no hesitation in pronouncing Miss Petersen's monograph one of the most remarkable contributions to Chaucerian scholarship that have been made of recent years.

We do not make a practice of reviewing text-books, but we must record the appearance of Professor Liddell's edition of the "Prologue," "The Knight's Tale," and "The Nun's Priest's Tale," which is distinguished by the care bestowed upon the text and by a learned essay on Chaucer's language. Professor Mather's edition of the same poems, which appeared some two years ago, is provided with a literary introduction, the lack of which is a defect in Professor Liddell's volume. An edition combining the excellences of these rival candidates for popular favor would make a first-rate introduction to the study of Chaucer.

The New South Africa: Its Value and Development. By W. Bleloch. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1901.

However offensive we may find the spirit with which the author of this volume regards the subjugation of the Boers, we cannot deny that he takes a broad view of the methods by which their former possessions are to be made remunerative. Assuming that all resistance is crushed, and that the English are in full control of the territory of the two republics, the problem which Mr. Bleloch attacks is the estimation of the resources of the country and their systematic exploration. He has certainly taken great pains to collect information from many sources, and his descriptions of particular regions are almost as detailed as those in Baedeker's guide-books. Many of them are quoted from official reports, and the opinions of eminent geologists, engineers, and other experts are constantly cited. Altogether, the book appears to be as carefully prepared a catalogue of the resources of the provinces as could be wished. Nevertheless, it is founded largely upon guesses, while its proposed scheme of government is open to much criticism. If the new rulers would do precisely what Mr. Bleloch tells them is necessary, doubtless the result would be admirable. But there is no reason to suppose that proconsuls will be better in South Africa than they have been elsewhere.

As to the quantity of gold in the Transvaal rocks, there are many expert opinions, between which it would be dangerous to discriminate. By a process that suggests the familiar method of "guessing at half, and multiplying by two," Mr. Bleloch reaches the conclusion that the amount of gold in the Witwatersrand may be computed, "after vigorous pruning and a final deduction of 25 per cent., to prevent any possibility of overestimate," to be of the value of £2,153,382,938. By including the rest of the gold-bearing area of the Transvaal, this sum is raised to 3,000 or even 4,000 millions of pounds sterling. It thus appears that the territory was worth fighting for as plunder, provided its resources are well managed.

That the system of granting mining rights adopted by the Transvaal Government was not in all respects wise, is clearly demonstrated. It was certainly better than that which has generally prevailed in our own country, in that it followed the common-law rule that ownership of land extends downward in perpendicular planes from the superficial boundaries. The principle that when a man strikes a productive vein he may follow it under his neighbor's property has produced endless quarrels, and has no standing in equity. But the requirement of an annual license fee, amounting for the ordinary prospector to five shillings a month for every claim, has resulted in throwing the auriferous lands into the possession of large capitalists. The conditions are such that at least 100 claims are required for an average mine on the Rand, and a much larger area is necessary for prospecting. No poor man, no weak company, can pay such fees on land that, perhaps, in nine cases out of ten has no value; for it is expensive business to get down to the reef and to work the mine after it is opened. Of course, many poor men and many feeble companies have made the experiment, but they have invariably found that when their claims proved to contain gold, it could not be extracted without the expenditure of a great deal of money. Hence there was nothing to do but to sell their claims, which they could do only to the few powerful "syndicates" that were prepared to manage large enterprises. Of course, the monthly license fees constituted a steady pressure on weak holders. Moreover, the valuable "owners' rights," which include a share in the proceeds of license fees, can, as a rule, be acquired only by large capitalists.

Mr. Bleloch proposes that the law should be amended by allowing greater freedom in prospecting and by reducing the license fees. The rights of owners of land to the gold which it contains are also to be severely curtailed for the benefit of the Government, which is to obtain further revenue by taxing the dividends made by mining companies. He considers, however, that the Government would obtain such large sums through its appropriation of the rights now enjoyed by the owners of the land, as to make other taxation unimportant. Nevertheless, he proposes an elaborate scheme which contains most of the odious features devised by the rulers of Europe to support their armaments. The people of England pay an income tax of a shilling in the pound, and it would be unfair, according to Mr. Bleloch, to allow their enemies, "who have caused the war, to get off scot-free." The hut tax levied on the natives should be doubled. The "death duties" should be introduced, and the land tax increased. The revenue thus obtained would be sufficient to pay the interest on £40,000,000, or one-third of the cost of the war. It should be added that the Transvaal Government was undoubtedly extravagant, and that much revenue could be saved that has been wasted. The dynamite monopoly should be abolished, and railway-freight charges reduced, so that, after all, the mining industry might be less heavily burdened than heretofore.

On the whole, Mr. Bleloch makes out a very plausible case for the future prosperity of the Transvaal, and, even allowing his estimates to be too sanguine, his anticipations may be eventually realized. He presents many interesting facts concerning the agricultural resources of the country, and dwells on its wealth of minerals other than gold. His book is of far more value than most of those which treat of South African conditions, and it deserves the attention of those who are interested in the future of that region. We are at liberty to question his inferences, but his statements of fact have every appearance of trustworthiness.

La Noblesse Française sous Richelieu. Par le Vicomte G. d'Avenel. Paris: Armand Colin. 1901.

The Vicomte Georges d'Avenel, whose 'Richelieu et la Monarchie Absolue' is the standard work on the internal condition of France during the reign of Louis XIII., has added to the obligations of students by publishing a sketch of aristocratic life at that time. But here he does not write for students alone. Any one who can read the copious and sprightly memoirs of seventeenth-century France will be delighted with a book which, while dealing with general subjects rather than individual careers, is based for the most part on autobiographies. And although M. d'Avenel at times draws freely on his former volumes, he has gained force by compression.

It is quite conceivable that a book might be written on the measures by which Richelieu resisted the plots of the nobles. The execution of Marillac and Montmorency are only the most celebrated incidents in his policy of repressing such powers as could be used against the crown. But the Cardinal's dealings with the aristocracy do not furnish the main motive of M. d'Avenel's essay. Richelieu is, indeed, mentioned at frequent intervals; yet, if all the allusions to him were removed, the general charac-

ter of the work would not be seriously affected. In other words, the intrigues of the nobles against the Government, and their political aspirations, are much less accentuated than their social rights and duties, their revenues and their expenses, their spirit and their legal status.

One point upon which M. d'Avenel insists very strongly is the mildness of the *corvées* and *banalités*. He holds that the degree of oppression which they entailed has been much exaggerated. After reading many *cahiers* of the estates, pamphlets, and broadsides, he has become convinced that the feudal services of the seventeenth century entailed no excessive hardship. Otherwise they would have been complained of far more vehemently than was actually the case. They could be commuted by the payment of money, and the amount demanded as composition was not large. In 1620 the total amount paid by the maids and widows of a large seigniory for exemption from *corvées* was fifteen sous. Sometimes local custom required that the lord should feed the peasant and his animals while they were performing the stated service.

Closely connected with the amount derived from the *banalités*, which M. d'Avenel considers to have been extremely little, there is the revenue derived from the *cens*, or the fixed, invariable rent paid by the tenant for his holding. While this amount is regularly forthcoming, a bare title only is vested in the lord; the usufruct belongs wholly to the tenant. The chief fact which bears upon the value of the *cens* is the rapid decline in the purchasing power of money. The shrinkage of the *livre tournois* from its importance in the reign of Saint Louis to its insignificance in the reign of Louis XIII. affected the revenues of the nobles disastrously. Legally the rate of payment remained what it had been in the Middle Ages. A livre was a livre; and, no matter how low its purchasing power, it was still the unit of payment, save in some cases where the tenant was bound to pay grain or cattle. From the end of the Middle Ages the nobles kept growing poorer by the action of economic causes, and could make good their losses only by drawing on the royal civil list—an expedient which was open to but few.

But we should misrepresent the contents of this animated volume if we limited our notice to economic matters. The bulk of the space is given up to subjects which admit of copious illustration from the personal history of the time, including duels, elopements, and gaming. Almost every important statement is supported by its incident or its anecdote. One of the best chapters centres about the spirit of the aristocratic order—its sense of honor and its brutality, its love of adventure and the narrowness of its horizon. M. d'Avenel is perfectly frank, and some of the episodes which he recalls take one back to the nobles of Austrasia and Neustria. Yet, despite the crudeness of practical jokes and public brawling, there is an untamed vigor in sight which contrasts favorably with the tone of society under Louis XV. And it is shared impartially by cavaliers and dames. At the trial of Montmorency, M. de Guitaux was asked whether he had seen the accused in the fight at Castelnaudary. He answered, "que le voyant tout convert de sang, de feu et de fumée, il eut de la peine à le connaître, mais qu'enfin lui ayant vu rompre six de leurs rangs, et tuer des soldats dans le septième, il jugea bien que ce ne pouvait être autre que lui." As for the corresponding activity of women, Mme. de Bonneval fought a duel with her own husband, and Mme. de Saint-Balmont is said during her life to have killed or taken prisoners more than four hundred men. And this was in an age which witnessed the founding of the French Academy!

It is impossible for a modern historian to consider any subject in isolation, and M. d'Avenel draws his comparisons not only from other European states in the era of Richelieu, but from earlier and later periods of French history. One long and valuable part of his book looks forward to the rapid decline of the aristocracy between the death of Louis XIII. and the Revolution. Any one who examines the condition of France in 1752, when Lord Chesterfield is prophesying a speedy catastrophe, for which he gives his reasons, must see that the nobles no longer possess their former prestige. As a privileged order they still preserve their immunity from taxation. Why is it that they count for less in the social life of the land and also in power?

M. d'Avenel finds two main grounds for the change. The first is a silent transformation of manners, and the second is the royal practice of ennobling many persons who to-day would rise only to the lower grades of the Legion of Honor. The nobles fall behind in the race for distinction when fighting ceases to be the normal occupation of a gentleman. They do not keep pace with the general intellectual movement. M. d'Avenel says very neatly: "Un grand *Cedant arma togæ* passe tout à coup sur l'Europe civilisée; c'est un mot d'ordre que nul encore n'a l'audace de proférer à voix haute, mais qui déjà, dans les masses profondes du tiers-état, caresse doucement les oreilles." When the arts of peace thrust the duellist and fire-eater in the background, the nobles did not conform to the changed circumstances. Unlike the members of the English peerage, they held aloof from the hard work of government. Even as early as the regency of Mazarin, they begged high places for their friends rather than for themselves because they felt their own incompetence. The Crown, by selling patents of honor and by granting them for insufficient services, accelerated the downward course of the order. Whether or not Louis XIV. acted from a desire to weaken the aristocracy by adulterating it, the effect was disastrous to the reputation which the upper classes bore among the commonalty.

In contrast to the completeness of his information about France, one observes in M. d'Avenel's references to England a slight disposition to inaccuracy. "Lord Herbert Cherbury" is not the familiar form of Lord Edward Herbert's name, and Englishmen can hardly claim that they have no equivalent of the word *mésalliance*, "parce que l'idée blessante qu'il éveille n'y est pas connue." The French term is repeatedly quoted in English writings to express an idea with which Englishmen are quite familiar. But this is captious criticism to pass on a most learned and entertaining book.

Biographical and Other Articles. By William C. Todd, A.B., President of the New Hampshire Historical Society. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1901.

In the Boston Public Library, the Newspaper Reading-Room founded by Mr. Todd is surpassed in the number of readers by no other department, and this fact will lead many people to look into his sketches. The large class who have no time for book-reading will be further attracted by brevity—a real Greek horror of too much—in each of the eight monographs which they find bound together. Interest must be strongest in Newburyport, where Mr. Todd started and endowed the first Newspaper Reading-Room, and where his home has always been, next to his native Atkinson. The biographies are all associated with that neighborhood. Every article contains something that every reader will be glad to learn—each idea the more attractive because flavored with the individuality of the author. He has been a leisurely looker-on in scenes of many-colored life at home and in three continents abroad. A snapper-up of trifles unconsidered by most, he gives them such a setting, whatever his topic, that they are trifles no longer. His twenty pages on Webster, for instance, are a mosaic from more than a dozen unexpected witnesses. The New England rural pastor before 1800 is drawn to the life, with a halo around homely or quaint customs now forgotten, but on which moderns look back curiously. This chapter, as well as "A Summer in Norway," will be the freshest revelation to most readers, for they are too young to have come into contact with the last survivors of the clergy of the colonial era. In 1879 Mr. Todd voyaged in a crowded tourist steamer to the cape of the midnight sun, and afterwards, as a solitary pilgrim, walked well-nigh four hundred miles on unbeaten Norwegian paths. The idyllic characteristics discovered with glad surprise in recesses not yet demoralized have never been more lovingly chronicled.

Mr. Todd's favorite is Caleb Cushing, with whom he was intimate. Cushing, in his judgment, not only was the first citizen of Newburyport, but might well have been so counted everywhere. But why such exceptional talents should have failed, after all, to secure for Cushing a lasting national reputation; why he is not among the cherished great men of his native State; why the Senate rejected him on Grant's nomination to the Supreme Court, and why that nomination was a surprise to the country at large—are questions of which the answer must be sought outside of Mr. Todd's pages. Such readers as from childhood have heard traditional stories about Lord Timothy Dexter, of whalebone stays and warming-pan notoriety, may be most interested in the paper which shows up authentically his real life, its facts and its fictions alike. The fictions of history are our author's pet aversion. It is not safe to question any fact which he states or even assents to. His estimate of New Hampshire fighters at Bunker Hill, as two-thirds of the rebels in conflict there, appears, for instance, a wild exaggeration to one who remembers that, in 1775, the New Hampshire Continentals were only 2,824 to 16,444 from Massachusetts. His reckoning has been proved at last the exact truth by official military returns (New Hampshire Hist. Soc. Proc., vol. i., p. 361).

The last and longest of these miscellanies, "Some Persons I Have Seen," has a significant sentence and sometimes more about each of some sixty celebrities. This chapter cries aloud for an index. Mr. Todd

was the last man from whom a book thus unfinished was to be feared. The desideratum will doubtless be supplied in the second edition, which cannot remain long uncalled for. Typographical faults, and they are many, which could not have existed had the author's eyes allowed him to revise proofs, must also be corrected.

The New Brazil: Its Resources and Attractions, Historical, Descriptive, and Industrial. By Marie Robinson Wright. Philadelphia: George Barrie & Son. 1901. 4to, pp. 450. Illustrated.

So long a period has elapsed since a comprehensive work on Brazil has appeared in English that Mrs. Wright has entered a field free from competitors. Any one wishing to know the actual conditions in that country must in consequence have recourse to this book. Its popularity would certainly have been greater had it been published in smaller form, and the loss of illustrations which this would have entailed would not have been a detriment. As it stands, it is a sort of picture gallery of Brazil, in which nearly every thing and every man of note in the whole country are represented. A wise selection of illustrations would have been more effective. The book is not, however, written as a mere accompaniment to the pictures. Mrs. Wright, if not the keenest of observers, is at least an observer by wholesale. She covers the entire field. She has method, and has inquired into every detail of the national life. In this respect the work is eminently satisfactory, for it answers in its fashion every question that a foreigner might ask. She has not taken the gossip of the port cities, but has seen the things she writes about, and consequently gives in the main an accurate account of the social and industrial life of Brazil, from Rio Grande do Sul to Pará and Manáos. It is when she departs from matters personally observed that she falls into error. The old familiar notion of that impossible canal from the Orinoco to the Rio Negro is once more set forth in alluring phrase, with the further suggestion of similar canals from the Rio Madeira to the river system of the Paraguay, and of a waterway from the upper Amazon to the Pacific! Here is an interoceanic route which our Congress has not considered! The magnificence of the water-transportation routes in South America has encouraged indiscreet predictions many times before, and has led more than one savant to anticipate a growth of population and power in the centre of South America which the very existence of those waterways will long retard, considering the immense difficulties which they themselves are partly responsible for placing in the way of supplementing them with railroads.

What we chiefly miss in this book is a revelation of the character of the Brazilians, and an interpretation of the spirit of the people as shown in their social and political life. We nowhere feel the pulse of the nation. All is impersonal, in spite of much laudation of the achievements of notable men and women who have made and are making the history of the country. The author's turn of mind is preëminently practical, and the subtler manifestations of life she has not grasped. But the conditions of trade and commerce, the undeveloped resources of this favored land, and the opportunities for colonization are fully presented. Perhaps Mrs. Wright is even too optimistic, so that she fails to draw any lessons from the financial crisis in which the country has been laboring, and from the failures which have attended the planting of numerous colonies in the past. It is easy to say that northern settlers will find here a fertile soil and a salubrious climate, but the experience of the world has shown that the perils and hardships of pioneer life are greater in the tropics than elsewhere, and that malarial fever is a bane not easy to overcome. Moreover, the petty official is ever an obstructionist, and in Brazil this evil is very great, offsetting to a large extent the liberality of the laws. From her failure to speak out boldly against such abuses, the author would seem to be too intent upon remaining *persona grata* to the Brazilians. The same spirit shows in the treatment of the religious life of the people, which is dismissed without analysis of any sort. While the intelligent reader will instinctively discount the opinions of a traveller whose every word is praise and commendation, it is nevertheless better to deal thus than to indulge in that carping criticism which has marred the productions of so many writers upon the Latin-American republics. Despite its defects, therefore, this work will stand as a valuable contribution to our knowledge of present conditions in one of the most interesting and progressive American commonwealths.

Surrey. By Walter Jerrold. With illustrations by J. A. Symington. London: Dent; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1901.

This dainty volume contains all any one can wish to know about Surrey. Mr. Dewar, the editor, in his introduction, says that he who writes of his county should feel convinced of its excelling in beauty and interest all other counties, so that his book should be a labor of love. This is entirely the case with Walter Jerrold, so that, unlike the usual guide-book, his chapters are excellent reading, not only describing the natural resources of Surrey, its manufactures, its historical and literary associations, its hunting, fishing, and sport, but introducing also his personal experiences and observations, which are told with a vivacity that insures the interest of the reader. There is keen enjoyment in his planned excursions. Whether he gives us the choice of highway or byway, we feel that every path is familiar to him; we scent the pine woods and heather; he calls our attention to the distant view, and tells us of the wayside inn, of the flowers we shall see in the woods we pass through, and of the birds that frequent its shades. Everything has been noted by our author; besides which, he is well read in the book-lore of his county, and lets us share his acquaintance with writers, ancient and modern, who have mentioned in history, correspondence, poetry, or fiction the sites he wishes us to visit. The many famous authors connected with Surrey in various ways are all introduced in their right place, and appositely quoted for our enlightenment—from Thomas Fuller, John Evelyn, Aubrey, Samuel Pepys, and John Toland, among the elders, to the Rev. O. Manning (the historian of the county), William Cobbett, Keats, Shelley, Ruskin, Dickens, George Meredith, and William Morris. Of famous houses and places of note, of architectural beauty or historical interest, Surrey contains not a few. They are all here, and the illustrations of J. Symington which interpolate the text are very helpful and pleasing.

Part II. contains chapters on natural history and sport. "Our Surrey Birds" is by J. A. Bucknell. There are no less than sixty-odd species, and the lists of summer residents and winter visitors enable us to know when to look for them. E. Step writes of the flora of the county, which seems to have changed during the last forty years—no doubt on account of the fashion for wild flowers in London. The woods and hedges are stripped of flowers, leaves, and berries to supply the market, and the Selborne Society in vain protests against the ruthless tearing up of roots and the molestation of wild creatures of the woods. Those who belong to this society (and it counts many members) would strongly disapprove of the Rev. G. J. Vernon's entomological chapter, in which he treats of catching moths by "sugaring." The cyclist will find a special chapter with twenty-five routes made out for him, a lighting-up table, and another of cross-bearings. A gazetteer of Surrey and two excellent maps are included in this most useful volume of the "Rural England Series."

Five Years in Ireland, 1895-1900. By Michael J. F. McCarty, Barrister-at-law. London: Simpkin & Marshall. Pp. x + 568. Portraits and illustrations.

This is the work of a young Catholic Irishman, whose portrait, taken apparently in court suit, and surrounded by favorable notices of the book (which has run to four editions), faces the title-page. Neither the portraits of other personages nor the views of places appear selected upon any settled plan. As the name suggests, the book professes to be a record of the principal events that occurred in Ireland between the dates named. It is stuffed with puerilities, while many really important subjects, such as the growth of the Irish language movement, are left unnoticed. Mr. McCarty's thesis is that Ireland has now, mainly through the wisdom of the Conservative party in Parliament, all she should desire, and that it is her own fault if she does not settle down a proud and happy portion of the United Kingdom. If Mr. Parnell was one of her chief benefactors and rightly one of her heroes in the past, Lord Cadogan and the brothers Balfour are so now. The late visit of the Queen was one of the greatest events in Irish history. The Protestant population, especially that of the north, is compared favorably with the Catholic. The present is viewed without consideration of the influences and history of the past. Two chapters are devoted to the perpetrators of a few dreadful crimes and insanities, as illustrative of the general character of the Irish people. No nation on earth could be shown worthy of free institutions if judged upon such premises; and those who really know the Irish believe them to be as free from great faults as any other peoples.

The work, however, contains important matter, and deserves the attention of all deeply interested in Irish affairs. We do not wonder at the extraordinary vogue it is having in the capital, at least, of Ireland—that it is permanently on sale in ev-

ery book-shop not specially Catholic, that it is in circulation by the score at the lending libraries, and that at the National (Government) Library of Ireland, partly under Catholic direction, it has so far been refused admission, whilst there (as we are told) "asked for by millions of readers." It is in the main and essentially the protest of a Catholic against what he conceives to be the influence of his Church in Ireland, in weakening the mental fibre of the people, and, by its claims upon their purses, impeding their material progress. Mr. McCarty is certainly to be commended for his courage. We do not wonder that the *Daily News* writes: "Had he uttered it in the sixteenth century, [it] would have brought him to the stake, or landed him in a Roman dungeon had he given expression to it anywhere in the States of the Church before the King of Italy made an end of the temporal power." The book is naturally acceptable in Protestant circles. Its importance or otherwise as a sign of the times depends upon the extent to which the views expressed by the author are germinating in the minds of his coreligionists. If the state of affairs he deplores has been developed under present institutions, is it not likely to be most effectually combated by what he least desires—placing the effective political control of the country in the hands of the people? In any case, the success of this book and the circulation among all classes in Ireland of a new weekly paper, the *Leader*, are proof that an unwonted spirit of criticism of men and movements is taking hold of the country.

The Macdonough-Hackstaff Ancestry. By Rodney Macdonough. Boston: Press of Samuel Usher. 1901.

Records of pedigrees, like the devices of heraldry, are chiefly of interest only to the persons concerned. Few families of modern days have done anything to win the coats of arms they boast, or shed lustre on the bead-rolls of names they bear. The usual tables of descent are as barren as the Biblical catalogues of the Dukes of Edom, lacking personality and linked with no historical event. Some few of such diagrams of converging lines centre upon some eminent person, illustrating the force of heredity, but usually these genealogical researches result in mere dry, lifeless jotting down of births, deaths, and dates. The author of the compilation before us is fortunate in finding among his materials certain elements of distinction which heighten mere pedigrees with a touch of the vivacity of annals, and he has availed himself of this advantage with no little literary cleverness. A record which can so connect its page with public affairs, and can cite as a possession the names of men in three generations conspicuous for service in the American Revolution, the naval war of 1812, and the closing days of commerce by sailing-craft, has interest for the general reader apart from that inspired by the claim of special kinship.

The seed of the trees of descent here sketched was planted in Saxon soil. English, German, and Scotch sap nourished their growth, varied to advantage by a Celtic graft. On the paternal side, the author's ancestors before his great-grandfather's generation were settled at Kildare, in Ireland. The English island of Antigua was the home of some of the progenitors of the line, which is traced on the maternal side to Alstadt in Germany at the date of 1750. One of the author's ancestors in the fifth ascending generation was a merchant of the city of New York, William Denning, a native of the West Indian island of Antigua, who married successively two sisters, Hawxhursts, of an English family long settled in Long Island. In the troubled times preceding the outbreak of the Revolution, the friends of independence found in him a wise counsellor and active organizer. His name is conspicuous among those of the chief citizens who guided the people with constancy and sagacity in the dangers of their doubtful course. On committees at home, in correspondence with the other colonies, and in commercial measures of prevision, he was among the foremost. At a later time, his services in legislation were constant, and Congress often asked his advice and aid in financial adjustments. At the same period, another paternal ancestor held the rank of major in a Delaware regiment, and upon the peace became, after important legislative services, a judge in the courts of that State.

The triumph of independence left details of controversy between the nations engaged still unsettled. Persistent holding by England of territory conceded only in pledge, and arrogant claims of allegiance, demanding another conflict for their determination, provoked the naval war of 1812. When that war was to be closed, the military advisers of England confessed that the brilliant successes of her antagonist, especially the victory of Plattsburgh—for negotiations began before the battle of New Orleans—forbade any exacting demands of settlement. And this was just when the downfall of Napoleon had released her fleets and armies for other service. The name of the commander in that action, Thomas Macdonough, stands secure in history among the earlier glories of the republic. His grandson, the compiler of this record, inheriting the modesty which was conspicuous in his ancestor, makes no attempt to magnify his fame, only presenting a sketch of his early and too short life, and a facsimile of his dispatch announcing the victory. A steel engraving adorns the page, from Gilbert Stuart's fine portrait, of uncertain date, probably about 1818—a supreme example of his art.

In this era of six-day transits by steam greyhounds, we read with amusement of a time when the world's commerce crept sluggishly under sail, and packets brought over as news only once a month a novel by Scott, or a poem of Byron's, or a battle by Napoleon. Yet, within such limitations, American navigators of those days perfected their art, and secured for the leisurely and comparatively few passengers by their packets a degree of safety and comfort hardly now surpassed. The inconvenience of delay was compensated for by a certain measure of luxury among select companions, while no mob of globe-trotters vexed the voyager's soul. Among the accomplished seamen of that period, Capt. Hackstaff, from 1824 to 1851, was famous for the safety and dispatch of his voyages, and his perfect sailor-like courtesy.

Interspersed throughout the book are many distinct memoirs, often presenting curious phases of remote colonial life and manners. Apt illustrations break the uniformity of its subject, such as old-fashioned likenesses, and facsimiles of ancient wills and documents. The typography and binding are not less noticeable than the diligence and research devoted to the preparation of its contents.

Maryland as a Proprietary Province. By Newton D. Mereness. The Macmillan Co. 1901.

To students of colonial history that of Maryland is apt to seem tame and uneventful. Indian wars she had none worth the name; her occasional revolutions and counter-revolutions were remarkable rather for humanity than for heroism, and the chronic bickerings between the governors and the burgesses scarcely rose above parochial magnitude. Yet for this very reason, and from the fact that there were scarcely any violent irruptions into the peaceful process of transformation, the history of Maryland affords exceptional opportunities for studying the regular course of political, social, and industrial development.

Maryland as a province occupied a peculiar position. Ruled by a proprietary with virtually royal powers, under a charter of wider scope than had ever been granted by a king of England; exempted from taxation by the crown; removed from both the control and the protection of Parliament, the Marylanders were yet declared to be English subjects, and entitled to all the rights, privileges, and liberties of Englishmen. So the people, when discontented (as they generally were) with the existing state of things, if they considered themselves aggrieved by the Proprietary (that is, during the first fifty years of the colony), they appealed to Magna Carta and their inalienable rights, and when they were aggrieved by the home government (as in the last fifty years) they appealed to the exemptions of their charter. Every political question, therefore, might have two aspects and be treated from two different points of view. And it would seem that every political question which could arise did arise, at some time or other, and was so treated, often with great ability on both sides.

All these questions are carefully examined and lucidly discussed in the work before us. The charter of Maryland being feudal, the whole system rested upon the land; and the land question, the modes of infeudation, the revenues derived from the land, the way in which the people were supported by it, and the social conditions which this life involved, are treated in full. Then the functions of each department of the Government, and their gradual transformation under changing conditions, are clearly set forth. The machinery of local government, the complicated questions of finance, religious matters under Catholic predominance, under Puritan predominance, and under the Established Church, are discussed with exemplary impartiality. Last, the relations with the Government of Great Britain, from the time it was looked to as a protector until it came to be regarded as an oppressor, lead us step by step from the Declaration of the Protestant Associators of 1689 to that of the Non-importation Associators of 1769, and so to the Revolution. We have here the colonial history of Maryland presented as an object-study in

the gradual evolution of a free, self-governed commonwealth.

We cannot speak too highly of the way in which this work has been done. Dr. Mereness has studied every point in the light of the original contemporary documents, printed and in manuscript, not only those in the archives of the State, but those in private collections; and references to the authorities confirm every statement. The labor undergone has been great; but the result is a work planned and carried out in the truest historical spirit, and invaluable to the student of American history and institutional development.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Prof. F. F. History and Description of Roman Political Institutions. Boston: Ginn & Co.
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Allchin, W. H. A Manual of Medicine, Vol. III.: Diseases of the Nervous System. Macmillan. $2.
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Bourne, E. G. Essays in Historical Criticism. (Yale Bicentennial Publications.) Scribners. $2.
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Cable, G. W. The Cavalier, Scribners. $1.50.
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Giberne, Agnes. The Mighty Deep and What We Know of It. London: C. Arthur Pearson; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
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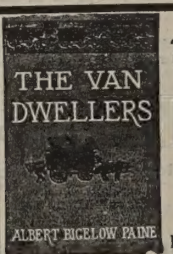

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 17, 1901.

The Week.

The conventions of the dominant party in several of the largest commonwealths between the Atlantic Coast and the Missouri River have proved significant in one important particular. They show that Republicans are keeping an open mind as to the Philippines, and that a Republican Administration at Washington may count upon the support of the party in any well-directed efforts toward securing the ultimate relinquishment of American control of the islands. Massachusetts and New Jersey are typical Eastern States; Ohio and Iowa are equally representative of the Middle West. Anybody who sought to learn what Republican sentiment in these two sections of the country has been at any time in the past thirty years would consult the platforms adopted by the party in the Conventions of those States at that time. The rule holds good now. The first in point of time this year were the Ohio Republicans, who assembled some weeks before President McKinley was shot. Naturally, they endorsed in the warmest terms "his wise, patriotic, and brilliant Administration," and they "pointed with pride" to the suppression of insurrection in the Philippines, the establishment of "civil government contemplating the largest practicable degree of home rule," and the introduction of the American educational system. As this convention was held during the lifetime of the President who had declared that the flag must never be hauled down where it had once been raised, the moderation of the deliverance on the subject of the Philippines is very noticeable.

The Iowa Republicans went a step further. They followed a general endorsement of the McKinley Administration with a declaration that "we would emphasize our endorsement of its action in more firmly establishing our monetary system upon a gold basis, and in providing for civil government in Porto Rico and the Philippines, and for the relinquishment of our authority in Cuba," and proceeded as follows:

> "The policy of this Government toward these islands has followed inevitably upon our expulsion of the authority of Spain. It has been dictated by conditions entirely consistent with the spirit and with the provisions of the Constitution, and the paramount consideration has been to secure the lasting welfare of these people, whose fortunes and destinies have become in a large degree dependent upon us. The fact that our authority there is the result of a war waged, not for our aggrandizement, but in the name of humanity, must for ever govern and inspire our relations to them."

The New Jersey Republicans adopted a platform which is entirely silent on the subject of the Philippines, and the Massachusetts platform is equally mute. The party in each State is therefore now in a position to accept and endorse any policy that may look toward an end of the anomalous conditions under which a republic is governing remote possessions. The Massachusetts Republicans, indeed, employed language which would be far more consistent with our abandonment of the Philippines than with our retention of the islands, for they declared that the Republican party "pledges itself anew to the maintenance of its exalted ideals and its patriotic principles"—ideals and principles which, as Senator Hoar has repeatedly demonstrated, are utterly inconsistent with the rule of subject peoples.

Appeals are now made to President Roosevelt, as they had been to President McKinley, to do something in reference to the war in South Africa. Some people advocate one thing, and some another. The mildest suggestion made is that he shall in some way express an opinion about Gen. Kitchener's methods of carrying on the war. According to this conception, the American people would say to the British people, through President Roosevelt: "We think that your concentration camps are barbarous and your banishment of prisoners of war needless cruelty. Why do you not exchange your prisoners for those taken by the other side?" etc. If such complaints were made by us, the British authorities might reply that without concentration camps the Boer women and children would be worse off than they are now, and that many of them would inevitably starve to death. Then we should reply that the British practice of burning houses is wicked, since it leaves the occupants destitute and shelterless, and thus makes concentration camps necessary. To this the British casuists would, perhaps, rejoin that they had read of similar doings by the American forces in the Philippines, even the burning of whole villages; and as for banishment, what about Guam? Possibly they might touch upon the Monroe Doctrine, and ask how we should regard an attempt on the part of a European Power to give advice in reference to a war actually in progress on the American continent, and in which we were ourselves engaged. There is no end to the embarrassments in which we should find ourselves entangled if we should undertake to meddle, even in a friendly way, in the war in South Africa.

If there was ever any question as to President Roosevelt's attitude towards the fight against Addicks in Delaware, it has been answered by his appointing William H. Heald Postmaster of Wilmington. He has thus served notice upon the State that no Federal patronage shall be at the disposal of Addicks or of his political pirates. Mr. Heald takes the place of an assiduous Addicks man, named Browne, whose accounts were recently found to be incorrect to the extent of $1,205. This sum was promptly made good, and it was confidently believed that the offence would be overlooked and Mr. Browne allowed to remain in office. As soon as the President heard of the affair, he insisted upon a change, and, at the suggestion of Representative Bell, selected Mr. Heald. As the latter is a regular Republican of the most pronounced type, and one who worked for weeks last winter to prevent the success of Addicks during the last session of the Legislature, that intriguer can hardly regard his choice as anything else than a sign that the present Administration will be opposed to him, tooth and nail.

Further news from Washington confirms the report (which, however, needed no confirmation) that Senator Frye is still interested in the effort to improve our merchant marine. The dispatches speak touchingly of the bill as the Senator's "favorite topic." Mr. Frye admits that last year's bill was drastic, "so drastic, in fact, that it frightened many people"; but he contends that the disease is one that requires drastic remedies. "Never was our merchant marine in so bad a condition as last year," exclaims the Senator, in defiance of the recent Government figures showing unparalleled growth in our ship-building industry, both on the Great Lakes and on the seaboard. Last year's bill, Mr. Frye thinks, was so good as to admit of little improvement. Yet, in order to pacify some who were frightened by its drastic character, he is willing to modify it so as to meet the views of those who approve the principle of ship-subsidies. "These changes will not improve the bill, but will improve its chances of adoption," he plaintively continues. He further points out that last year's session was so short that the measure was "filibustered to death." In the approaching long session such a performance will be impossible, and there is therefore hope among the subsidy men that the shameless raid on the Treasury may this time succeed.

Mr. Frye also poses as a student of international commerce. England, he says, is greatly alarmed by the efforts of Germany to gain control of the ocean, and by her gradual acquirement of widely

extended port facilities. We must keep in the race with England and Germany, or we shall be left hopelessly behind. Moreover, says Mr. Frye, there are undoubtedly special opportunities for our manufacturers to trade with the East, owing to the friendly attitude of China and Japan. Unless Americans are specially paid to enter into trade with those countries, there is danger that they may let the opportunity slip. Hence an increasing need for a subsidy bill. Apropos of Germany's subsidy system, what would Mr. Frye say to the fact that the Hamburg-American Line was recently offered a German subsidy, but declined it because of the onerous conditions as to service, stopping-places, etc., attaching to the gift, and because it was already doing a profitable business which could submit to no disturbance? The fact is, that the developments of the past year have more clearly than ever demonstrated the dangerous character of shipping subsidies in those countries where the shipping industry is unprofitable, and their uselessness in countries where the reverse is true. In the United States we now have a vigorous and rapidly growing ship-building industry which is a source of profit to its proprietors. There could be no more unblushing effrontery than the demand that the Government pay a class of men for conducting an already lucrative business.

A curious situation in the sugar industry has been revealed by the argument concerning the countervailing duty on Russian sugar just heard before the United States Circuit Court at Baltimore. It will be recalled that Robert E. Downs, a Baltimore importer, was one of the first to pay the duty under protest, and that he appealed to the Board of General Appraisers in New York, which sustained the Treasury Department in imposing it. The decisive point was to settle whether the Russian Government was in any way affording a bounty to its domestic producers. This question was so difficult as to divide the Board of Appraisers, the sustaining verdict being adopted by a vote of two to one, while the protestant member of the Board, who opposed the duty, was probably the best informed and most competent of the three. The case was transferred to the United States Circuit Court, and the first day's hearing developed the fact that the Sugar Trust, which had in the first instance urged the Treasury to impose the countervailing duty, had now gone over to the other side. It had, in fact, joined Mr. Downs and the National Association of Manufacturers, by which he is supported, in opposing the duty, and was seeking for points to show that the Treasury's position is incorrect.

The explanation of this curious reversal of the Trust's position is found in the news that a fresh conflict with the beet-sugar interests is now opening. According to Mr. Post, the President of the National Sugar Refining Company, the recent cut in the price of granulated sugar to 3½ cents is due to the fact that "the making of large contracts by beet-sugar interests made it impossible for refiners of the West, South, and East, who had been supplying the bulk of the refined sugar in the Missouri Valley, to market their stocks there." Mr. Post points out that this cut made by the Sugar Trust is intended to open the competition between the beet-sugar refiners and the Trust, and he argued that with free raw sugar from Cuba the price of 3½ cents would become permanent, and imply an annual saving of $1.50 or $2 to each inhabitant of the United States. The total duties collected from sugar now amount to about $50,000,000 per annum, and mean an aggregate increase in the cost to consumers of the year's sugar supply amounting to not less than $35,000,000. This $35,000,000 is practically equivalent to a bounty to sugar-planters in Louisiana, Hawaii, and Porto Rico and to domestic beet-growers. Of course, with lower duties on Russian sugar, the stress of competition will fall most heavily on the weaker producers, the beet-growers. For the moment, Judge Morris's decision upholding Collector Stone will serve as protection to the beet-sugar growers, and stimulate competition between them and the Sugar Trust. But Congress should take measures to regain control of the trade with Russia by repealing the countervailing duty.

Dispatches from Washington touching the report of the Industrial Commission indicate that there is a difference of opinion among the members as to the method of dealing with the Trust problem. It is said that one section of the Commission favors stricter anti-Trust legislation by the States and by Congress, without altering their respective jurisdictions; that another section proposes that the exclusive jurisdiction over interstate commerce now exercised by Congress shall be delegated to the States, so as to allow them to regulate the manufacturing and trading corporations engaged in such commerce; while a third section favors the assumption by the national Government of an exclusive control of all such corporations and their regulation by act of Congress. Of the three methods of dealing with the problem, the last is the only one worthy of attention. It has been proved by experience that the existing laws applicable to the subject are essentially nugatory and worthless. How they can be made more effective on the same plan it is difficult to see. To delegate to the States the jurisdiction of interstate commerce now belonging to Congress would simply aggravate the existing incompetency of both Federal and State Governments to deal with the question. The first thing to secure is uniformity of action, so that the States shall not play against each other in their eagerness to secure the organization tax from corporations. What shall be done after the question of jurisdiction is settled is an after-consideration; but if the people have learned anything during the past twenty years, it is that the dispersion of power between State and Federal Government is equivalent to the annihilation of power in both.

It is a gross perversion of the facts when Mr. Shepard maintains that the Republican organization has not changed in its attitude toward the New York city election since 1897. In that year Mr. Low charged the State machine in the Republican party with having thrown itself into the struggle here, "in order that the result of the primaries might work out the will of the State rather than the will of the city"; that the interests of the city and the interests of the Republican organization were widely different; that that organization wanted the spoils, and wanted the spoils "primarily to build up the machine." Mr. Shepard quotes all this, and asks whether it is the Republican party which has changed, or Seth Low? It seems incomprehensible that he should not see that Mr. Low has not changed, that the anti-Tammany candidate is running this year upon the same non-partisan platform as in 1897, but that the Republican organization has changed its position absolutely, as it now supports the man and the cause that it opposed four years ago. There has been as absolute a change upon the part of another factor in each contest—Mr. Shepard himself, who in 1897 denounced as the sum of all villanies the very Tammany from which he now accepts a nomination.

Two things are clearly to be inferred from the correspondence now published regarding Cecil Rhodes's contribution to the Liberal campaign fund in 1891. One is that he was always ready to put money into politics where it would do the most good—for Rhodes; and the other is that the *Spectator* went too far (as it, in fact, admits with apologies) in asserting that the Liberal leaders knew of the contribution and of the conditions with which it was coupled. Rhodes admits that he has no evidence of the privity of either Sir William Harcourt or of Campbell-Bannerman; and as for Gladstone, the sufficient proof that he knew nothing about the bargain is the fact that it was his subsequent speech which alarmed Rhodes about the Liberal policy as regards Egypt. Mr. Schnadhorst, the Liberal "organizer of victory," is dead; but there is no evidence that he, or any other man, ever

had the temerity to approach Mr. Gladstone with a corrupt proposal. When the thrifty Rhodes gave Parnell £1,000 fo rHome Rule, he asked the Irish leader if Rhodes's wishes about the bill might not be "put to Mr. Gladstone." "No," answered Parnell, "I do not think it would be wise for me to put the point to Mr. Gladstone!"

That the stars in their courses have hitherto favored General Buller there can be no doubt. Where others, like the gallant Gatacre, were relieved after one defeat and allowed to sink into the obscurity of disgrace, Gen. Buller was permitted to persevere, was given a splendid reception and a fine command on his home-coming. Despite certain disparaging newspaper statements, his social influence lately secured for him the command of one of the new army corps, in the face of the War Office's assurances that only approved field commanders should have these places. Like some of our own war heroes, Sir Redvers has been his own undoing. From his confession, it seems that, as alleged in the press, he advised Gen. Sir George White to surrender Ladysmith, and with it the plucky British army which had opposed the Boers so long. "What of it?" he says; "had Gen. White done so, the responsibility would have been upon my shoulders." Yet this was the man who was likened to our own stubborn Grant in his unyielding hammering away at the enemy before him. As it is, Buller has done Gen. White a great service, and placed him upon a higher pinnacle of fame than that he has occupied hitherto, by showing that he did what his superior doubted his ability to do. It is no wonder that press and public are raging. Gen. Buller has revealed the fact that the War Office is still open to those sinister social influences which are so largely responsible for its inefficiency, and that there is no genuine desire within it for a change. It is hardly possible now that it can continue to shield and advance Buller. His own folly has rendered this impossible. Meanwhile, thinking people are beginning to ask themselves whether there is not something more than a coincidence in the simultaneous discrediting of Imperialism, and of many of Imperialism's favorite instruments, that is now going on in more countries than one.

The declaration of martial law throughout all Cape Colony has doubtless been made at the demand of Gen. Kitchener. Both in Cape Town and in London the civil Government was averse to making the confession involved in the act. After two years of war to expel the Boer invader from a loyal colony, it is a little hard to have to admit that the invader is still there, and that the colony's loyalty is violently suspect. But military necessity tramples upon the sensibilities of Ministers. What Kitchener appears to have told the Government is that, if he was expected to pursue the policy of Thorough, he must be given the weapons to do it with. We may, therefore, expect severer measures, more executions for "treason," and other gentle ways of persuading the Boers that "the best government in the world" is being extended over them.

British trade returns for September contrast unfavorably with those of the United States. There has been a falling off in the volume of trade in many lines. Imports have declined heavily, particularly those of articles of food and drink, which are liable to duty, and of raw materials. The London *Economist*, however, says that trade is on the whole in a satisfactory condition. Prices have fallen, but the decline has in general been slight. They are still very high as compared with those ruling prior to 1898. Recent variations in the prices of wool and cotton, which threatened to disturb the textile industries, have proved only temporary, and the trade seems to be generally in good condition. Nevertheless, while it is true that the situation is not alarming, it seems to indicate that the depression in Continental industry is in a measure spreading to England. The significance of the situation to the United States lies in the possible check to our exports which has been so long anticipated, and which seems to be implied in the decline of British imports of certain raw products.

The recent reply of M. Delcassé, the French Foreign Minister, to the representative of the Charente wine-growers shows that the increasing demand for reciprocity is not confined to the United States. The wine-growers had asked for such tariff arrangements with Russia as would result in a decrease in duties on French wine and brandy. M. Delcassé pointed out that he had done what he could in this direction, but he complained that Russia had replied by asking a corresponding reduction in French duties on wheat and other Russian products, as well as the repeal of the practical interdict against Russian cattle now created by French sanitary regulations. The Russian requests will, of course, encounter strenuous opposition from the protected interests in Frence, and thus the question, as in all similar tariff controversies, becomes a conflict between domestic interests, each trying to get protection at the expense of the others. Nothing could illustrate better how tariff dues are paid, not by the foreigner, but by competitive producers or consumers in the home country. These things are done no better in America than in France.

The excitement in Berlin over the reelection of Herr Kaufmann as Second Bürgermeister is convincing evidence that autocratic rule cannot extinguish the inborn tendency of the German to stand up for his Constitutional rights. After having learned that Herr Kaufmann was *persona non grata* to the Imperial authorities, less courageous people than the members of the Municipal Council would have chosen some one else. The Councillors, on the contrary, have dared high official displeasure by reëlecting Herr Kaufmann, even after it was rumored that the Emperor himself had directed his rejection for certain trivial reasons connected with his military service, some twenty years ago. The refusal of the Governor of Brandenburg to transmit the certificate of the second election to the Emperor or to the Prussian Minister of the Interior will widen the growing breach between the capital and the court not a little, even if the plan for tramway lines across Unter den Linden should finally receive the Emperor's sanction, as now seems likely, in spite of his refusal to discuss the matter with the Bürgermeister. One of the chief reasons for Berlin's dislike of the Emperor is his continued absence from the city. Not for years has Berlin profited so little in a business way from the ostensible presence of the court as at present, and her tradesmen have not been slow to express their discontent.

Professor Suess of Vienna finds the plan of the new German tariff scheme faulty in theory, and very hard to put into practice. The main aim of the law was to keep the peasant on the land, and check the flow of population toward the towns by imposing high duties on cereals. It was supposed that these duties would make possible the payment of higher agricultural wages, by enabling landowners to get better prices for their products, and thus keep the peasants from drifting to the cities in search of work in manufacturing enterprises. The main error in this notion is, of course, found in the failure of the new law to provide any means of transferring the higher returns in agriculture from the pockets of landowners to those of laborers. It cannot be argued that, because the repeal of the British corn laws increased the growth of English towns, the reverse effect will be produced in Germany by the imposition of high duties. The real difficulty lies in the privileges of the great landowners and the existence of large estates, and can be removed only by changing these conditions. Professor Suess is right also in pointing out that no changes whatever can alter some of the main factors of the problem. The attractions of city life and the demand for personal service in cities will continue to make heavy drains on the rural population, tariff or no tariff.

THE NEW CANAL TREATY.

The state of public opinion, both in this country and in Great Britain, on the Isthmian Canal question is much more placid than it was at the expiration of the last session of Congress. The Hay-Pauncefote treaty had been amended by the Senate in three particulars, and while these amendments did not seem objectionable to Great Britain in substance, they were objectionable in form. The chief objection was that one of these amendments bluntly declared the Clayton-Bulwer treaty abrogated. There is good reason for thinking that, if a friendly negotiation in the usual course of diplomacy had been initiated by our Government, having for its object the abrogation of that treaty, and the substitution in its place of the principles of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, it would have been conceded by Lord Lansdowne. But the method adopted by the Senate of disposing of the older treaty without consultation or notice beforehand was too abrupt. Lord Lansdowne found himself confronted by precedents and by public opinion at home and on the Continent of Europe strongly opposed to that method of setting aside old agreements. So the Senate's amendments were rejected by Great Britain, and the treaty fell with the amendments.

Except for this matter of form, the amendments of the Senate were not in conflict with British interests, or with the contentions of the British Government. The amendments were three in number. The first declared the Clayton-Bulwer treaty superseded by the new treaty. The second provided that none of the conditions or stipulations in certain sections designated by their numbers should apply to measures which the United States might find it necessary to take for securing, by its own forces, the defence of the United States and the maintenance of order. The particular clause which forbade the fortification of the canal, or the water adjacent thereto, was not one of the sections thus designated. In other words, any measure which we might deem it necessary to take for our defence must stop short of the erection of fortifications commanding the canal or the entrances thereto. The third amendment simply struck out the clause which pledged the high contracting powers to invite other nations to adhere to the treaty. It did not forbid their doing so, but repealed the clause which imposed such action upon them as a matter of obligation.

The treaty as amended provided that the canal should be free and open in time of war, as in time of peace, to the vessels of commerce and of war of all nations, on terms of entire equality, without discrimination in charges, conditions of traffic, or otherwise. It stipulated also that no fortifications should be erected commanding the canal or the waters adjacent. These were the principles with which foreign nations were most concerned. Great Britain was more concerned with them than others, simply because her commerce was greater. They embraced the essential principles of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty.

The provisions of the new treaty have not been made public, but there have been outgivings through English newspapers that it embraces in substance the Senate amendments to the former treaty. We should not be surprised if it should so turn out. At the same time it would not be fair to assume that England has surrendered everything in the new arrangement, since she has gained the main point for which she contended in the former negotiation, viz., that an earlier treaty should not be set aside without previous consultation between the parties which had bound themselves by it. However, it is not for us to study the *amour propre* of Great Britain. We are concerned with our own future course of action. Assuming that the new treaty does embrace the substance of the Senate's amendments, can that body be depended on to ratify its own work a second time? Undoubtedly there are some members of the body of both political parties who are always on the lookout for disagreements with England, and who may be expected to turn corners on themselves in order to fulfil their destiny in this behalf. They are those who are most amenable to the influence of Irish discontent, of Home Rulers, Land Leaguers, Fenians, etc. They are less numerous, however, and less in evidence than at any former time in the present generation. They are not in sufficient force, we think, to put in peril the ratification of the new treaty.

The new treaty will have the prestige of both the late President McKinley, under whose eye the negotiation was conducted, and of President Roosevelt, who has adopted it and made it the first essay of foreign policy in his Administration—that is, the first in point of time. An additional source of strength may probably be found in the support of Senator Lodge, who, next to the late Senator Davis, was the most active member in promoting the amendments to the former treaty. It may be assumed that he will be moved, both by the feeling of parentage of those features of the treaty and by his friendship for the head of the new Administration, to give his hearty support to the new negotiation. It is needless to add that, if the Senate should reject a treaty which concedes the substance of all that it contended for last year, it would stand in a sinister light before the nation and the world.

OPPOSITION TO THE SHIP SUBSIDY.

Mr. Henderson, Speaker of the last House of Representatives, and destined to fill the same place in the new one, made a speech at Manchester, Iowa, on Thursday last, in which he touched upon several questions of public interest that are likely to receive attention at the coming session of Congress. Among the subjects selected for brief treatment was that of shipping subsidies, on which he delivered his opinion thus:

> "I have never discussed specifically the question of building up the merchant marine and the great shipping interests of the United States, but this question can no longer be neglected by those looking to the best interests of our country. It is a new problem to us to give financial aid to the ship interests, and I confess that I am not satisfied with any legislation thus far proposed by Congress; but if a wise plan can be devised looking to the interests of our commerce and the country and not to purely individual interests, then it should command careful, patriotic, and fearless attention."

The belief prevailed in Washington last winter that the Speaker was opposed to the Hanna-Payne bill in all the shapes that it assumed. He now confirms that belief by the express statement that he was "not satisfied with any legislation thus far proposed by Congress." The Hanna-Payne bill in its numerous amended forms is thus pitched out of the window. But that is not all. The Speaker gives no sign that he is in favor of any subsidy whatever. If a measure were proposed in the interests of commerce and the country, and "not purely individual interests," then it should receive "careful, patriotic, and fearless attention." This is as much as saying that the Hanna-Payne bill was, as we have frequently pointed out, a measure for purely individual interests. But even if the bill were purged of purely individual interests, Mr. Henderson would pledge himself only to give it careful attention. There is something to be said in favor of each ship floating on its own bottom, as of each tub standing on its own, and doubtless the ex-Speaker had this thought in his mind when he made his speech. Certainly the ship-subsidy schemers can find no encouragement in his remarks at Manchester. Yet we would not advise them to nominate a candidate in opposition to him for the next Speakership.

Mr. Henderson is not the only person who has treated the subsidy schemers to a dash of cold water lately. At the very time when Senators Hanna and Frye were in conference at Boston fixing up a new bill, the Republican Convention of Massachusetts assembled there and proceeded to damn the whole project with faint praise. They passed a resolution on the subject in these words:

> "Merchant Marine: We favor governmental aid in building up our merchant marine on a just and equitable basis toward all American citizens."

Seeing that the two leading Senatorial advocates of the Hanna-Payne bill were then laboring on this identical measure within sound of their voices, was it not

unkind on the part of the Republicans of Massachusetts to veil their thoughts under such ambiguous language? Perhaps they had fore-knowledge of what the iron-workers and the cotton-spinners were about to assert on the subject. Hitherto the workingmen's organizations have had little to say about the subsidy—perhaps, because they did not thoroughly understand it. But, on the 2d inst., the National Bridge and Iron Workers held their Convention in Boston and passed resolutions condemning the ship-subsidy bill as "unwise, unfair, and unjustifiable." They went so far as to direct that a copy of the resolutions be sent to each Congressman representing their local unions, "to say that if he does not vote against said bill, the iron-workers will oppose his reëlection to Congress, regardless of party affiliations."

The National Spinners' Association of America also met at Boston and took similar action. After observing with pleasure that the shipping industry is now growing more rapidly than for many years past, they say that the ship-subsidy bill discriminates in favor of certain shipping interests, so allied together that they could, by the aid of the subsidy proposed for their benefit, form a Shipping Trust which would control the shipping business of this country; that this bill offers no help to the wage-earner or the producer, and holds out no hope for a reduction in freight rates, in which the masses of the people are interested. For these reasons the National Spinners' Association "protest against the consideration or passage by the next Congress of the ship-subsidy bill and urge our representatives to oppose it."

Of course, Senator Frye will report the bill again. Senator Hanna will support it, with an eye single to the public good, for which he has been so solicitous in times past, and he may pick up one or two Southern Democrats of the McLaurin type who are moved by like solicitude; but we think that the scheme has seen its best days, and that it will never be as strong again as it was in the last Congress.

AMERICAN CAPITAL ABROAD.

Recent economic developments have perhaps furnished no surprises greater than that caused by the appearance of American capital in foreign fields of investment. During the past twelvemonth large transportation interests in London have been acquired by one American capitalist, and an important British steamship line has passed under the control of another. More lately still extensive operations looking toward the control of the English tobacco trade have been undertaken. The purchase of Belgian glass works by an American company has shown that Continental industries, as well as English, may be invaded.

The encroachments of American capital are neither so extensive nor of so permanent a character as to warrant the extravagant anticipations here and there expressed. Taken for what they are worth, however, they indicate the existence of certain new conditions. American raw products, needless to say, have long enjoyed an extremely wide foreign market, and our manufactured goods have been for some time in increasing demand. But these facts must not be confused with the successful competition of American capitalists with foreign. That the United States would lead the way in productive enterprise of every sort was predicted by J. S. Mill more than fifty years ago. Although the revival of a high-tariff policy after the war hindered this prophecy from being realized, its fulfilment is now in plain sight, as is attested by this year's address of Sir Robert Giffen before the British Scientific Association. In this discussion Mr. Giffen made the most confident predictions regarding the future in store for the United States.

The appearance of American capital in foreign investment markets is a phenomenon of an entirely different character. Successful competition of American products with those of foreigners is proof only of the greater power of our machinery of production. Success of American capital in competition with foreign shows either that our opportunities of remunerative investment at home are becoming narrow, or that some corner of their field has been left uncultivated by our rivals. As a matter of fact, the present industrial situation is the result in some degree of both of these conditions. The increase of capital in the United States is demonstrated not merely by the marvellous growth of deposits and savings of all kinds, but by the considerable reduction in interest rates in New York and generally throughout the country. But abundance of capital must be spoken of relatively to the field for its investment, and it would be absurd to suppose that our natural resources have been as fully utilized as those of many other countries. The chief explanation of the movement of American capital abroad must be found in the form in which our industries are organized. To this must be added the fact that in some fields of enterprise opportunities have been strangely neglected by our competitors.

Both of these causes are purely personal in their nature, and can be attributed only to the superiority of the American business man. If the organization of our industry is more powerful or our investors are quicker to seize an opportunity for favorable investment, it must be because those in control of capital are better able to use it than are their competitors. The difference between American methods of organizing industry and those chiefly in vogue in foreign countries may be seen from the description recently issued by the Bureau of Foreign Commerce at Washington, under the title, "Trusts and Trade Combinations in Europe." From this volume it appears that the organization of industry abroad differs from American in that the combinations formed there are looser in structure, while the administrative control is far less centralized than with our own "Trusts." In Germany many of the recent combinations of capital are merely "selling-pools," similar to the American Pipe Trust of a few years ago. In these organizations the amount of production to be permitted is apportioned to each mill, and the agreement is merely "an iron-clad compact in which each contracting party agrees to submit without conditions to all rules and measures adopted by the syndicate, or in default to be fined for disobedience. In the allotment of orders the plants nearest the frontier or tidewater are favored, because they can most easily export their surplus, which, if allowed to accumulate, might depress the market at home." Similar organizations exist in England, as may be seen from the history of the cotton-thread and textile combinations. How inefficient these modes of organization really are is evident from the recent difficulties in the English textile industry and in the German coal and iron trade. That they are inadequate was testified when the American Tobacco Company secured its footing in England. It was then said that the only way to combat American competition would be found in a total reorganization of industry on American lines, by which was meant the introduction of our system of "Trusts."

But a mere question of organization should never be allowed to obscure the facts at the bottom of that condition. The superior organization of American industry can be attributed only to the greater efficiency and skill of the American. Investments of capital in foreign enterprises have occurred in those lines of business which had been shamefully slighted by foreign capitalists. Even the most casual observer could not fail to be impressed by the weakness of English municipal transportation, as compared with our own, while the situation in other lines may perhaps be fairly represented by the state of the iron trade, in which many processes that were discarded by American manufacturers, ten years ago, are still employed. There is no ground for foreign investors to fear competition with surplus American capital driven from home to contest with them their too limited opportunities. Recent industrial history is merely a demonstration of power on our part to earn profits where their possibility was unsuspected by others.

CREDULITY ABOUT TAMMANY.

"It has made them so credulous," said Mr. Gladstone once, speaking of men, like the Duke of Westminster, who had been "thrown off their balance by Home Rule." He referred, doubtless, to the extravagant things they were led to believe and say of himself, bent on "wrecking the Empire," and so on, as they alleged him to be. For all this they handsomely apologized when Gladstone died. But political credulity did not die. The capacity of ordinarily reasonable and sagacious men to deceive themselves when political passions are aroused and political prejudices appealed to, and to believe what they wish to in the face of the plainest evidence to the contrary, is endless and indestructible. It is this easy political credulousness alone which explains the readiness of some good men to see a sign of repentance and a promise of reform, on the part of Tammany, in its nomination of Mr. Shepard.

Mr. Shepard himself has declared it a "sinister" act to go on distrusting Tammany after it has put on a mask of respectability; and one of his supporters asserted in the columns of the *Evening Post*, last week, that the nomination of Mr. Shepard proves Tammany now to be willing "to coöperate with the reformers" in trying to secure "good government under new leadership." Now we shall not yield to a natural impulse to scoff at such simplicity, and to remind Messrs. Shepard and Emmet of the saying of Mephistopheles in Auerbach's cellar—namely, that some people have no suspicion of the devil even when he has them by the throat. We prefer to argue the case seriously. And what we say is that Tammany must be judged, not by a single act, but by its general course; that a fountain cannot give forth both sweet water and bitter; that a worthy name at the head of the ticket may be intended as but a screen for the suspicious characters all the way down; and that before we are asked to believe in the sincerity of repentance, we must be shown its meet fruits.

Tammany's completed ticket is now before the city. Does it argue any real intention to purge and live cleanly? A man who will believe that would believe anything. Putting Mr. Shepard's name one side, the nominations are made strictly on the old Tammany principles. The service of ruffians is rewarded. Subserviency gets its price. Arrangements are craftily made to tie Mr. Shepard's hands as tightly as possible, in case he is elected. And in the chief engineer's room is Croker, pulling the levers and working for his own pocket all the time. That is what the average clear-eyed and open-minded man sees Tammany doing. He does not so easily forget the past. He remembers the boasted "new Tammany" of 1890; and he also remembers how it speedily showed itself in 1894 to be the same old rotten Tammany. The more it changes, the more it is the same thing.

We have, as reasonable men, to consider the balance of probabilities. Which is more likely, that Tammany took Mr. Shepard as an earnest of reform, or as a means of preventing imminent defeat and of staving off real reform? The theory of Mr. Shepard's friends is that Croker went about looking for the most incorruptible nominee possible, and jumped at the name of Mr. Shepard. But there are a dozen theories with more facts on their side than this. One of them is the theory so plainly certified to by the open statements of the Brooklyn Democratic machine—that is, that Croker was the victim of a trick; that he was frightened at the revolt in Tammany in behalf of Mr. Coler, and agreed to take any Brooklyn man except Coler; and that then the Brooklyn schemers named Mr. Shepard. That supposition is certainly more in accord with the known facts than the hypothesis that Croker's instinctive longing was for an honest and reforming Mayor.

But what more could Tammany have done? it is plaintively asked. Much more, we assert, and much more might have been done by Mr. Shepard. He has appealed to Tilden, and to Tilden shall he go. It was in 1871 that Mr. Tilden, as Chairman of the Democratic State Committee, was asked to make a compromise with Tweed. He was told that he could "name every delegate in the State Convention" if he would assent. Other offers were repeatedly made to him to induce him to "let up" on Boss Tweed and to be "regular," but, said Mr. Tilden:

> "I always declined, telling them that I would not surrender; and I told the State Convention distinctly that I felt it to be my duty to oppose any men who would not go for making the government of the city what it should be, at whatever cost or sacrifice; and that if they did not deem that regular, *I would retire, and take position in the ranks of my plundered fellow-citizens.*"

Mr. Tilden did retire, in the sense that he supported the Republicans, feeling sure, he said, that they could not overthrow the Tweed ring "unaided," and that it was his duty to stand by them in the attack upon a "band of cormorants." This Mr. Shepard might have done in opposition to the cormorants of 1901. Or, if he were the strong and determined man his friends represent him, he could have insisted upon dictating the Tammany platform—cutting out its brazen glorification of its own misdeeds; he could have insisted upon naming the candidates to be associated with him, and, if his own terms were not met, he could have contemptuously left Tammany to wallow in its own pit. But, having done none of these things, having consented to stand on a Tammany platform, surrounded by Tammany associates, with no word of apology for the past or promise for the future, he cannot blame citizens who think him a victim of Tammany wiles. He may have been misled by an honorable ambition; his faithful friends may have been tricked; but no man who has studied and known Tammany as the chief public enemy can be credulous enough to suppose that it is not his first duty to wage unceasing war against the unclean thing.

MR. SHEPARD ON PLEDGES.

An English statesman was accused of taking "too literary" a view of politics. Mr. Shepard's fault is that of taking too narrowly legal a view. His speech on Saturday night was that of a *nisi-prius* lawyer. He argued as one who had been retained in a difficult case, and who thought, by subtle distinctions and by skilful special pleading, to obscure the great issues of fact and policy which glare at the common mind. In his dread of being specific and his horror of naming names, he gave the impression of an amiable philosopher dwelling in a vacuum and reasoning about abstract quiddities, instead of grappling resolutely with the concrete corruption and the embodied knavery upon which the excited attention of all citizens of New York is now fastened.

Mr. Shepard put his refusal to give a pledge to remove definitely named and offensive officials on high Constitutional grounds, and accused Mr. Low of having practically violated his oath of office in advance by publicly promising to drive out Murphy and Devery from the Police Department at his earliest opportunity. Why, exclaimed the pained Mr. Shepard, Mr. Low has overlooked the fact that the "successful candidate" must make oath that he has "not made any promise to influence the giving or withholding of any vote." Now, to answer a lawyer according to his legality, we have to say that Mr. Shepard is wholly wrong as to his law. The Mayor of New York has to take no such oath as he describes. The Constitutional provision which he cites applies to "members of the Legislature and all officers [of the State], executive and judicial, except such as shall be by law exempted." In the Charter of New York, the oath of office for this city is said, in section 1548, simply to be "faithfully to perform the duties of his office."

But we would not rest the matter upon a fragile technicality like that. Mr. Shepard appeals to the spirit and "fundamental theory" of the provision in the State Constitution against making "any promise" to influence voters. But are his eyes so blinded that he cannot see how the whole implication is of a *corrupt* promise? It stands in immediate connection with the prohibition of bribery by "money or other valuable thing." Who would be earlier or louder than Mr. Shepard, if his mind were working

with its normal lucidity, in laughing at the contention that Mr. Low's pledge to remove two rascals from office is in violation of the Constitution? Why, a strained and fantastic interpretation of that kind would prevent a candidate from making any declaration of his purposes whatever. He could not promise to be honest or economical; he could not vow to be pure in office and to choose only fit subordinates; he could not open his lips to tell interested and expectant voters what he intended or hoped to do for their benefit, without having Mr. Shepard, in his present mood, down upon him with the threat of a judicial ouster for having violated the Constitution! Surely, Mr. Shepard's much meditation on an ingenious defence of silence about Devery has made him mad.

And the worst of it is, that Mr. Shepard's dramatic refusal to give an unconstitutional pledge was immediately followed up by his giving such a pledge. He would not name Devery or Murphy; that would be too shocking. But he did make the "public pledge" (flatly unconstitutional, as he had just maintained) to have a Police Commissioner who would represent "by day or by night the ideas of public order, public morality, and public decency which are held by Edward M. Shepard." There can be no doubt that he intended that to be taken by the enemies of Devery as equivalent to saying that he must go. It is so taken and proclaimed by Mr. Shepard's friends. But how futile and unfortunate is Mr. Shepard's attitude of promising in effect what he refuses with indignation to promise in words. Moreover, directly after rebuking Mr. Low for notifying Devery that he would be removed from office, Mr. Shepard gave his own pledge to Devery *not* to remove him except under conditions. He said: "No man, whatever my present impressions or opinion of him, and however strong my impression may be now, shall, by any promise I now give, be deprived of the right to submit his case to me as a sworn Mayor in office, ready, with an unclosed mind, to hear his defence, if he has one." That is a distinct pledge to Devery. It may hold out no ultimate hope for him, but it is a promise, calculated to "influence" him and his fellow-ruffians in the giving of their votes to Mr. Shepard, and is a promise by a man who had just called heaven to witness that he would never make one!

Mr. Shepard's speech shows him to have a refining and elusive turn of mind most unhappy in a man called upon to attack the enormous problem of municipal reform. People will fear that a man who can find such far-fetched and hair-splitting reasons for not saying in advance that he will do a certain thing, may discover some recondite excuse for not doing it afterwards. And his shrinking from the mention of publicly recognized scoundrels by name is very much to his prejudice at this juncture. People think of personalities, not abstractions. They do not care about corruption in the abstract, but want to get rid of individual corruptionists. To the voters of New York, inefficiency and indecency in the Police Department are only another way of spelling the names of Murphy and Devery. Why should Mr. Shepard be so timid about names that are in everybody's mouth but his?

His excessive caution, his arguing away like an Irrefragable Doctor instead of a fearless fighter, cannot but chill and alarm his oldest friends. Certainly, the situation in this city requires great plainness of speech and a pamphlet-like singling out of offenders by name. In place of his remote speculation about abstract principles of law, Mr. Shepard would appear to vastly better advantage if he would be as precise and personal as Mr. Low. The Tammany candidate seemed to think his pose was heroic in refusing to say the word "Devery." But heroic, or melodramatic, or however it may be called, it was not the posture of an unflinching reformer or of a prophet unafraid. When the city of Jerusalem was in a bad way, the word of the Lord came to his messenger with entire disregard of the feelings of a corrupt official. "Go, get thee unto this treasurer, even unto Shebna [Hebrew for Devery] and say, What doest thou here? . . . *I will thrust thee from thy office.*" But they "didn't know everything down in Judee," neither did they live under the mysterious inhibitions of the Constitution of the State of New York!

SWISS MOUNTAIN RAILWAYS AND PASSES.

VILLA SERBELLONI,
BELLAGGIO, September 16, 1901.

When Adolf Guyer-Zeller, the enterprising Swiss railway president, died two years and a half ago, it was commonly assumed that the railway up to the summit of the Jungfrau (13,670 feet above sea level), which he had projected and commenced building would never be completed. The last edition of Baedeker's 'Switzerland' (a book which is always surprisingly up to date and omniscient) declares that his death "has made the complete realization of this bold undertaking somewhat problematical." When I arrived in the Bernese Oberland, a few weeks ago, I was therefore eager to ascertain the state of affairs at headquarters.

Before going to the Little Scheidegg, where the Jungfrau Railway begins, we spent a couple of weeks on the opposite slope, at Mürren—a proceeding which I commend to all tourists who have plenty of time, because, in my opinion, no other easily accessible place in Switzerland except Zermatt commands, from the eminences surrounding it, such glorious views of giant peaks, vast snowfields, and stupendous glaciers. The amphitheatric grouping, too, of the snowy mountains makes Mürren perhaps the best of all Swiss resorts for admiring the Alpine glow after sunset, which always causes a stampede for the door among the guests of the Hôtel des Alpes in the middle of dinner. The finest viewpoint in the neighborhood is the Schilthorn, which even women who are not experts can climb. Its summit is 9,753 feet high, and just as we reached it, an avalanche tumbled down from the snowfields of the Tschingelhorn, directly opposite, which several guides, who happened to be present, said was the grandest they had ever seen. A mass of snow and ice bigger than a cathedral fell straight down the precipitous rock, at least two thousand feet. Half way down, a ledge divided it into two falls, while a fresh supply of snow from above made the white, thundering mass continuous from top to bottom.

It was while coming down from the Schilthorn to Mürren one day in August, 1893, that Guyer-Zeller conceived the plan for the Jungfrau Railroad that is at present being carried out. Before him lay the giant group consisting of the Eiger, Mönch, and Jungfrau, and far below them, looking like a child's toy, was the Wengernalp Railway, taking tourists up to the Scheidegg. "Why not begin the Jungfrau Railway at the Scheidegg instead of in the Lauterbrunnen or Grindelwald valley?" he said to himself. "That would give us a start and a saving of 3,500 to 4,000 feet." The arrangements were made in accordance with this plan, and in September, 1898, the first section of the road was ready for use. To-day the Swiss time-tables have a section headed "Jungfrau-Bahn"—nine trains a day from Scheidegg to Eiger Glacier in sixteen minutes, and thence, in eight minutes more, to the second station, Rothstock, at an altitude of 8,270 feet. This, to be sure, leaves 5,400 feet still to be ascended; but the technical difficulties have all been triumphantly overcome, and the sole question now to be solved is of a financial nature. Will this railway, if sufficient money for its completion can be raised, ever pay?

This question was, of course, considered at the outset. It was estimated that the total cost would be about $2,000,000, and the gross annual receipts nearly $150,000, which would leave a fair margin for a profit. It was natural to suppose that Guyer-Zeller's sanguine nature had led him to overestimate the future receipts; but present indications seem to point the other way. We did not ourselves patronize the new railway, but walked from the Scheidegg to the Eiger Glacier and back; the trains that passed us were crowded. The cost of the round trip from Scheidegg to the present terminus is just a dollar. I see in a Berne newspaper that the number of passengers carried by the Wengernalp Railway, which feeds the Jungfrau Railway from the Lauterbrunnen Valley, was 43,835 during the single month of August—a gain of 3,395 over August, 1900. The cost of a second-class round-trip ticket to the Scheidegg (including ascent or descent on the Grindelwald side) is nearly $5; and it stands to reason that a large proportion of those who go as far as the Scheidegg would be glad to pay the additional $7, which would take them to the top of the Jungfrau—commanding a view of unspeakable grandeur—and back again. At present the cost of the ascent of this mountain, with guides and a porter, is $20 to $40 for each person, not to speak of the toil—to

which few are equal—and the danger to life or limb.

Fredrich Wrubel, the inspector of the Jungfrau Railway, has written a ninety-two page brochure, 'Ein Winter in der Gletscherwelt,' which, I am not surprised to find, is already in its third edition. As its title intimates, it describes some of the novel experiences of the builders of the Jungfrau Railway during a winter spent at the entrance to the tunnel, by the side of the huge and magnificent Eiger glacier. Up to that time this famous glacier had been merely ornamental; it was now made useful, too, for the time being. As all communication with Lauterbrunnen and Interlaken was cut off during the winter storms, it was necessary to put the perishable parts of the supply of food needed for eighty men into cold storage, and for this the crevasses of the glacier seemed just the place. It was found, however, that the meat thus stored spoiled too soon after being thawed out, so it was decided to bring up live cattle, swine, and sheep, for the next winter. As to water, the glacier remained the only source, besides the fresh snow, which was melted by electricity, of which there was enough and to spare for all purposes. Electricity lighted and heated the buildings and cooked the food, besides boring the tunnel and moving the construction-cars—all at an elevation of a mile and a half above sea!

The laborers were well taken care of. They received from 86 to 94 cents a day, besides good food and lodging, each man having six blankets to keep him warm at night. Moreover, the company took care of those who fell ill, and gave each one a free life or disability insurance for $1,200. But, as Herr Wrubel remarks, "the better some laborers are treated, the more they demand." There was a strike; the men asking, among other things, for their full wages on Sundays and holidays because they were not *allowed* to work! This was too much for the directors, and they paid off twenty of the most obstreperous men. These realized their folly at once, and endeavored repeatedly to get back; but the directors decided to make an example of them, and their places were at once filled. A pathetic account is also given of the only serious accident that occurred, six men, owing to non-observance of the rules regarding the use of dynamite, being blown to fragments in the tunnel. The funeral procession, amid these wintry Alpine surroundings, must have been as impressive a scene, even without music, as Siegfried's death in Wagner's opera. Herr Wrubel also describes the æsthetic aspects of the scenery, and what he says on this head is tantalizing and somewhat exasperating to us summer tourists; for he tells us that in winter the mountains are clearer and look higher and more shapely than in summer, the sunsets and the Alpine glow are more thrilling, the moon and starlight effects incomparable, and the storms tremendously exciting and delightful to those who love Nature in her wildest moods. Of scientific interest are the remarks on pp. 26, 27, where the author describes the changing colors of the glacier, which were found to be more reliable weather prophets than the costliest barometers.

The Jungfrau tunnel has now reached an altitude of about 9,100 feet above sea-level, and will, therefore, soon attain the level of the Gornergrat Railroad at Zermatt (10,290), which is at present the highest railway in Europe. The chief engineer, M. Gobat, declares that the highest and most difficult section of the Jungfrau Railway will, if completed, hardly pay for itself; but in any case, he says, the tunnel will have to be carried up to the Jungfraujoch, 11,090 feet above sea. Here the passengers will step from the cars right on to the seemingly illimitable dazzling snowfields, whence it is a climb of only 2,580 feet to the summit. The superb view from the Jungfraujoch will in itself repay the trip; but the projectors of the road have planned a bold scheme, which will fascinate tourists by its striking novelty as well as its intrinsic attractiveness. As soon as the trains run up to this station it will be possible to cross over from the Bernese Oberland to the Valais region, not by means of a mountain railway on the other side, but on sleighs speeding across the moderate and smooth slopes of the huge Aletsch glacier, which is only ten kilometres from Brig, where the Simplon tunnel begins, and whence also Zermatt and the Matterhorn can be reached in a few hours more by rail.

Switzerland has long felt the need of a short and direct road connecting, as will the one just described, the Oberland and the Valais, especially for the benefit of tourists (and the republic lives on tourists) whose time is limited. When one looks at the map, the détours one has to make at present seem comic. As the bee flies, it is only about twenty miles from Mürren to Brig, in the Rhone valley, but on account of the intervening mountain giants one needs two days or more, by carriage or on foot, to go from one of those points to the other by way of the Grimsel or Gemmi pass, or a very long day by rail via Berne and Lausanne—which is like going from New York to Tarrytown by way of Boston and Albany. About ten years ago a railway was planned to run from Spiez, near Interlaken, to the Rhone Valley in the Valais, and a small section of road, commanding splendid views of the Blümlisalp and other snow-peaks was opened this summer as far as Frutigen; but the remainder calls for so long and expensive a tunnel that it will probably not be completed for another decade if ever.

Personally, I do not care if this railway —or any railway that depends for its existence on a long tunnel—is ever built. I prefer to walk over the tunnels, as high as possible, for mountain passes seem to me the most interesting of all points of view. As seen from the valleys, the peaks are of course higher; but, being less near, they are not so imposing. From the peaks one can look down only, but from the passes one looks up, too, at the snowy summits, which are the crowning glory of all. The desolate and forbidding aspect of the passes in their highest stretches affects a true mountain-lover like a grand tragedy; and when he has enjoyed this to the full, a delight of a different sort awaits him in the descent, on the other side, into the smiling green valleys. We specially planned our trip this year so as to take in as many passes as possible, and to enjoy twice the sudden passage from the Swiss snowfields to the luxuriant chestnuts, figs, and vineyards of Italy. From Munich we went to Thusis, via Lindau and Chur; then up the Splügen pass and down on the San Bernardino side—where the quaint Italian villages clinging to the steep mountain slopes add much to the interest of the scene—as far as Bellinzona. Thence back to Switzerland and—by way of exception, to gain time—ignominiously through the St. Gothard tunnel, which, by the way, is not so well ventilated as it used to be.

At Goeschenen we left the train and walked to the top of the Furka pass, where, after a day of rain, we enjoyed the sunrise on the snowfields of the well-named Finsteraarhorn and the Schreckhorn—two of the Bernese peaks which it is difficult to see elsewhere to such advantage. From the Furka down to the Rhone Glacier, and up again across the Grimsel pass, was a day's tramp, fatiguing but glorious, as we had never before been favored with such perfect weather in this region. On leaving the Oberland, we took the Gemmi pass on the way to the Matterhorn, and, after spending ten days at the Riffelalp and the Schwarzsee, we went to Brig and across the Simplon pass down again into Italy and to the Villa Serbelloni, the finest point on the Italian lakes. I give this itinerary because, after spending half-a-dozen summers in Switzerland, it is the one I should specially commend to friends intending to visit that country. It does not include the Engadine, Lucerne, and the Mont Blanc region; but these can be readily embraced in the plan I have given without changing it essentially. I must once more express my surprise and indignation at the American tourists, the vast majority of whom waste their time at such fashionable resorts as St. Moritz, Lucerne, Interlaken, and Geneva, and then fancy they have seen Switzerland. The English know much better where to go, and the Germans and French have gradually learned from them the best places to stay at. Unfortunately, the English have also inconsistently attempted to introduce at the high Alpine resorts the vulgar absurdity of full dress at dinner; but luckily, in that respect, the Continental tourists do not follow their example. I wonder if Englishmen take their evening dress along when they go on hunting trips or to explore Central Africa?

The Simplon is rather too long a pass to walk, so we took the diligence. I cannot agree with Baedeker that the Simplon is preëminent among Alpine passes in point of scenery. I prefer the Furka and the Splügen-Bernardino. But the Simplon is magnificent, no doubt, and it is sad to think that it will become practically a thing of the past, so far as tourists are concerned, when the Simplon Railway is completed, which will be in 1904, or, at the latest, 1905. It was interesting to see the men—miles of them—at work on the Italian side. At Iselle, the southern entrance to the tunnel (which will be 12½ miles long, or 3¼ miles longer than the St. Gothard), a mushroom town has sprung up, with hundreds of wooden houses, mostly hotels, restaurants, beer and wine taverns, clothing, fruit, and provision stores, looking a good deal like a Western American mining town, though with plenty of Italian local color roughly splashed on.

The Simplon, to be sure, is not a real mountain railway, as it dodges all difficulties by creeping through a tunnel. Of genuine mountain railroads—the kind that climb steep slopes—there are now in Switzerland no fewer than twenty-three, and several others are projected. The

names of those now in operation are Vitznau-Rigi, Arth-Rigi (there is a demand for a third one up the Rigi!), Uetliberg, Rorschach-Heiden, Lausanne-Ouchy, Bürgenstock, Pilatus, Beatenberg, Salvatore, Berner-Oberland, Lauterbrunnen-Mürren (the lower part of which will also be changed to electricity next year), Schynige Platte, Visp-Zermatt, Gornergrat, Brienz-Rothorn, Rheineck - Walzenhausen, Wengernalp, Stanserhorn, Dolder, Jungfraubahn, Stanstad-Engelberg, Reichenbach, Lausanne-Signal. I see that the Polygraphic Institute at Zürich has just issued a book on these twenty-three railways, with technical information as well as scenic descriptions, and 329 illustrations.

They must be doing a brisk business, these mountain railways, or there would not be so many of them. In their rapid multiplication, I see one of the most characteristic distinctions between Switzerland and Norway. We visited Norway in July under the impression that it was a mountainous country. So it is, no doubt; there are thousands of mountains, but there are no arrangements for stopping on them, the hotels being, with very few exceptions, built at sea level, along the fjords. I met other tourists, who, like ourselves, hunted eagerly for mountain hotels, but could not find any. The Swiss are wiser. They build their hotels where they are wanted, up the mountains, at elevations of from 2,000 to 10,000 feet above the sea, where the air is most bracing and the scenery most imposing; and they build mountain railways to make them comfortably accessible. There are, to be sure, individuals who growl that these railways and hotels spoil the Alps; but that is arrant nonsense. They make them accessible to thousands, where formerly only a few dozen robust persons could enjoy them; and as for solitude, there is not a Swiss mountain hotel whence one cannot, by ten minutes' walk, get to spots where all sound and sight of man vanishes, and one can be alone with Nature in her sublimest moods. HENRY T. FINCK.

PRINCESS LIEVEN.—I.

PARIS, October 3, 1901.

It is interesting to note that, since the democratic element is becoming more predominant, the part played in politics by women is becoming less and less apparent. It is partly because, in a state of society which is more or less aristocratic, the influence of what the French call the *salons* is perforce important. Among the ladies who played a notable part in politics in the first half of the nineteenth century there is one who, in many respects, has remained somewhat enigmatic, namely, the Princess Lieven, so well known for many years in England as well as in France. M. Ernest Daudet, brother of the famous novelist Alphonse Daudet, well known himself by some valuable historical works, has had the good fortune to be allowed to see the voluminous correspondence of Princess Lieven and M. Guizot, so long Prime Minister under Louis-Philippe. M. Daudet has lately written an essay on Princess Lieven which is extremely remarkable, not only in an historical but also, I may say, in a psychological sense, as it throws a great light on the relations of M. Guizot, who was an austere Protestant, with Princess Lieven—relations which have not always been quite intelligible, and in which personal affection and sentimentality were curiously mixed with the treatment of the great affairs of the world.

Dorothea of Benkendorff was born in Russia in the year 1784. At the age of sixteen she became *demoiselle d'honneur* to Maria Fedorovna, wife of Tsar Paul I. The Empress married her to Gen. Count Lieven, Minister of War, who became afterwards Prince Lieven. Though Lieven was Minister at the age of twenty-four, he seems to have been a very ordinary man; there was a difference of seven years between husband and wife. In 1809 Lieven was appointed Ambassador to Berlin, where his wife followed him. It was at Berlin that Madame de Lieven became acquainted with the diplomats and statesmen of the time, at a period when Napoleon was still in the ascendant and kept all Europe in a state of fermentation and anxiety.

In 1812 Lieven was appointed Ambassador to London at a very critical period: Napoleon's campaign in Russia was beginning. The Tsar Alexander had renewed with England the diplomatic relations which had been interrupted by the Peace of Tilsit. Madame de Lieven became all-important in English society. The Prince Regent invited her constantly, and she had to meet familiarly his mistresses. It was said at the time her relations with the Prince Regent were not exactly correct, and those rumors lasted even from 1818 to 1820, at a time when she notoriously felt a great passion for Metternich, whose acquaintance she had made at the Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle. M. Daudet has not sufficiently used the Greville Memoirs, which are one of the most valuable historical documents of our time. Greville says:

"The Regent, afterwards George IV., delighted in her company, and she was a frequent guest at the Pavilion, and on very intimate terms with Lady Conyngham, for although Madame de Lieven was not very tolerant of mediocrity, and social and colloquial superiority was necessary to her existence, she always made great allowances for Royalty and those immediately connected with it."

I find in Greville a portrait of Madame de Lieven at the time when she came to England:

"She was at least in the prime of life, and, though without any pretensions to beauty, and, indeed, with some personal defects, she had so fine an air and manner, and a countenance so pretty and so full of intelligence, as to be, on the whole, a very striking and attractive person—quite enough so to have lovers, several of whom she engaged in succession without seriously attaching herself to any."

Greville does not name Metternich among those lovers; he says: "Those who were most notoriously her slaves at different times were the present Lord Willoughby, the Duke of Sutherland (then Lord Gower), the Duke of Canizzaro (then Count San Antonio), and the Duke de Palmella." But Daudet cites letters which prove that Metternich had a right to figure in this list. In February, 1819, she could not be consoled on being separated from Metternich; on September 3 of the same year she writes to him from Middleton, where she was the guest of Lady Jersey:

"Nothing so good as a journey. I am well to-night because I have made seventy miles. If I did as much every day, I should soon be near you. But, my friend, notwithstanding my efforts, I must remain here. Tell me, what will become of us? Can you bear the idea of a still longer separation? If we are resigned for the year 1819, do you think that we can be so for the year 1820? Tell me, Clement, what will become of us? Do you think of that?"

I must add that, in this letter, Madame Lieven uses all the time the *tu* instead of *vous*, which is a mark of much greater intimacy. Metternich was probably not so ardent, though he wrote to her: "I love you (*je t'aime*) as much as I did at the foot of Vesuvius, or among the ruins of Pæstum, or in the Champs-Élysées." M. Daudet gives other passages from Madame de Lieven's letters to Metternich which prove that her affection for him was very strong. Louis XVIII. used to call Metternich "le cher z'amant," in allusion to this liaison, and probably to some vice of pronunciation either in Metternich or in Madame de Lieven. The Princess again met Metternich in 1823 at the Congress of Verona, but she was now forty years old, and the intimacy came to an end.

She returned to London, where she remained till 1834. She became almost a member of the British aristocracy.

"It was her duty," says Greville, "as well as her inclination, to cultivate the members of all the successive Cabinets which passed before her, and she became the friend of Lord Castlereagh, of Canning, the Duke of Wellington, Lord Grey, Lord Palmerston, John Russell, Aberdeen, and many others of inferior note, and she was likewise one of the *habitués* of Holland House, which was always more or less neutral ground, even when Lord Holland was himself a member of the Government."

After the Revolution of 1830, there was great tension between France and Russia. The Tsar Nicolas would for a long time not recognize Louis-Philippe. Talleyrand was sent to London as a member of the Conference which had to decide the fate of Belgium.

"When Talleyrand," says Greville, "came over as Ambassador, there was for some time a sort of antagonism between the two embassies, and particularly between the ladies of each; but Madame de Dino (now Duchesse de Sagan), the niece of Talleyrand, was so clever, and old Talleyrand himself so remarkable and so agreeable, that Madame de Lieven was irresistibly drawn towards them."

The beginning of their acquaintance, however was rather trying. Madame de Lieven had the impudence to say to Talleyrand that she felt much surprised at seeing him. "In 1814 you placed Louis XVIII. on the throne; is it not strange that you should now represent the Duke d'Orléans as King of France?" Talleyrand said in answer: "Yes, madam, it is strange, and in 1814 I ought perhaps to have followed the advice of your Emperor Alexander, who was hostile to Louis XVIII. and to the Bourbons, and who advised me to induce the Senate to give the crown to the Duke d'Orléans. I have always remembered it, and, you see, I have now been able to follow his advice." Madame de Lieven was answered, and from that moment she felt that she had better not thwart Talleyrand; in fact, she became very intimate with him, and showed every kind of attention to his niece, Madame de Dino. "Her greatest friend in England," says Greville, "was Lady Cowper, afterwards Lady Palmerston, and through her she was also the friend of Palmerston."

In 1834 the Lievens were recalled and had to return to Saint Petersburg. She found

the stay there odious; her two children fell ill and died almost at the same time. She left Russia, fearing its climate for herself, and went to Italy, where her husband died in 1836. She never returned to Russia. She obtained from the Emperor permission to travel, and he, says M. Daudet, "specially charged her to write to him regularly, as she did when she was Ambassadress, so as to transmit to him the result of her observations on men and things in Continental politics." Madame de Lieven settled in France in 1836, and was soon at home there, familiarizing herself by degrees with a state of things which she called "equalitarian," so different at that time from the aristocratic society of England. Being a foreigner, she could see the Legitimists as well as the Orleanists; she was received at the Tuileries as well as in the Faubourg St.-Germain. She was acquainted with all the diplomatic world. After she had been some little time in Paris, Metternich wrote to the Austrian Ambassador in France: "I am surprised that you never mention in your dispatches to me Prince Talleyrand, nor Count Pozzo di Borgo, nor the Princess Lieven. She must be agitating in some direction, for it is not in her nature ever to remain quiet." "Her salon," says Greville, "became the rendezvous of the best society, and particularly the neutral ground on which eminent men and politicians of all colors could meet, and where her tact and adroitness made them congregate in a sort of social truce." She soon became acquainted with the most important men of the period, with Count Molé, who was a sort of connecting link between the old and the new régime; with M. Thiers, who represented eminently the ideas of the Revolution; with Guizot; with Berryer, the most eloquent of the Legitimists. Her acquaintance with Guizot assumed by degrees a character of intimacy which contributed to fix her completely in France, and it is concerning this closing period of her life and the history of her relations with the man who was for many years, up to the Revolution of 1848, Prime Minister of France, that M. Daudet gives us very abundant and interesting details.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. are about to publish 'Some Women I Have Known,' by Maarten Maartens; 'Student Life and Customs,' by Prof. Henry D. Sheldon of the University of Oregon; 'Lincoln in Story,' compiled by Silas G. Pratt; 'The French People,' by Arthur Hassall; 'Modern Scandinavian Literature,' by Dr. Georg Brandes; 'The Living Races of Mankind,' by H. N. Hutchinson; 'Bookbinding and the Care of Books,' by Douglas Cockerell; 'Britain and the North Atlantic,' by H. J. Mackinder; 'The Nearer East,' by D. G. Hogarth; and 'Financial Crises and Periods of Industrial and Commercial Depression,' by Theodore E. Burton.

Macmillan's latest announcements are 'A Sketch of Semitic Origins, Social and Religious,' by Prof. George A. Barton of Bryn Mawr; 'Select Documents of English History,' by Profs. George B. Adams of Yale and H. Morse Stephens of Cornell; 'Mediæval London,' by Canon W. Benham and Charles Welch; and 'Mexico as I Saw It,' by Mrs. Alec Tweedie.

'The Ruling Passion,' by Henry van Dyke; a second series of 'Views and Reviews,' by W. E. Henley; 'Lives of the Hunted,' by Ernest Seton-Thompson; a sketch of the life of John Trumbull, with a catalogue of his works, by John F. Weir; 'Orloff and his Wife,' translated by Miss Hapgood from the Russian of Maxim Gorky; and 'The Book of the Courtier,' translated by L. E. Opdycke from the Italian of Baldassare Castiglione, are forthcoming from Charles Scribner's Sons.

McClure, Phillips & Co. are about to issue a second volume of Edwin Markham's Poems; and they will have the American imprint of Dent's new edition of Boswell's Johnson in three large volumes, with a topographical introduction by Austin Dobson. The general editor is Arnold Glover. The portrait illustrations will be numerous.

'Fame and Fiction,' a discussion of modern literary celebrities, is in the press of E. P. Dutton & Co.

'The A B C of Banking,' by George M. Coffin, Vice-President of the Phœnix National Bank, will form the fourth volume in the Wall Street Library Series of S. A. Nelson.

Directly to appear with Lippincott's imprint is 'Old Dutch Towns,' by Van W. J. Tuin, with illustrations by W. O. J. Nieuwenkamp.

Among forthcoming works from the Clarendon Press are the Oxford India paper Dickens; Skeat's complete edition of Chaucer, and a miniature volume of Browning's 'Dramatic Lyrics and Romances and Other Poems,' by way of addition to the Oxford Poets series; a complete edition (the first) of Thomas Kyd's extant works, edited by F. S. Boas; 'Nova Legenda Anglie,' first printed by Wynkyn de Worde in 1516, now edited by Dr. Carl Horstmann; and the Peshitto version of the Gospels, edited by G. H. Gwilliam.

Mr. C. H. St. J. Hornby is issuing from his private press ("The Ashendene Press," Shelley House, Chelsea, London) a small edition of Tyndale's translation of 'The Revelacion of Sanct Jhon the Devine.' The printing is from an old fount of black letter, in double column, in black and red; size, a small quarto. Only ten of the fifty-four copies will be for sale. Subscriptions at two guineas may be sent to the above address. Mr. Hornby also contemplates printing Dante's 'Inferno' in the Italian text, from a new fount modelled after an old fifteenth-century fount. The initial letter of each canto may be illumined by hand, and there will be several wood-cut illustrations in the old manner. This, too, will be a limited edition, but not so restricted in numbers.

One of the most beautiful volumes that the past week has brought to our table is 'The New Life of Dante Alighieri; Translation and Pictures by Dante Gabriel Rossetti' (R. H. Russell). The form chosen for this revived work of Rossetti's youth is quarto, and the get-up is in all respects elegant, and worthy of the second half-century of vogue now enjoyed by the translation. The plates are sixteen in number, with Giotto's portrait of Dante in color as frontispiece. There is no list of them, strange to say. Rossetti's fourteen designs include, besides portraits of Miss Siddall, his well-known drawings of "The Salutation of Beatrice in Florence," "Beatrice Denying her Salutation to Dante at a Wedding Feast" (least successfully reproduced), "Dante's Dream," "My lady looks so gentle and so pure," "Beata Beatrix," "I perceived that some were standing beside me," "Dante and Beatrice in Paradise," and (ranking with the last-mentioned as among the finest compositions), "Her ladies with a veil were covering her." Mr. Fitzroy Carrington and W. M. Rossetti supply introductions containing the most needful information about the version and the illustrations. Meritorious as are both these, they are still but an introduction to Dante. There is a veil between him and his gifted translator.

The vague title 'Poems' is again employed for the concluding volume of the little Siddal edition of D. G. Rossetti's verse, which has been "introduced" by his brother William. A good deal of the contents is fragmentary, but "The Bride's Prelude" fills more than half the book. Poems in Italian, French, and Latin, with or without English equivalents, bring up the rear. They are perhaps the most interesting and characteristic of all these pieces.

The late Grant Allen was a guide-book maker, not infallible, but stimulating, because of his independence. His 'Florence' has just been brought out anew in two dainty volumes by L. C. Page & Co., Boston, with numerous photographic illustrations, and is to be commended if only as inspiring that love for the city in which the author said he yielded to no other. The riddle of Botticelli's "Spring" Mr. Allen solved in his own fashion, though it is now hardly a matter of dispute, and the solution does not lie his way. But in this, as in other instances, he does not seek to impose his own judgment.

We note a popular edition of Mr. Frederic Lawrence Knowles's 'Golden Treasury of American Lyrics' (Boston: L. C. Page & Co.), a very pretty book, and unhackneyed in the more recent portion.

The illustrations are the excuse for the form and dress now given to J. A. Mitchell's clever story, 'Amos Judd,' by Messrs. Scribner, and to Anthony Hope's 'Dolly Dialogues,' by R. H. Russell. Mr. A. I. Keller's designs in color for the former are as unconventional as the fiction of *Life's* editor, and possess not a little merit. Even where they fall short, they do not cheapen the typographic effect. Mr. H. C. Christy serves Mr. Hope in black and white, in Gibson's manner, but with a title of his own to distinction, especially in his groupings. The book is showy and truly handsome.

We do not feel sure that Mark Twain's first doubt about the propriety of publishing 'English as She Is Taught,' just reissued by the Century Co., was not justified. In humorous examples of the sort here collected from the mouths or pens of schoolchildren by Caroline B. Le Row, a very little goes a great way, since a protracted broad grin is tiresome. Moreover, we lack here the witty thread which gives at once structure and diversity to Max O'Rell's 'John Bull, Jr.' And still the discriminating can derive much amusement as well as some profit from the world in which a weeping-birch is "the kind of stick that makes you weep," and Longfellow's "Psalm of Life" becomes "Do not tell me that life is a dream, because when I sleep things will not be like I think they are."

The fourth volume of 'Lamb's Biographical Dictionary of the United States' (Boston: James H. Lamb Co.) pursues its con-

scientious but undistinguished way from Hench to Leaming. This does not look as if the rest of the alphabet could be covered in two more volumes, according to the original plan. The subjects are brought pretty well down to date, and (as before) the treatment of stars of the minor magnitudes shows a democratic tendency towards "levelling up" or equalization. There seems to be even less attempt at criticism or characterization than in the earlier volumes: the uninstructed reader may infer, from the length of the notices bestowed on them, that Thomas A. Hendricks was a prominent statesman, and that Mr. Howells is an important author, but as to the quality of statesmanship or authorship he is left in the dark. Are not the facts—parentage, dates, places held, titles of publications, etc.—sufficient, and safe?

Mr. E. T. Cook's recent volume in the Country-Life Library (Charles Scribner's Sons), dealing with 'Gardening for Beginners,' contains much valuable information (witness its five hundred fairly closely printed pages), but in such an ill-arranged order as to bury much of it. Many beginners, too, will be discouraged by the assumption that they have glass houses and the full paraphernalia of the professional gardener at their command. The long array of horticultural varieties discussed may also give a real beginner pause. The chapter dealing with the vegetable garden is perhaps the best part of the book, because most concise.

Mr. F. Schuyler Mathews has prepared an edition of his 'Familiar Trees and their Leaves' (Appletons), with a number of colored plates illustrating about a dozen of the most familiar kinds. The book does not differ essentially from the first edition in other respects. As regards the success of the reproductions of water-colors by the artist and author, it is beyond doubt unqualified, as far as the beauty of the resulting plates is concerned. Some, however, present the trees, as one usually sees them, better than others. Those of the balsam, spruce, and juniper are especially good.

It is the fashion among amateurs to write "Nature Books," and it is perhaps equally the fashion among scientific men to decry them. 'Flowers and Ferns in their Haunts,' by Mabel Osgood Wright (Macmillan), is a fairly representative book of its class. Mrs. Wright is well known, and her nature books are already in the hands of many. Her new volume has its inaccuracies, but it invites us out of doors, and that is saying much for it. A contribution to the sanity of the world is perhaps as great a boon as a contribution to its science.

The fifth volume of Mr. C. P. Lucas's 'Historical Geography of the British Colonies' (H. Frowde) is devoted to Canada, and will contain two parts. The first of these, which is already published, covers the period of the French régime. It is a book of 364 pages, well furnished with maps and lucidly arranged. One particularly remarks that the presence of a geographical motive has not led to baldness, as in the case of Freeman's 'Historical Geography of Europe.' An easy flow of narrative and a fondness for general statement conceal the technical character of the study; anecdotes are frequent, and citations from Horace Walpole show that it is not impossible to illustrate the progress of geography by the letters of a gossip. Mr. Lucas has sought his information in good sources, and where, as is usually the case, he has followed modern writers, his guides are the best. The chief merits of the work are an admirable selection of subjects, a broad-minded regard for the essential points, and directness of statement. When it comes to detail, some small fault-finding might arise from mistakes of fact and the misspelling of proper names; but these will detract hardly any from the usefulness of a symmetrical and well-written work.

It is not probable that the present Sultan of the Ottoman Turks is exactly a person of high ethical ideals; appearances, at least, are against that. But that the book of "Georges Dorys," of which so much has lately been heard, and which has now been Englished ('Private Life of the Sultan of Turkey,' D. Appleton & Co.), is anything else than a very miscellaneous up-gathering of Constantinople gossip, is still less probable. It may all be true, and none of it need be true. What goes on within the Yildiz palace can be known to few, and still fewer can have had opportunity to read the character of the Sultan himself. Of Europeans, Professor Vámbéry could, if he chose, tell the most.

To the series of volumes prepared by various professors of Yale University to exemplify the character of the studies in which the University teachers are engaged, under the title of Yale Bicentennial Publications, Prof. C. E. Beecher has added one designated 'Studies in Evolution,' composed mainly of reprints of occasional papers, selected from the publications of the Laboratory of Invertebrate Palæontology at the Peabody Museum. Most of these papers appeared in the *American Journal of Science*, the *American Naturalist*, the Transactions of the Connecticut Academy, and the Memoirs of the New York State Museum, between 1889 and 1899; and are reprinted with only such minor changes as were necessary to bring the nomenclature up to date. Several of them, notably those on the development of Trilobites and Brachiopods, were regarded by specialists as of prime interest and importance at the time of their appearance. It was worth while to gather them together in a form convenient for ready reference, as they constitute a by no means unimportant chapter in the Evolutionary literature produced by American students. The volume comprises 638 pages and 34 plates, and is issued by the Scribners in a good, legible typography, with a full index and tasteful binding.

Genealogists and students of family histories will find their profit in Mrs. Jane Baldwin's 'Maryland Calendar of Wills,' Vol. I. (Baltimore: W. J. C. Dulany Co.), which consists of careful abstracts of all the wills recorded during the first fifty years of the province, including all names of persons and places mentioned. As descendants of old Maryland families are scattered through all the States, this book has more than merely local interest. It is well arranged and fully indexed.

Bennett's 'Odes and Epodes of Horace,' recently noticed by us, is followed by an edition of the 'Satires and Epistles,' prepared by Prof. John C. Rolfe of the University of Michigan (Boston: Allyn & Bacon). The work is generally well done, but one finds a point here and there in which "humana parum cavit natura," such as the quotation of "peream male si non optimus erat" as an example of "the indicative used for vividness in the apodosis of conditions contrary to fact." Under pressure of space limitations, the notes grow very brief towards the end, quite unfortunately for the literary epistles of the second book, the full elucidation of which is of greater importance to the average undergraduate than that of the Satires.

Mr. R. Van Bergen's story of 'A Boy of Old Japan' comes to us from Lee & Shepard, Boston, in holiday dress of (Chinese) yellow, with very fine colored heliotype pictures. It tells, with ample knowledge and fluency, of the rejuvenation of a country which a generation or two ago was considered a rather old hermit. The book, we imagine, will interest the elders more than the young folks, for it is stiff, with very little play of imagination, formally historical, and the vocabulary is that of an adult. It is unnecessarily full of Japanese names and of descriptions of things in the style of the encyclopædia, rather than of a story-teller who sees things from the inside. Nevertheless, in tracing the life of a boy born since 1858, it is a clear and correct account of the contact of natives and foreigners, and of the fall and decay of feudalism before the onset of Occidentalism.

It is pleasant to greet once more Bayard Taylor's 'Boys of Other Countries,' which is still much above the ordinary child's book in interest and in style. A chapter on "Studies in Animal Nature" has been appended, and enhances the value of the little book. Mr. Taylor tells here of a friend of his who, in the great Chicago fire, had decided on giving preference to the old family Bible over the parrot (being able to save but one), when the bird's "Good Lord, deliver us" tipped the scale in his favor. Messrs. Putnam are the publishers.

'Kids of Many Colors,' by Grace Duffie Boylan and Ike Morgan (Chicago: Jamieson Higgins Co.), is unusually good jingle for young folks, and much of the illustration can be praised. With quite enough of fantasy and eccentricity in decoration, the pictures convey correct and humorous ideas of the small folk of many countries.

Dr. A. B. Meyer, the Director of the Zoölogical and Anthropological-Ethnographical Museum at Dresden, was, in 1899, sent by the Saxon Government to this country to inspect museums and other scientific institutions, with a special view to the most recent fireproof constructions. He consequently spent the greater part of the months from August to October (inclusive) of that year in visiting the most important institutions of New York (Brooklyn), Albany, Buffalo, Chicago, Washington, Philadelphia, and Boston (Cambridge). The first two parts of his illustrated official report: 'Die Museen des Ostens der Vereinigten Staaten von Nord Amerika' (Berlin: R. Friedländer & Sohn), covering the cities in the State of New York and Chicago, now lie before us. In the nature of the case, the American expert or specialist will find in the Report but little that is new or of especial value to him, but no reader can fail to share the writer's unstinted admiration for the great things that have been accomplished in this coun-

try in the way of buildings and equipments for scientific purposes. Occasional criticisms seem fair and to the point. To most German readers the greater part of Dr. Meyer's account of what he saw and learned—including a description of the buildings and outfit, as well as a brief history, of Columbia University and of the University of Chicago—will be a revelation; and many technical details will no doubt prove of practical value to German architects. The unbiassed and generous spirit in which Dr. Meyer writes about persons and things American deserves recognition. "There are no more obliging and amiable people," he concludes his preface, "than the American scholars (*die gelehrten Bürger der Union*), and I hope they will see in my Report only a tribute of admiration and gratitude."

In a recent study of the Coast Redwood (Proceedings of the California Academy of Sciences), Prof. George J. Peirce of Leland Stanford Jr. University disagrees with the view of Mr. Gannett, who attributes to climatic conditions the failure of this valuable tree to reoccupy territory cleared by the lumbermen. Dr. Peirce finds that the tree tends to reproduction by means of suckers from the underground parts, and he states that if the stumps are properly treated by the lumbermen, they will send up young stems after the trees have been felled. It appears that, before felling a tree, it is customary to clear away from its base all rubbish and undergrowth by setting fire to the brush. Thus the bark of the tree is killed, and the ground about the stump heated to such a degree as to kill those tissues of the subterranean parts which produce the suckers. Dr. Peirce points out that the remedy lies in not thus destroying the parts from which the new growth is to spring. He believes that, with this change in the method of the lumbermen, the redwood forests may renew themselves.

The Bishop Museum of Honolulu has issued as part iii. of its first volume of Memoirs a 'Key to the Birds of the Hawaiian Group,' by Mr. William Alanson Bryan, the curator of ornithology. This occupies seventy-six pages of text, with fifteen quarto half-tone plates taken from specimens in the Museum. Some of these are rather disreputable-looking, and the person ignorant of ornithology will be apt to wonder at their selection, until he discovers that most of them are priceless relics of species no longer known in the living state, of which this museum is the fortunate possessor. The paper is purely technical, but seems well adapted to its purpose, and will be welcomed by students of ornithology.

A peculiar difficulty to which the English are always liable in ruling India arises from the misunderstanding of Government intentions by the people. The recent order directing an ethnographical survey of the peninsula has already aroused strong opposition, on the ground that classification of castes is likely to be looked on as a judicial or official decision of precedence in rank. One Indian paper has warned Mr. Risley, the officer in charge of the survey, that he is "treading on forbidden ground." Another says that he is "playing with fire."

In "Set No. 3" of Mr. Louis Rhead's trout etchings, the different plates show three scenes in the capture of one of these fish. The first represents the trout rising to an apparently natural may-fly. In the second he is hooked and turning downward in a whirlpool of his own making, and in the third is being dragged ashore near the surface of the water. Whether or not they are supposed to indicate different stages of trouble for one individual is uncertain, but they in some way fail to give the idea of live and active trout. Trout rising to a fly or after being hooked *may* look as these do, but it is questionable, because they always appear full of strength and energy.

Apropos of our recent article on "A German Dreyfus Case," a correspondent informs us that the *Kölnische Volks-Zeitung* was no exception to the rule that the German press condemned the sentence of Marten. The contrary sentiment quoted by us, torn from its connection, was ironical in its original setting. We never saw the article at first hand, and were misled with the English press.

—By a very acceptable innovation the *American Historical Review* for October opens with a charming excursus on "The Age of Homer," by Goldwin Smith. "There are, no doubt," he says, "*nisi prius* objections to the common authorship [of Iliad and Odyssey]. But poetry is not judiciable in the court of *nisi prius*. It is passing strange, no doubt, that, after a ten-years' siege, Priam should be asking Helen to point out to him the chiefs of the besieging army. But it is not Priam, it is the reader or hearer of the bard, who wants the information. It is passing strange that, in Sophocles, Oedipus should have sat so long on his throne without seeking to know what had become of his predecessor. It is passing strange that, in 'Paradise Lost,' Omnipotence, having shut up Satan in hell, should fail to keep him there, and that Omniscience should be ignorant of his flight." Deserving of mention and of reading, also, are Prof. C. W. Colby's summary view of the Jesuit Relations, apropos of Mr. Thwaites's all but finished monumental edition, and Prof. A. B. Hart's lucid exposition of the transformation of the so-called Monroe Doctrine (*scilicet* J. Q. Adams Doctrine), its neglect by Seward as a means of thrusting the French out of Mexico, and its *coup de grâce* at the hands of the late Administration. Mr. Hart insists on the other side of the original Doctrine, "our policy . . . not to interfere in the internal concerns of any of its [Europe's] Powers"—a sufficient answer to Kossuth's appeal, by the way; but fallaciously supposes this to have been overridden by events." For good or evil, the United States has taken upon itself *a share in the world's affairs*, and cannot abdicate its responsibilities"; "the eventual *participation of America in the world's affairs* was as inevitable as the flow of lava down the slope of a volcano." But it is one thing to be able to refrain from republican propagandism in the Old World, and quite another to escape friction and occasional collision from sheer contact with other Powers. Mr. Hart rightly says that there really was no complete separation of Eastern and Western hemispheres in 1823; the points of contact have since simply multiplied. But there is no reason whatever why the American attitude of non-interference should have changed a particle. Mr. Hart still sees a "strategic point" won in Hawaii, but he is going to draw the line at "any further annexation of Latin-American territory." Whatever may be true of the Philippines, "neither the Monroe Doctrine nor any other common-sense doctrine delivers our neighbors over to us for spoliation."

—Ornithologists will be interested in the issue of the first number of the "Bulletin of the Bird Club of Princeton University." It contains a list of the officers and members of the club, and an article entitled "The Birds of Princeton, New Jersey, and Vicinity," by the President, Mr. William Arthur Babson. The club is fortunate in having for its editor the well-known ornithologist, Mr. W. E. D. Scott. The opening paper is, as might be expected, a local list of the birds about Princeton. It has been compiled from records made by the writer and other members of the club, and by Dr. C. C. Abbott. After lists of breeding birds, winter visitors, permanent residents, and others, there follows an annotated list of 230 species, which is, on the whole, highly creditable. Several minor details, however, may be open to question. The horned lark referred to is perhaps a subspecies, the prairie horned lark; and the loggerhead shrike should probably be listed as the migrant shrike. Some ornithologists will be skeptical about the record of the Mississippi kite, and few will approve of the entry of the red-naped sapsucker, while none can sanction the scientific name given for the ring-necked pheasant. The list is large, and will be appreciated by local ornithologists and by students of bird migration and distribution. It would have been more valuable, however, if what we may call the biogeography of the region had been treated as comprehensively as the importance of the subject demands.

—Miss M. Ethel Jameson (Detroit, Mich., No. 117 Selden Avenue) has printed privately, at the Riverside Press, Cambridge, 'A Bibliographical Contribution to the Study of John Ruskin,' being a thesis lately presented to the department of Library Science at the University of Chicago. It is pleasant to deal genially with the writers of academic theses; furthermore, the labors of bibliography are so arduous and its extrinsic rewards so inconsiderable that judgment upon it is justly biassed toward approbation; still, it is a duty to future laborers in this field to say that the present volume is scarcely a model of what such work should be. There is a prelude of forty pages of "Significant Facts in the Life of John Ruskin." These facts, which are collected from the usual sources, are interesting enough, but imperfectly arranged and only occasionally "significant." There are a hundred pages of bibliography, comprising lists of the British and foreign editions of Ruskin's publications, together with bibliographies of books and magazine articles about him, and even of works containing quotations from his writings. This part of the work is marred by various slight inaccuracies of citation, some redundancies, not a few omissions (as in the writings of W. J. Stillman), and occasional misprints. There is an index, reasonably complete, but rather whimsical in grouping. Notwithstanding these defects, the work is, as a whole, painstaking and conscientious. It is likely to prove very serviceable to the more thoroughgoing students of the "crotcheteer with a tongue of gold." Only, it seems to us to indicate that in "literary science," as in the somewhat analogous study of pedagogy, there may be danger in unduly exalting

"method," and in disassociating the form of knowledge and its substantial body.

—Large type and thick paper have made A. H. Beavan's 'Imperial London' (London: Dent & Co.; New York: Dutton & Co.) too bulky to be a tourist's manual, but the purposes it will serve are mainly those of a guide-book. To American readers it will probably be of chief value for its excursuses. For example, the description of the Law Courts is supplemented by an account of the work and status of English solicitors. In this way the reader obtains not only particulars of London buildings, but a clearer insight than the average guide-book will give him into London life. Mr. Beavan's volume deals in turn with all its phases—social, official, ecclesiastical, legal, commercial, literary, theatrical, and even gastronomic. Here and there one comes across curious facts which are not generally known, as that of recent years the demand for copper coins has largely increased, owing to the introduction of penny-in-the-slot machines, and that every night the heads and hands of Mme. Tussaud's wax-works are unscrewed from their bodies. On the whole, the book may be commended as accurate, though the author is guilty of a few strange omissions and mistakes. It is surprising, for instance, that his account of Westminster Abbey, though running to eleven pages, contains no mention of the Jerusalem Chamber. His scholastic section is especially weak. If King's College School deserves a paragraph, certainly University College School should not have been overlooked; and it is odd to find that St. Paul's School, which, under Mr. Walker, has obtained a foremost place for scholarship, is known to Mr. Beavan for its athletic successes only. "Sir George Mivart" (p. 381) should be "St. George Mivart"; "W. R. Chambers" (p. 399) should be "W. & R. Chambers"; and "W. & H. Smith" (p. 425) should be "W. H. Smith & Son." Apparently the death of Queen Victoria occurred when part of the book was already in type, for her successor appears sometimes as King Edward VII. and sometimes as the Prince of Wales. In the account of the War Office occurs the odd statement that, "with the Boer war fresh in our memory, it is pathetic to recall" the lobby where lists of casualties were published. A memory of this kind should attract the attention of psychologists.

—In all parts of Germany the protests of prominent publicists, boards of trade, and political and commercial associations against the tariff bill framed by the Prussian Agrarians are growing more frequent and more vigorous every day. At a general convention of the Verein für Sozialpolitik recently held in Munich this subject was thoroughly discussed by many eminent political economists, of whom the great majority condemned any increase of duties on agricultural products. The question of reciprocity treaties with other nations was also debated, and the absolute necessity of such commercial arrangements unanimously maintained. To what extremes of selfishness the Agrarian policy logically leads is evident from the argument used in favor of it by one of its most zealous advocates, Adolf Wagner, who admits that it will increase the cost and diminish the quality of food, but declares this result to be desirable in order to check the impending evil of over-population. Prof. Dr. Lotz of Munich treated, among other topics, the burning question of the American balance of trade. He admits that the present enormous excess of American exports over imports is a somewhat startling phenomenon, worthy of careful attention, but not necessarily a source of peril to the mercantile and industrial interests of Europe. In estimating this balance, he thinks some important factors have been omitted. Thus, the money expended by Americans travelling or residing in Europe is far greater than that expended by Europeans in America, and amounts to an average of nearly $100,000,000 annually. This sum should be added to the European trade balance, since the products consumed by foreigners are virtually exported in their stomachs, which is the cheapest and most convenient form, inasmuch as it saves the exporter the cost of freight and other expenses. The same principle applies to articles of clothing and personal adornment. Prof. Lotz regards the present surplus of exports over imports in the United States as a temporary phenomenon, and thinks a complete change will take place when North America ceases to be a debtor country and becomes a creditor country, a process of transformation which has already begun. He is strongly opposed to tariff wars, and firmly convinced that a European customs union against America is out of the question. The only rational policy for Germany under the circumstances is that of "friendly reciprocity." The adoption of this principle by the Munich convention without a dissenting voice was a bitter disappointment to the Agrarians.

THE HARRIMAN EXPEDITION.

Alaska: Narrative, Glaciers, Natives (in vol. i.). By John Burroughs, John Muir, and George Bird Grinnell. History, Geography, Resources (in vol. ii., continuously paged). By William H. Dall, Charles Keeler, Henry Gannett, B. E. Fernow, W. H. Brewer, C. Hart Merriam, G. B. Grinnell, and M. L. Washburn. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1901. Imp. 8vo, with 39 colored plates, 85 photogravures, 5 maps, and 240 illustrations in the text.

Early in 1899, Mr. E. H. Harriman planned a summer cruise which should take him out of reach of the demands of business, and afford rest, recreation, and variety for his family and a few friends. The large steamer *George W. Elder* was chartered and fitted out. Her tonnage and the facilities necessary for the safety and comfort of the party were disproportionately large, and it was decided to include, if practicable, some guests who, while adding to the interest and pleasure of the expedition, would gather useful information and distribute it for the benefit of others. The aid and advice of Dr. C. Hart Merriam were secured, and the result of several conferences of those interested was that plans were matured by which some twenty-five men of science, representing almost every section of the country and department of natural history, were invited to participate.

The cruise, which originally contemplated a voyage to Kadiak, in the hope of securing specimens of the enormous brown bear of that island, was extended so as to include Unalashka, the fur-seal islands, and even the continent on each side of Bering Strait. Every practicable aid to scientific research was furnished, including canoes, camping outfits, two large naphtha launches, and a convenient library of works on the natural history and exploration of the region. The expenses of every sort were defrayed by Mr. Harriman. Besides the scientists and their assistants, the guests included several well-known artists, two physicians, one of whom, Dr. Lewis R. Morris, rendered important services in the organization of the expedition; and a chaplain, the Rev. Dr. Nelson of New York. The Eastern members left New York by a special train on the 23d of May, the others joining en route or at Portland, Ore., or Seattle, a week later. In crossing the continent, side trips were made to Shoshone Falls, Boisé City, and Lewiston, Idaho, where the party was met by a special steamer and taken by way of the Snake River cañon to its junction with the Columbia. Here the train was in waiting.

The *Elder* sailed from Seattle on May 30, and was absent just two months. The route taken was that known as the Inland Passage from Puget Sound to Juneau, Skaguay (where a complimentary excursion on the Yukon and White Pass Railway took the party to the summit of the Coast Range at the Canadian boundary); Glacier Bay, and Sitka. From Sitka the vessel skirted the continental coast to Yakutat Bay, Prince William Sound, Cook's Inlet, Kadiak, and Unalashka. Thence the expedition proceeded northward through Bering Sea to the Pribiloff Islands, the coast of Siberia at Plover Bay, Port Clarence, Alaska; St. Lawrence and St. Matthew Islands; and, returning, took much the same general course with minor deviations. Frequent landings were made, which the geologists and biologists utilized to the fullest extent. Small boat parties made special trips of several days' duration, being picked up later by the ship. Extensive and important collections were made in all branches, including the largest collections of plants and insects ever brought from the region. In working up this material, the services of more than fifty specialists have been enlisted, and the knowledge of the fauna and flora of Alaska greatly increased. Mr. Harriman, in his preface, says:

"It is pleasant to recall the spirit of harmony and good-fellowship which prevailed throughout the voyage, and to remember that, whether in the field of research or in the line of service, all showed a willingness to cheerfully carry out the duties which fell to their lot. Through this spirit, manifested from the very beginning, every member of the party contributed to the success of the expedition."

Dr. Merriam, in the editorial introduction, observes:

"In a voyage of this character, where many and diverse interests are involved, where numerous stops at widely separated localities must be made, and where great distances must be covered in the shortest practicable time, success or failure depends on the capacity of the leader, the efficiency of the organization, the perfection of the equipment, and the enthusiasm, training, and coöperative spirit of the individual members. That so much was accomplished is sufficient evidence as to the way these conditions were fulfilled. . . . The ship had no business other than to convey the party whithersoever it desired to go. Her route was intrusted to a committee comprising the heads of the various departments of research; so that from day to day and hour

to hour her movements were made to subserve the interests of the scientific work."

Many of the members of the expedition are also members of the Washington Academy of Sciences, and in the publication of the scientific results this society has energetically coöperated, having already published twenty-two special papers based on collections made by the expedition, while others are in preparation. The present publication, in two volumes, comprises the narrative of the expedition and a few papers on subjects believed to be of general interest.

We have dwelt at some length on the organization and methods of the expedition for the reason that it may be fairly regarded as unique in many features, and worthy of emulation by those whose time and means may be available, and who may be desirous of combining recreation with the attainment of results of permanent value to the world.

The narrative of the voyage is from the facile pen of John Burroughs, which is a sufficient guarantee of literary merit. It records the impressions made by the varied scenes surveyed, rather than unimportant details of the work engaged in. Happy is the recorder who knows what to leave out. John Muir rhapsodizes over the glaciers in a manner which recalls Emerson's description of the Yosemite, as being the only thing in California "which came up to the brag." Those who have seen these glaciers will be inclined to believe that Muir's enthusiasm is none too great. Mr. Grinnell, no stranger to "natives," discourses in a pleasant and popular vein of those encountered by the party; and we are happy to testify that the hideous nickname "Amerind" does not appear once in the book. In the second volume, Dall gives a synopsis of the history of discovery and exploration in Alaska, from 1711 to the date of the American purchase. This is illustrated by portraits of Baranoff, Veniaminoff, Wrangell, and Kennicott, prominent in Alaskan history, and reproduced from extremely rare originals. Charles Keeler discourses charmingly of days among Alaskan birds, and Professor Fernow provides a valuable account and estimation of the forests and timber resources of Alaska. Mr. Gannett summarizes the geographical features of the Territory, to a knowledge of which the expedition notably contributed, especially in the discovery of the magnificent glacial fiord named after Mr. Harriman, which the *Elder* was the first vessel to enter, and in the elaborate investigation of the features of Russell Fiord beyond Disenchantment Bay. Professor Brewer contributes a chapter on the atmosphere of Alaska, swept almost free of dust and germs by the prevalent rains, resulting in notable peculiarities of transparency and cloud colors. A very interesting chapter follows, by the editor, on the history of the growth and decay of the Bogosloff volcanic islands off the coast of Unalashka. These are among the most modern and variant of the few volcanic islets which have risen from the sea in historic times, and their phases are here profusely illustrated. A much-needed warning anent the conditions of the salmon industry of Alaska is sounded by Mr. Grinnell. The farcical non-enforcement of law in regard to the barricading of streams and the destruction of the fish every day in the week and every hour in the day can have only one result, and that will not be long deferred. But "Heaven is high and the Czar is distant," as the suffering Aleuts learned a century ago.

The volume is concluded by a very full index. The maps, prepared under Mr. Gannett's supervision, are excellent, and there will hardly be more than one opinion as to the merits of the illustrations. The colored plates reproduce sketches by Gifford, Fuertes, and Dellenbaugh; and the photographs from which nearly all the photogravures are derived were taken by the photographers on the expedition. Nothing approaching them in range, variety, and beauty has ever been obtained in the region before. It is hardly too much to say that these volumes form the most beautifully illustrated work of travel which has ever been issued on this side of the Atlantic. Dr. Merriam, the editor, has given his whole time, outside of official duties, for two years to the task; and its perfection is very largely due to his indefatigable energy and the unstinted generosity of Mr. Harriman. All in all, it is a work of which America may justly be proud, and the production of which, from its initiation to its conclusion, is due to factors which are almost peculiar to this country and time.

MORE ASTRONOMICAL WORKS.

The Eclipse Cyclone and the Diurnal Cyclones. Investigations of the Blue Hill Meteorological Observatory, under the direction of A. Lawrence Rotch. By H. Helm Clayton. Cambridge. 1901.

Annals of the Lowell Observatory. Percival Lowell, Director. Vol. II. 1900.

Publications of the Astronomical Laboratory at Groningen: By Prof. J. C. Kapteyn, Director. Nos. 2 and 3, by Dr. W. De Sitter. Groningen, 1900.

The Princeton University Bulletin: Eclipse Expedition Number. By Prof. C. A. Young, Princeton, 1900.

Annuaire pour l'an 1901, publié par le Bureau des Longitudes. Paris: Gauthier-Villars.

Observations of total eclipses of the sun have many points of contact for both astronomer and meteorologist. The former unhesitatingly crosses oceans and continents to observe them, because he hopes ultimately to find, in a complete knowledge of the solar corona, a stepping-stone, at least, to that final theory of the sun's radiant energy which is basic in meteorology. But the latter has usually found little of useful import to observe in a solar eclipse; the well-marked changes in temperature and humidity of the atmosphere had long been watched during so many eclipses, and with results practically always the same, that there had seemed nothing further to learn. Meteorologists, too, had settled down comfortably to the certainty that the barometer was no longer worth carrying into the lunar shadow, as repeated attempts had shown that the variations of air-pressure were so feeble as to be masked by other conditions whose effect could only in part be excerpted. Mr. Clayton, in the able discussion above cited, has conclusively shown the fallacy of this position by collating a mass of barometric observations in regions of the globe traversed by the last eclipse's path, both total and penumbral. A well-marked cyclonic effect is obvious, and has given rise to the new term "eclipse cyclone," confirming admirably Ferrel's theory of the cold-air cyclone, and indicating that marvellous sensitiveness of our atmosphere which allows it to respond almost at once to cosmic influences.

The cause is unique: by the interposition of the moon the sun's direct heat is for a few hours withdrawn from a region of the earth several thousand miles in extent. This is progressive, the moon's shadow sweeping athwart our planet at an hourly velocity exceeding two thousand miles. Its speed relatively to the surface is, of course, much reduced by the earth's axial turning—by about one-half, in fact, if the eclipse track chances to lie alongside the equator. Mr. Clayton's research exhibits the remarkable rapidity of development and dissipation of cyclonic phenomena in the atmosphere, and the further important fact that cyclones do not necessarily drift with the atmosphere, but travel along with their originating cause—in this case the swiftly moving lunar shadow, from the region within which the sun's heat is temporarily screened.

"The eclipse may be compared," he says, "to an experiment by Nature, in which all the causes that complicate the origin of the ordinary cyclone are eliminated, except that of a direct and rapid change of temperature. The results derived from the observations, by eliminating the influence of other known phenomena, show quantitatively the effects of a given fall of temperature near the earth's surface in a given time. They show that a fall of temperature is capable of developing a cold-air cyclone in an astonishingly short time, with all the peculiar circulation of winds and distribution of pressure that constitute such a cyclone."

This discovery has suggested to Mr. Clayton the further theory that the diurnal fall of temperature, due to the occurrence of night, must also produce, or tend to produce, a cold-air cyclone. It is this conception which he develops into a new explanation of the cause of the long-recognized daily period in atmospheric pressure. Buchan, Angot, Schmidt, Hann, and others have accumulated a large mass of information concerning diurnal changes in pressure, and this is critically compared with Mr. Clayton's new theory that the double diurnal period in pressure is due to two diurnal cyclones, the one developed by the cold of night, and the other by the heat of day. It is a theory based on well-known physical laws, and explains also why the warm-air cyclone is strongly marked over continents and on clear days, causing the afternoon fall in the barometer; likewise why the early-morning period of least pressure over continents does not develop as fully as over oceans, where there is but slight retardation of the air movements on which the fall of the barometer in the cold-air cyclone depends. The investigation is further elucidated by four plates, very clearly engraved and printed.

In a fine volume of 523 pages, illuminated with 41 heliograph plates, Mr. Lowell, with the coöperation of his coadjutors, Professor Pickering and Mr. Douglass, has given to astronomers a very careful series of observations of Jupiter and his satellites made in the years 1894 and 1895, and of Mars in 1896 and 1897, in part at his observatory in Flagstaff, Arizona, and in part at Tacubaya, Mexico. Any one who will take the trouble to go through this mass of detail and compare the notes with the drawings to which they refer, cannot but be struck with the high value of the substantial contribution to practical astronomy

that Mr. Lowell has effected, in prosecuting so zealously a search for regions of exceptional atmospheric steadiness from which to conduct his researches on the surface and physical condition of the planets. And until astronomers who now remain in doubt as to the existence of the things here recorded, have themselves had the opportunity of once observing for themselves under conditions essentially identical, so long will they continue skeptical.

That this ever mobile atmosphere of ours has much to do with the situation, no one can doubt who has ever experienced the immensely ameliorated conditions of vision that attend an almost quiescent state of the air. Then, if only for an instant, he obtains perhaps just a fleeting glimpse, but still enough to satisfy him that, with hours of such vision, there is simply no end to the detail that can be visualized on the planetary disks. But the one first good sight is always necessary — preceded, of course, by a willingness to see, which not all astronomers seem to be gifted with. The bearing of Mr. Lowell's search for fine skies is far-reaching, if the astronomy of the future is to be a progressive science. The Clarks and Brashear in our own country, Steinheil, Cooke, and the Henrys in Europe, have pushed the perfection of telescopes far in advance of the optical quality of the atmosphere through which they have to be used ordinarily; and the ablest of astronomers have employed these splendid instruments in making measures of a high degree of precision anciently unknown. A fair proposition it is, that if sites of the utmost and continuous steadiness of asmosphere could be found and occupied by a multitude of astronomers working under these ideal conditions, nowhere as yet attained, further and most significant advances could not fail to result. And this is true, not only of investigations clearly within the province of exact astronomy, but also in astrophysics, where precise measurement is more and more a necessity, particularly in spectroscopy.

But it is in quite a different direction that Mr. Lowell has been seeking. Still, he has found more than was expected at the outset. The work set forth in his first volume was done in the main with an 18-inch telescope, the largest of Mr. Brashear's construction, and now the property of the Flower Observatory of the University of Pennsylvania. In 1896 he acquired a 24-inch telescope, the last one actually made by Mr. Alvan G. Clark, a lens of exceptionally fine quality and performance. During the winter of 1896-97 this great instrument, with its unusually heavy mounting, was transferred to Tacubaya, a suburb of the City of Mexico; but as the atmospheric conditions were found to be disappointing, it was returned to Arizona, where it has remained in pretty constant use since May, 1897. Astronomers have already become in large part acquainted with the results of the investigations undertaken, through their earlier publication in *Popular Astronomy*, the *Astro-Physical Journal*, and elsewhere. Definite indications were reached of an atmosphere engulfing Jupiter between 2,000 and 3,000 miles in depth. The first, third, and fourth satellites of the planet are found to turn round once on their axes while circling once round the planet. The second half of the volume discusses the observations of Mars during the partly unfavorable opposition of 1896-97—unfavorable if the greater distance of the planet is considered, but favorable if research upon the planet's northern polar regions is regarded. The polar caps and their varying configurations are discussed, diameters and markings of the planets also, with lists of the canals and oases scrutinized at this opposition when most astronomers failed to perceive any markings. The discussion concludes with several chapters bearing upon the meteorological condition of the planet, and a double-plate map of the planet is annexed embodying all the detail made out at the opposition in question. Astronomers will be gratified to know that these investigations have been continued during the later oppositions of 1899 and 1901, when the planet's north pole has been tilted at nearly its extreme angle towards the earth; and, as the writers conclude, "Nothing could demonstrate better the wisdom of going far to secure a good atmosphere."

The advent of photography as the handmaid of astronomy has led to the foundation of astronomical observatories without telescopes—or with microscopes, rather—astronomical laboratories, as Prof. Kapteyn calls his. Here the photographic plates taken by astronomers at observatories in other parts of the world, notably by Sir David Gill at the Cape, have been carefully subjected to micrometric measurement, in which Professor Kapteyn may be said to have led the astronomical world in deriving those substantial and accurate numerical results which alone make the finished film of value. He has now added to his previously published catalogues of stellar positions a paper on the parallax of 248 stars which appear on a valuable series of plates taken in 1891-92 by Professor Donner of Helsingfors, whose work has been done with the utmost care and thoroughness. Not less critical is Professor Kapteyn's measurement of the plates and subsequent discussion. In accuracy the results compare very favorably with those secured by the more usual optical method, and Professor Kapteyn concludes his paper with an enthusiastic plan for a systematic determination of the parallaxes of all the stars down to the magnitude 8.5 or 9, which number about 200,000.

For the actual photography, he suggests telescopes of very great focal length, but few of which are as yet available for this work. The photographic labor is not in itself prohibitive. Professor Kapteyn estimates that it would not greatly exceed that requisite for the *carte du ciel* now approaching completion. The subsequent measures and reduction of the plates will demand an amount of labor not far from that expended upon the *carte du ciel* also. Clearly, then, it is not too sanguine an estimate that the distances of perhaps even a half million stars may be ascertained within the next quarter century, if reasonable Government coöperation can be counted on. Certainly the feasibility of Professor Kapteyn's plan, outlined in this important paper, is sufficiently set forth; and of the desirability of such a general "*Durchmusterung* for parallax" there can be no doubt, as progress in our knowledge of the distribution of the bodies throughout the stellar universe is already greatly handicapped by essential ignorance of the distances of all but a few. Their motions athwart the line of sight, or proper motions, have long been regarded as fit subjects for research at the Government observatories, and Greenwich has within recent years added spectroscopic observations of their motion towards or from the earth. Obviously the stellar labyrinth is not to be threaded until the coöperation of the national observatories of the world includes the wholesale determination of stellar distances as well.

By the liberality of Mr. M. Taylor Pyne and of the executors of the estate of Mr. Charles E. Green, Professor Young was able to organize on a large scale an expedition, under the auspices of Princeton University, for observing the total eclipse of the sun in May, 1900. During the past two-thirds of a century Princeton has often sent out eclipse observers, four times in charge of the late Prof. Stephen Alexander—in 1834 to Georgia; in 1854 to Ogdensburg, N. Y., when a celestial happening was for the first time recorded by photography; in 1860 to Labrador, and in 1869 to Iowa. Professor Young, who went to Princeton from Dartmouth in 1877, followed up this work by observing the total eclipses of 1878 in Colorado and in 1887 in Russia. The increasing attention given by astronomers to these phenomena is well illustrated by the increasing elaborateness of preparation and the greater achievements of the more recent expeditions. The total eclipse of May 28, 1900, was the first visible in the Atlantic States since 1869, one which marked an epoch in American astronomical science, and Professor Young might almost be called the hero of that occasion, when he discovered the characteristic line of the coronal spectrum, and fixed its position with an accuracy which stood unassailed for nearly thirty years. English observers, however, and Professor Campbell of the Lick Observatory, during the Indian eclipse of 1898, took a series of spectrum photographs which showed conclusively that the accepted position of this important line must be in error, and it was to the correction of this that Professor Young in the main turned his attention. Most unfortunately it proved that the line in question was exceptionally faint, so that it failed of detection by all members of the party. The undoubted variability in brightness of this line, whatever its significance may be, is a fact of much importance, and must serve to place spectroscopists on their guard at future eclipses.

Professor Young had the efficient assistance of his colleagues, Professors Brackett, Libbey, Magie, and Reed. Their report is excellently illustrated by a series of plates showing the station at Wadesboro, North Carolina, the observers, their instruments, and the fine photographic results secured by them. The photographs of the corona were taken with Carbutt plates, and rank well beside the best secured in recent years. Professor Young had an interesting experience with positive photography at the last contact, and this leads him to make a novel and practical suggestion as to its utility in recording certain stars for parallax, of which photographic astronomers will do well to take note.

The useful *Annuaire* came promptly to hand early in the year, published under the superintendence of MM. Janssen, Cornu, and Loewy, the committee of the Bureau des Longitudes charged with its prepara-

tion. The amount of up-to-date astronomical information within so narrow a compass is simply surprising, and places the *Annuaire* far in the lead of other annuals. M. Cornu has written a brief section explanatory of the spectra of the stars and nebulæ, and the lists of comets and small planets have been thoroughly revised. Aside from the *Annuaire's* primary value to the astronomer, it is of almost equal utility to the physicist and the man of affairs. There are compact tables of the currency, weights, and measures of France and other nations, together with a wise selection of geographical and statistical tables. Also there are population and mortality tables from which one may derive no very happy forecast for France's future. The chemical and physical tables are carefully collated. The number and excellence and interest of the supplementary *Notices Scientifiques* are rather unusual, and add greatly to the value of the *Annuaire* for 1901. M. Cornu contributes the first of these, on the electric transfer of energy, followed by M. Poincaré on the projected revision of the equatorial arc of meridian near Quito. It is to be expected that this work will now be undertaken under the general direction of the French Academy, and that the arc will be extended from 4.5 degrees to 6 degrees in length. M. Bassot adds a brief historical note on the metric system, and M. Janssen relates the work accomplished the past year at his observatory on the summit of Mont Blanc. M. Hansky of St. Petersburg ascended the mountain once in July and again in September, remaining on its summit nearly a week each time. His work was chiefly in determination of the constant of the sun's heat, but he observed also an occultation of Saturn by the moon under exceptional circumstances. Other notices deal chiefly with the subjects of the international conventions of the Exposition—M. Loewy on the Astronomical Conference, M. Bouquet de la Grye on the Geodetic Conference, and M. Janssen on the progress of aerial navigation. The *Annuaire* is copiously indexed and cross-referenced.

Belcaguered in Peking. By Robert Coltman, jr., M.D. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis Co.

Ten years after his first experiences in China as a missionary physician, and the publication of a book on 'The Chinese,' in which he diagnosed the diseases of the Middle Kingdom and prophesied alien ownership and rule unless China's rulers awoke to their duty, Dr. Coltman issues his journal of the siege, and utters his opinions somewhat modified at points, but more vigorously, even, than before. His handsomely bound and printed work has many excellent illustrations, the especial value of the latter being that several are reproductions of the Imperial and Boxer military commanders and civil mandarins, including those who were beheaded for their pro-foreign opinions, or for favoring moderation. It is not all fancy that sees in these strongly differing faces a powerful contrast between Chinese civilization and Tartar savagery. It is a positive relief to see a book on China bound in green instead of gold or butter-color, though, along with the Chinese characters on the side, are the words in large letters "The Yellow Crime," and the sub-title is "The Boxer's War against the Foreigner."

Nevertheless, after reading this, as well as a score of other recent books on China by those supposed to know best about what they are writing, there seems to us a failure to make clear just what the recent disturbances in China were. We read their real significance not in "China against the World," nor "The Boxers' War against the Foreigner." Certainly such titles are far from exhausting the meaning of so much smoke and blood. From either a native and inner, or a distant and alien view, neither the Boxers nor the foreigners were so really important as the two parties in China, the progressive and the reactionary. Naturally, foreigners, having been attacked and their lives put in peril, are apt to magnify their view of the situation, and we who never felt a wound have no wish to jest at scars. None the less, several things must be recalled to mind. One is, that the greater and the better part of China, the populous central and southern regions and peoples, have approved neither of the Boxer fanatics nor of the Tartar reactionaries in the Government. Furthermore, it is more than probable that a majority of alien officers and soldiers, hastening to the rescue of the legations, never took in the real situation, nor did they see clearly what had happened even when they had arrived at Pekin, when they learned (that is, the few who took the care to learn) that about 30,000 progressive Chinese and followers of the Western religion had been slaughtered.

Every book that comes out on China from the pens of eye-witnesses like Dr. Coltman does but serve to make two or three things, that ought never to be forgotten, as clearly visible as the electric tower at Buffalo. One is the utter blindness of almost all the foreign representatives in Pekin, including especially the American and British representatives, as to the real situation. Dr. Coltman, indeed, makes it repeatedly so very plain that one almost feels that he has a personal feeling as well as judicial opinion on the subject, though possibly this suspicion is not well founded. Certainly he does "rub it in," as if the ointment of criticism were of no avail unless stalwartly applied. His book also makes it manifest that, until the bombardment and capture of the Taku forts, the nature of the uprising was that of a mob instigated and greatly aided, no doubt, by some of the Empress's trusted adherents in high office. In all probability, these might have been restrained by the moderate and pro-foreign men in high office, who lost their last chance of restraint while the alien-hating Tartar advisers of the Empress got what they hoped and waited for, as well as their fullest justification, when the forts were attacked and the foreign nations, except the United States, had thus declared war by overt hostilities. We repeat that all this is clear, notwithstanding the author's interpolated and rather vigorous comments on the Empress's edicts; as, for example (p. 227): "June 27.—Edict—From the foundation of this dynasty, foreigners in China have always been kindly treated. (A tremendous lie.)" Yet some one at Washington blundered, for, notwithstanding that the American naval commander, Admiral Kempff, refused to join in hostilities, or, in other words, preserved our unbroken traditions of formal peace with China, and gave the United States what has since been its sure basis for subsequent successful diplomacy, he was virtually censured by our Government by being ordered away from the scene of operations.

Dr. Coltman has learned wisdom in ten years, for this once missionary physician, vigorous in defence of the polity of his colleagues, declares (p. 37) his conclusion "that it has been a mistake of the Powers to insert in their treaties provisions making the preaching of Christianity a treaty right in spite of Chinese objection. Nearly all of the riots in China have come from attempts to force the Chinese officials to stamp deeds conveying property to missionaries, for residences or chapels." Standing thus, Dr. Coltman's statement is a gross exaggeration, if he includes other than Roman Catholic missionaries, who are directly backed by French diplomatics and military power. His opinions, however, are worthy of being pondered. In his view, as in our own, "the policy which has been pursued in forcing Christianity upon the Chinese . . . practically at the point of the sword, has given to such men as the instigators of the Boxers a powerful argument for the extermination alike of the foreigner and his converts."

Making no pretence to "literary effort," Dr. Coltman has given us one of the clearest, most forcible, direct, and unimpassioned accounts of the siege, with details and comments that are suggestive and valuable. Taken as a whole, it is, in so far, of greater value to the judicially minded historian than even Mr. Landor's bulky volumes. It is almost pitiful, then, to find on almost the closing page, after a reference to Yu Hsien, Governor of Shansi, who had the foreigners in his province murdered, the following sentence: "Is he to live? No, never! If there exists in America to-day one individual who counsels the return of the troops until the atoning blood of all the leaders and instigators of this awful crime has been poured out, may he be cursed for ever." In the next paragraph he demands that the Empress Dowager, two princes, and nine high officers "must each and all be brought to the block with as many of their followers as possible, before the blood of innocent American women will cease to cry from the ground for vengeance." Frankly, we must protest that this desire for so much blood-letting is scarcely consistent with what the Doctor declared (pp. 37, 38) to be the cause of the trouble. He outlines on the penultimate page thirteen things which ought not to be done or allowed, in one of which he calls for the abolition of Mantchu sovereignty. The preface was written September 10, 1900, when "all of the leaders of the movement are at large." Perhaps the Doctor has cooled somewhat since, but, naturally, we ask with him, concerning the future, "What?"

A History and Description of Roman Political Institutions. By Frank Frost Abbott. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1901.

Roman Public Life. By A. H. J. Greenidge. Macmillan. 1901.

In their treatment of the Republic, these two works follow a similar plan. Both begin with an account of the early political development, after which they describe in

some detail the later Constitution. In the part devoted to the Imperial period, Abbott includes a narrative of the Cæsars, whereas Greenidge limits himself to a discussion of the Government. Abbott's simple, concise language adapts his book to the average capacity of the college student; Greenidge's fuller and more technical treatment is designed for the mature mind.

It would be a mistake to assume, as Abbott comes near doing, that the kind of matter contained in these books is all that is needed for an adequate appreciation of the genius of Rome. Roads and buildings, private and social life and morals also express her character; and if her art and literature are "hybrid products," a half of these products is nevertheless Roman. But though the special consideration of a particular aspect of Roman life cannot be profitably substituted for a liberal view of the whole, the separate treatment of political institutions has an undeniable value of its own.

It is regrettable that, in their presentation of the original kingship and of the early Republic, these writers have not taken a more scientific attitude toward the sources. To them the early books of Livy and Dionysius are "tradition" pure and simple, whereas, in fact, the greater part of these narratives is the deliberate invention of later ages. Such material cannot be accurately termed tradition. A slight acquaintance with Pais, whom both Abbott and Greenidge mention, ought to improve their critical faculty. It is a serious question, too, whether these authors have not committed a grave error in adopting the conventional theory of an original patrician state. This theory is a product of historical method in its crude beginnings, represented by Niebuhr, who, in attempting to substitute reason for authority, gave free rein to his constructive genius in the creation of artificial political systems and situations. Although most of the mistakes of this great man have been eliminated from historical science by the sharper critical methods of his successors, his favorite theory of a patrician *populus* still lingers between life and death. Originally it was supported by a few plausible citations from the sources, reinforced by a vast amount of *a priori* argument; but one by one the props have fallen, till it now stands without a single support. Mommsen admits not only that the theory of an original patrician *populus* was wholly unknown to the ancient writers, but also that this assumed patrician state has left no trace of itself either in the language or in the later institutions of Rome. In other words, this myth of the nineteenth century, elaborated at so great a cost of time and thought, explains absolutely nothing which we find in historical Rome.

The view we take of this subject will control our conception of the whole constitutional development to the passing of the Hortensian Law (287 B. C.). Those who accept the conventional theory imagine the plebeians struggling first for citizenship and then for "full" citizenship. Those, on the other hand, who hold the simple view presented by the sources and reinforced by analogies from every other state known to history, that, from the beginning, the patricians of Rome were merely the nobles and the plebeians the common citizens, will find the early political history a struggle of the plebeian masses chiefly for better economic conditions, and of their leaders for the right to hold offices.

Another fault which both authors share with the school of conventional Roman history to which they belong, is scarcely less important. The reader especially of Greenidge will receive the impression that early Roman life was a complex legal system planned by learned jurists on a preconceived theory of the state, and administered in detail with scientific precision. The origin of this artificial view is well known. The early Rome of conventional history is largely the invention of late Roman jurists, along whose lines of reconstruction modern scholars from Niebuhr to Mommsen, with some exceptions, have continued to build. The plain statement of their method is enough to prove its unscientific character. The student of early Rome who wishes to keep himself free from juristic misconceptions should study the primitive life of the Greeks, Germans, Celts, and other Indo-Europeans. Before coming to Rome, he should dwell for a time among the Samnites, Umbrians, Latins, and other Italians. Beginning his work with this preparatory discipline, he may assume for early Rome those common Aryan and Italian institutions, customs, and beliefs which, according to his judgment, have left an impression upon the later history of the state. Written from this point of view, a history of early Rome will become intelligible.

In view of these fundamental defects in the method and conception of history adopted by the two authors, minor faults may pass unnoticed. It would be more agreeable to speak of merits; but this is difficult, for neither writer offers anything essentially original, or shows marked character in any direction. Doubtless their chief excellence lies in the fact that they have given a fair amount of space to Imperial times. Till recently, the English reader lacked the opportunity to make himself acquainted with the modern conception of this period. The only historians whom he knew assumed that the emperors were all unlimited despots from first to last, and that consequently there was no development of the Imperial Constitution, if indeed such a thing as an Imperial Constitution existed. Bury, in his 'Student's Roman Empire,' was the first to present in English the views of recent German scholars on the subject; and now both Abbott and Greenidge have adopted these fresh ideas.

In the new light which comes from a more careful study of the sources, the Augustan Government was not an absolute monarchy, but a dyarchy—the joint rule of *Princeps* and Senate—in which each of the two governing powers limited the other both territorially and functionally. The development of the Constitution was a gradual drift towards absolute monarchy, a natural process occasionally interrupted by the tyranny of a Caligula or a Domitian. When, by the time of Diocletian, the influence of the Senate had become insignificant, the dyarchy ceased, the Prince had developed into a despot of the Oriental type. The only serious objection to this view of the Imperial Constitution is effectually met by Greenidge in a passage on page 398, which ends with these telling words: "To maintain the theory that a constitution which demands obedience from the wise is a palpable fiction because it cannot enforce obedience on the headstrong, is to wring a strange admission from political science."

An English Comment on Dante's Divina Commedia. By the Rev. H. F. Tozer, M.A., Honorary Fellow of Exeter College, Oxford, etc. Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: H. Frowde. 1901. 8vo, pp. 628.

The number of contributions made by English scholars during recent years to the study of Dante and his writings is not only a proof of interest in the life and work of the poet, but also a striking indication of the rapid change in our educational systems by the large substitution of the discipline of the modern languages for that of the ancient—a change likely to have effects which will mark a wide difference between the intellectual culture of the nineteenth and the twentieth centuries. Perhaps even more remarkable than the number of these contributions is the excellence of many of them, and their value as aids to a better understanding of the poet. The most interesting and important of all the early comments on the 'Divine Comedy,' that of Benvenuto da Imola, was edited by Sir James Lacaita, and published in five noble volumes at the expense of the family of Lord Vernon, in 1887. Since then the Rev. Dr. Edward Moore, the acknowledged chief of living scholars of Dante, has published, in rapid succession, one masterly treatise after another, ranging over the fields of textual criticism, of historical illustration, of exegetical interpretation, and of the investigation of the sources by which Dante's mind was quickened, and from which he drew his extraordinary learning.

Of less originality and importance than Dr. Moore's work, but still of great value, are the six volumes of the Hon. William Warren Vernon's recently completed 'Readings on the Divine Comedy,' which comprise a complete translation and an ample exposition of the poem. The character of the author as it appears in his pages adds a grace to his abundant scholarship. Another work of the highest merit in its kind is Mr. Paget Toynbee's thorough and learned 'Dante Dictionary,' a work so serviceable as to be practically indispensable to the English student of Dante. Of a different order is Mr. Edmund Gardner's volume on 'Dante's Ten Heavens,' containing an interpretation of the "Paradiso" remarkable for its intelligence and insight; and this was followed last year by an interesting translation by the Rev. Mr. Wickstead of the same division of the poem, with admirable explanatory arguments to the cantos, and useful notes by the translator and Mr. H. Oelsner. It were easy to extend this list, but we will add to it only a reference to the important contributions to a better knowledge of Dante made in America during the same period, of which Dr. Fay's invaluable Concordance, Mr. Latham's translation of Dante's Letters, and Mr. T. W. Koch's extraordinary Catalogue of the Dante Collection at Cornell University (practically an almost complete Dante Bibliography), may be cited as examples.

Different in intent from any of these books, but in its kind not undeserving to rank with them, is Mr. Tozer's recently published 'English Comment on the Divina Commedia.' The excellent essay on the metre of the 'Divina Commedia' which Mr.

Tozer contributed to Dr. Moore's 'Textual Criticism' more than ten years ago, showed him to be a thorough and minute student of the poem, and his 'Comment' is that of an accurate and intelligent scholar. It is practically a school commentary, like those on the ancient classics, intended for beginners, but not without use for advanced students, as giving the interpretation adopted by a competent scholar of disputed and difficult passages. It is intelligent, concise, and, with few exceptions, sufficient. Of course, in a poem which presents so many difficulties as the 'Divina Commedia' there are many passages concerning which there is likely to be difference of opinion among students of it, and Mr. Tozer cannot expect that his critics will always accept his interpretations; but if they are good scholars they will generally differ from him with hesitancy, always with respect.

The comment has no charm of literary allusion or citation, or in its own literary form. It will not quicken the student's poetic imagination, or inspire him with a sense of the beauty of the poem. It does not call his attention to its felicities of diction and versification, or to the intimate relation of its substance and its form. It gives no full exposition of Dante's scheme of the moral and material universe, or of his religious doctrine, or of his object in the writing of his poem, or of his conception of his own mission. It comes short of an ideal comment in many ways; but as a literal, explanatory comment it will be most useful to every beginner of the study of the poet; and the young student may supplement it with the delightful commentary with which Longfellow furnished his translation. Still, the two combined do not supply all that is wanted. There is no perfect comment even in Italian.

Asia and Europe: Studies presenting the conclusions formed by the author in a long life devoted to the subject of the relations between Asia and Europe. By Meredith Townsend. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1901. Pp. xii, 388.

This is a book of the most unhappy editing. The matter which it contains is indicated in the title with tolerable, but not perfect exactitude. Some of the studies could be brought under that rubric only by an exceeding wideness of interpretation. They all deal with Asia, it is true; and when we think of Asia, we cannot but relate it to Europe. But the fact is, that we have here simply a collection of the fugitive papers contributed through many years to the *Contemporary Review*, the old *National Review*, and the *Spectator* by an Indianist with a taste for anthropology and historical speculation. They range from a life of Muhammad to a few paragraphs on the minds of savages, and are always brightly and clearly written, readable to an eminent degree, and with no half-heartedness in the dashing off of theories of the past and hypotheses for the future. But the pity is that Mr. Townsend has not given more attention to the attiring for regular life of these wandering children of his brain. Only in one case, where we are told that the paper was published in 1874, are we given definite information as to the conditions under which he wrote or printed. In some other cases we can make large conjectures from references and tone, but generally we are left absolutely in the dark. How unfortunate this is for the estimating of such essays need hardly be said.

Mr. Townsend has made careful study of the Hindu mind, and, undoubtedly, in his years of experience, has reached far down into its mysteries. Its mental seclusion, which made Burton speak of the East Indian as the most unsympathetic of all races to the European, is admirably described and even explained. The Asiatic notion of justice, and acceptance of the whims, however bloody, of an absolute ruler as legally right and proper; the influence of religion upon moral conceptions, making it perfectly fitting for one caste to do a thing that is a sin in another; the ability in the Hindu mind to assent intellectually to the truth of different religious systems, and yet not to embrace any of them; to believe, also, at the same time, the most flatly opposed things; patriotism as it exists in the Hindu and pity as it does not exist; the sense in which India is civilized, and the sense in which it is barbaric; what makes life worth living, for the Oriental—the excitement of unlimited possibility in life beside life that is always afternoon—on all these things flashes of absolute insight are cast. In dealing with other races, we have rather anthropology slinging theories than experience recording facts. Thus, Mr. Townsend's estimate of the negro is probably too low, and that of the Arab too high. There are only two ways of learning to know the Arab race. One is to night and day with them in the desert, not as a tourist, but as a solitary wanderer. The other is to work steadily through Doughty's great book—weighty in every sense—of travels in Arabia Deserta. Mr. Townsend seems to have followed neither. And to no one man, it may be safely said, is it given to know both the Hindu and the Arab. Burton himself could not pick the lock of the East Indian mind. With the Chinese and the Japanese, Mr. Townsend has evidently even less acquaintance; especially he does not seem to have realized how completely Japan has assimilated Europe and ceased to be Oriental.

The thesis which Mr. Townsend seeks to support by the republishing of the papers in this volume is simple and direct. East is East and West is West, and they can never fuse into one. There may be trade between Europe and Asia or struggle; the thought of Asia may be the religion of Europe; but the Oriental and the Occidental must always stand apart. Each disdains the other; neither understands the other; neither, and that is the point, can conquer and assimilate the other. England's rule of India—the greatest social experiment since the *Pax Romana*—is, for any permanent result, a failure. The races are farther apart than ever, and there is no sign that Western law, religion, or education is producing any effect on the Indian mind. The law courts may be rigorously just, but the Indian prefers a rougher and readier justice than they render—one more personal even if corrupt. Missionary work has been educational and not creative. No native church has been founded that can take care of itself and send out bands of itinerant preachers to reach their own kin; the education has been of the English type on the system founded by Macaulay, who, of all men, could least understand an Oriental—he did not understand even Plato—and it has produced the Babu, who learns his textbook by heart, and not the learned Pandit. England will infallibly lose India, and India will be Indian and Oriental again. The same holds true of Russia and its conquests. Asia may within a century be completely parcelled out among the European Powers, but they will not, cannot hold it. As Alexander failed, as the Romans failed, as the Crusaders failed, so will this movement of conquest which is evidently coming.

Of America's part in this, Mr. Townsend says little, except in his preface. There he recognizes that what America wants is trade, and trade only. The attitude of America to Asia will not be one of conquest, but "one of rather contemptuous guardianship." The phrase is excellent, and is an example of many more throughout the book. The book as a whole could have been made equally excellent; that is the pity of it.

La Formation du Style par l'Assimilation des Auteurs. Par Antoine Albalat. Paris: Armand Colin. 1901.

Somewhat more than two years ago, we spoke with commendation of this author's 'L'Art d'Écrire,' which has meantime had a sale approaching ten thousand copies—proof that it went to the mark with the French public. The present work contains much that will be found familiar by readers of the former, and it is for other reasons not so captivating. Its movement is necessarily slower, as will appear when we say that more than a quarter of the treatise is devoted to Antithesis, an artifice of which a very few illustrations will satisfy, and many satiate. However, one cannot avoid considering minutely and at length this antithesis, which is, in M. Albalat's words, "the key, the explanation, the generative reason for half of French literature, or, if you please, of the French style employed by our best authors, from Montaigne to Victor Hugo." For the study of it he for once does not send his readers to the Greeks, but, beginning with Tacitus, passes to Montaigne and other French writers of the earlier date, for he prefers them to Hugo, Mignet, and Taine, antithetical as are these also in a marked degree—Hugo "antithesis incarnate." While Rousseau stands in the front of this series, Voltaire has no place in it, and is seldom cited anywhere in the book for his own sake. His style is pronounced destitute of rhetoric, and therefore unassimilable. Rousseau, the father of romantic literature, was classed by the Comte de Ségur with Corneille, Bossuet, and Tacitus as having the power to fecundate his soul, while Voltaire, though ravishing his intellect, left him unproductive; and Victor Cousin, again linking Rousseau with Tacitus, declared that no other French writer except Pascal had left such an impress on the language.

Homer, in the garb of Leconte de Lisle, plays a great rôle here as in 'L'Art d'Écrire,' especially in the chapters on description; and after him Chateaubriand, the study of whom will supersede that of all the writers of our time, "for he contains them all." Fénelon, the good writer, has no graphic powers, and his 'Télémaque' has done incalculable harm by being imposed as a text-book. It should be proscribed, says our author. For the formation of taste, read no book devoid of talent; and not many books but good ones, a test of which is their re-readability. M. Albalat shows with much

detail the modes of assimilating authors by imitation, but bids no one attempt this who has not the inner promptings to write; and his final word is: "The art of writing is a gift first innately possessed, then developed by the study of those who have been and will remain the masters of French literature."

The exceptional value of this discussion lies in the choice illustrative extracts and in the constant reinforcement of the argument by citations from critical authorities, whose works are indicated by title for further study. Thus, Taine is adduced, in the chapter on description on the model of Homer's realism: "With this [French classic] style it is impossible to translate the Bible, Homer, Dante, or Shakspere. Read Hamlet's soliloquy in Voltaire, and see what becomes of it—abstract declamation . . . Look into Homer and then into Fénelon for the Isle of Calypso. . . ." M. Albalat adds from Voltaire's notes on Corneille a striking list of words and phrases, the use of which the annotator interdicts in the noble style—*humeur, gens, bourse, langue* being the last four out of twenty-eight. We may also call attention to the interesting incidental consideration of the place of the adjective in French, on pages 281-283.

Chapters on Greek Metric. By Thomas Dwight Goodell. (Yale University Bicentenary.) Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

Professor Goodell here attempts a reëxamination of certain crucial passages in the ancient writers on Metric, and endeavors to interpret them by comparison with one another, and also by the light of modern scientific study of the nature of the rhythmical impulse and its modes of operation. The sense of rhythm among the Greeks can hardly have differed greatly from ours, though we know that it differed in some details. The Greek poet composed without any theory of rhythm, and was guided by ear alone and by his artistic sense; the Greek school-boy undoubtedly required no more training to read aloud his Sophocles or Euripides correctly than the English boy to read his Milton. We may go farther and assume that Greek song in general did no violence to the ordinary pronunciation as regards time: for conductor and singer alike, the natural pronunciation of the words constituted the basis. Such being the case, then, in verse as well as in speech the spoken syllables must have been more or less flexible, the syllabic quantities must have remained somewhat elastic. This fact we might expect; it is recognized by Aristoxenos, our surest guide, and it is involved in his description of irrational feet. Nor was there any sharp distinction between the rhythm of song and that of spoken words. In maintaining this against Westphal, Professor Goodell follows Weil's exposition of Aristoxenos. There was, of course, in music increased precision in the observance of rhythm. But, just as in the modern languages, Greek poetry was *read* in a style which Aristides Quintilianus calls "intermediate" between that of conversation and that of singing.

From all this it follows that the hard-and-fast definition of the metrists (*metrici*) must be taken with reserve. That the long syllable is invariably twice the length of the short, Aristoxenos did not accept; since he treated metre as a branch of rhythm, he was aware in practice of the fact, proved by modern experiment, that "consonants and vowels alike are very elastic as regards the time of pronunciation." Toward the metrists, however, the attitude of Professor Goodell is conservative—they are to be treated with caution, but not to be neglected; they may often be corrected or interpreted by the aid of Aristoxenos. Professor Goodell does not accept the "cyclic" or three-timed dactyls. He sees no ground for this assumption in the ancient sources. He does not accept Blass's theory of the so-called dactylo-epitritic line with its heterogeneous groups of feet, founded on the Pindaric scholia; he does not agree with Rossbach that dactyls and anapæsts, when combined with trochees, can become three-timed; on the contrary, he believes that the trochees were adapted to the dactyls, and rhythmized or prolonged under their influence, rather than vice-versa. This does not prevent, however, our supposing an occasional shift to the three-timed rhythm when a complete colon of trochees is inserted. Such a shift might enhance the beauty of a strophe in Aeschylus or Pindar, and produce what may be called a bit of rhythmic harmony. Finally, Professor Goodell attempts to cut the Gordian knot of certain logaœdic metres, apropos of which he does not blush to quote sympathetically T. Reinach's "le glyconien que M. Masqueray ni moi ne savons scander."

His solution we have no space to condense; but it may be said, in general, that these chapters are a valuable contribution to the study of Metric, based on sound principles and sound interpretation. The author's discussions offer incidentally some excellent and acute observations on English verse and rhythm, too good to be wasted in the dry desert of a technical disquisition. They should be incorporated in a separate treatise for the edification of English readers.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 24, 1901.

The Week.

One of the most prominent men in the country, a leader in the cause of education, known and honored abroad, visited Washington the other day. He is a personal friend of Mr. Roosevelt, and the President consults him freely about matters in the section where he lives, attaching great value to his advice. Mr. Roosevelt likes to have a friend at dinner in an informal way, and so he naturally invited this gentleman to his table. Yet leading politicians throughout the South have been greatly excited over this incident, which some newspapers in that part of the country treat as of national importance. The Memphis *Commercial-Appeal*, for example, says that "President Roosevelt has committed a blunder that is worse than a crime"; the New Orleans *States* declares that his action "was little less than a studied insult to the South"; while the Memphis *Scimitar* pronounces it "the most damnable outrage which has ever been perpetrated by any citizen of the United States." The explanation of this extraordinary outbreak is the fact that the distinguished citizen whom the President of the United States invited to dinner was President Booker T. Washington of Tuskegee (Ala.) Institute—"a nigger," as the *Commercial-Appeal* calls him. Mr. Roosevelt has committed the crime of trying to establish "social equality," and this Memphis newspaper lays down the rule, which can be violated by any white man only at peril of his political life, that "race supremacy precludes social equality." The negro, according to this authority, is entitled to his rights under the law, "and the men who stand for white supremacy are the strongest advocates of granting him these rights; but beyond that they will not go." The reason is, that beyond lies the chasm which must never be crossed by any bridge of "social equality." If the President were seeking votes at the South, we should be obliged to join this critic in pronouncing his act of private hospitality a blunder. But as he was a man before he was a President, he has achieved the most honorable success of his life—and that not by way of demonstration or advertisement; nor, we will add, by way of carrying out the policy of his predecessor.

Secretary Long's navy estimates for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1903, should make plain to every one what an enormous price the country is to pay in its race to outstrip European nations in the number of ships. He asks for $98,910,984 for the maintenance and increase of the fleet during the next year—a sum but eleven millions less than that estimated as the cost of running the city government of New York city under Tammany rule throughout the next fiscal year. In other words, Congress is asked to vote for the navy more money than it would cost to supply another New York, economically and honestly administered, with all the municipal necessaries of the life of a large city—parks, water supply, clean streets, lighting, baths, schools, police, fire protection, etc. The fact that the new estimates are thirty-one millions higher than those for last year only demonstrates once more how the naval appetite always grows with feeding upon the public treasury. No Navy Department the world over has embarked on this policy and ever proclaimed itself satisfied. There are always more ships or more men required, unless the legislature, or the people, or national bankruptcy puts on the brakes. The time for the American people to say Enough has come.

In striking and pleasing contrast to these navy estimates are those of the War Department. Despite the increased regular army, the cost of reorganization, and the unceasing necessity for keeping 40,000 men on a war footing in the Philippines, Secretary Root asks for considerably less money than last year. Sixteen millions is the sum which he finds he can lop off from the amount he received last year, and still carry twenty millions for river and harbor improvements not properly chargeable to the military account. That this moderation is largely due to economies in administration, rigidly insisted upon by the Secretary, is another feather in that able official's cap. What makes the contrast between the $79,000,000 asked by the War Department for military purposes and the $98,910,000 called for by Secretary Long all the more striking is, that the army is still at war, while the navy, even with its blockading duty, cannot be said to be upon that footing. When one considers the enormous sum required for pensions, the total tribute which the United States will probably pay to the spirit of war during the next year must seem appalling, even to those familiar with the burdens of European militarism.

The pig-headed and obstinate refusal of certain "properly subject" peoples to know when they are conquered, continues to cause our Imperialistic friends in England and this country no little concern. There are those stupid Boers. Nearly two years ago it was officially declared by the English Government that all possibility of their reaching the sea in Cape Colony was at an end. On Thursday, after twenty-six months of hostilities, a bold band of raiders was able to cry "Thalatta, Thalatta" from hills within fifty miles of Cape Town! Among our own involuntary subjects in the Philippines there continues to be the same stubborn refusal to recognize the desirability of the benefits of Anglo-Saxon civilization when supplied by force. In Samar on Thursday another detachment of the Ninth Infantry narrowly escaped such a massacre as was the fate of Company C of that regiment two weeks ago, getting off with a loss of ten killed and six wounded out of forty-six men. It is not surprising that it is announced that there will be no further withdrawals of troops. Gen. Corbin was sure that we should need only 24,000 men in the islands. Gen. Chaffee, however, insists by cable that he must have more than 40,000 men, and that a reduction in this force might mean a widespread recrudescence of the war.

Bad news multiplies from Samar. A conspiracy has been discovered to slaughter another body of troops. The leader of the conspiracy was the Presidente appointed by the Taft Commission—a fresh illustration of the hollowness of the peace that Senator Foraker tells us has at last descended upon the archipelago. So far is this from the truth, that every soldier within reach has been sent to Samar, and, after all other available forces have been exhausted, 356 marines have been sent in hot haste to the island. The *Army and Navy Journal* of October 5 publishes a detailed statement of the forces dispatched to Samar from time to time. The original detail for this service consisted of the entire First Infantry, the Second Battalion of the Ninth, and two squadrons of cavalry. There are now at least four full regiments in the island, and the trouble is increasing all the time. Not only is the local trouble increasing, but the news of disaster to the Americans in Samar "spreads like wildfire among the natives, who scarcely attempt to conceal their delight." In other words, the pacification which the Taft Commission has reported is not even skin deep. Consequently we are in for fresh slaughter in behalf of our bill of sale from Spain and of our insufferable cant about a benevolent war of civilization. In our profit and loss account, since the treaty of peace with Spain, will anybody write down what we have to show for the American blood and the American money poured out in those Asiatic islands? Will Senator Foraker or anybody else undertake to say how much more of both we shall expend before we convince the Filipinos that we are trying

to give them as much liberty as they are capable of enjoying and rightfully using? And is this kind of a war the world mission of America at the beginning of the twentieth century?

The movement, initiated some time ago, for a national convention of manufacturers to discuss the subject of reciprocity, has now taken concrete form. It will be held in Washington on November 19, and will probably last three days. The plan originated in a suggestion offered last June at the annual meeting of the National Association of Manufacturers, and has been elaborated by the Executive Committee of that body. The Committee, in the call it has recently issued, outlines the work of the proposed meeting as being "to discuss the expediency and practicability of the broader applications of the principles of commercial reciprocity, as a means of expanding foreign markets for American products without sacrificing the interests of any of our industries." The call has been freely distributed to business organizations, but none except men actually engaged in manufacturing enterprise will be recognized as delegates to the convention. With a body really representative of producers from all parts of the country, it may fairly be hoped that some clearer notion of the best lines to be pursued in tariff reform may be obtained. The advantages gained by protected industries in one part of the country are offset by the corresponding disadvantages entailed upon those situated elsewhere. It would probably be too much to expect the convention to be absolutely harmonious, or perhaps to adopt recommendations of much importance. But it cannot fail to give much needed insight into the real feeling of our manufacturers on the subject of reciprocity.

The Chicago *Tribune* has interrogated a large number of editors personally on the question of ship subsidies, and has received eighteen answers in writing, which it publishes. Twelve of them are opposed to subsidies altogether, four are in favor of some kind of subsidy, and two are neutral. The most marked feature of the replies is the vigorous expression of opinion against any form of subsidy. The editor of the Elgin (Ill.) *News* maintains that no measure should be passed by Congress taxing the many for the benefit of the few. The editor of the Madison (Wis.) *Journal* says that "to grant millions to great steamship lines or as free gifts to individuals will only add to the flame of social and political unrest." The Janesville (Wis.) *Gazette* points to Mr. J. P. Morgan's acquisition of the Leyland Line and says that that is the way to build up a merchant marine. "If there is any money in a merchant marine, there is enough idle capital in this country to build and equip a fleet that would be unrivalled. If there is no profit in the enterprise there is no reason why the people's money should be so invested." The editor of the Portland *Oregonian* says that all the shipyards on the Pacific Coast are crowded with work, and that they are more than a year behind with their orders. No bounty or subsidy could get any more work out of them than they are now doing. The Centralia (Ill.) *Sentinel* holds that the Ship Subsidy Bill involves not only many millions of dollars, but a principle which is "hardly compatible with a republican form of government." The Toledo *Blade* says: "Kill all subsidy bills." All the foregoing newspapers are Republican in politics. The Milwaukee *Wisconsin*, the Muscatine (Ia.) *Journal*, and the Galesburg *Republican* favor a subsidy in some form. The Chicago *Tribune* itself is opposed to any subsidy. Its investigation proves that the Hanna-Payne bill is more unpopular in the West now than it was during the last Congress.

The *Tribune* has a telegram from Washington purporting to give the points of the new Isthmian Canal treaty. According to this version, the features in which it differs from the treaty of last year are that the United States guarantees the neutrality of the canal, and is the sole guarantor, and that the United States reserves the right to fortify the canal. The latter clause was not in the Hay-Pauncefote treaty as amended by the Senate. If it has been inserted in the new treaty, it is rather incongruous with the principle of neutrality; but of course we are not obliged to spend our money in fortifying a neutral canal, and, of course, our fortification of it will not give us any advantages over other nations in the use of it, either in peace or in war. If we were at war, we might prevent any other Power from passing through it, but any other Power that was stronger than ourselves on the water could prevent us from entering it. The main thing to know, however, is that the treaty will be ratified by the Senate with little, if any, opposition. It does not follow that the Nicaragua route will be adopted. The Panama Canal is still very much alive, and its President is in Washington now for the purpose, it is presumed, of offering it to our Government. The offer, if made, will reach the public through the report of the Isthmian Canal Commission, of which Admiral Walker is the President.

The text of Judge Morris's opinion, in which he sustains the decision of the Board of General Appraisers in the Russian sugar-bounty case, will increase the interest already felt in this important suit. Judge Morris's decision, it now turns out, was purely formal. He reviews the Russian system, by which the amount of sugar produced for home consumption is practically limited, and shows that, although the amount involved in this particular case is very small, the result will be of far-reaching importance. In view of the certainty of appeal, the decision of the lower court is of only momentary weight, and the Judge, therefore, believes that in rendering his opinion he should cause as little delay as may be. Recognizing that the question is a close one, Judge Morris prefers not to take the time necessary for such a technical study of the facts as alone would warrant him in reversing the carefully considered ruling of the majority of the Board of Appraisers, notwithstanding that he inclines to agree with the minority report of that body. An appeal to the United States Circuit Court of Appeals has been filed, and the case is likely to be heard at the November term in Richmond, Va.

There has been considerable fear lest the changed conditions in Washington should lead to the retirement from public life of one of our greatest patriots and statesmen, the Hon. Mark Hanna. The loss of this high-minded politician and leader would, we all know, cause consternation in more quarters than one—in none more so than in those shipping circles which have organized to obtain Government money for an industry that cannot fill the orders already booked. All apprehensions were set at rest, however, when Senator Hanna made the following statement in the course of his speech at Delaware, O., on Saturday: "Let no yellow journalism or blatant demagogues shake your faith in the conditions of this country to-day, as affecting those who have the responsibility. *I* am not going to retire from politics or public duty. *I* have no intention of resigning my chairmanship of the National Committee. *I* am going to stay there and see Nash and Foraker and others through, if it takes ten years." Nothing has so reassured and quieted the country as will this touching announcement of Mr. Hanna's self-sacrificing devotion to duty. Anxious patriots may now rest in peace.

Bourke Cockran is one of the men who have found it hard to make up their minds what to do. He now announces that Mr. Shepard's speech at Tammany Hall, the other evening, settled the matter in favor of the Tammany candidate. Mr. Cockran argues that Mr. Shepard's courage in reasserting his condemnation of Tammany rule in the very presence of the boss foreshadows "an administrative atmosphere where no boss could survive for a month," while Mr. Low's failure to reaffirm in 1901 his denunciation of the Republican organization and its boss in 1897 "shows that he

has abased himself to become the instrument of the Republican machine." This is ingenious, but it is not ingenuous. Mr. Low is not called upon to denounce the Republican organization when it has reversed its position and come upon his non-partisan platform; while the idea that any man in the Mayor's office could free this city from Tammany rule while Tammany should control the District Attorneyship, the Comptrollership, the Presidents of the Board of Aldermen and of the boroughs, as well as the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, is simply absurd.

There has been no more refreshing development since the beginning of the campaign than the action of Mr. Grout and of Judge Jerome in naming names in their Saturday night speeches against Tammany. If there is one thing that is needed to win this fight, it is the pointing out of the rascals responsible for New York's degradation with an unmistakable "Thou art the man." It is all the more necessary because the Van Wycks, Sullivans, Carrolls, and Crokers are hiding behind Shepard's respectability in the hope that the discussion as to his actions may veil their own misdeeds. It will not suffice to say, as Mr. Jerome did, that the single issue in this fight is "Thou shalt not steal," unless the responsibility for the wrong-doing is fixed in the public eye. It should be made clear, too, by the most unmistakable language, just who is to be adjudged guilty for the shocking conditions which permit of an organized system for the ruining of young girls upon the East and West Sides. These are the subjects to which the hearts of the people will respond. Courage and fearlessness in attacking them will find a prompt echo in every tenement in the city in which there are honorable men and women. Justice Jerome and Mr. Grout are to be congratulated on having begun the work of branding the Tammany leaders who profit by gambling. "I say," declared Mr. Jerome, "that Mr. Croker is over the whole thing, but I name those five men together—Carroll, Sexton, Devery, Frank Farrell, the head of the gambling combine, and Van Wyck."

One of the "Ripper" bills passed by the "gang" in Pennsylvania has been declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court. The word ripper is applied to any measure passed by the Legislature for the purpose of ousting local officers elected by the people for a definite time, when the gang cannot wait for the legal expiration of their terms. In such cases they "rip" the law and the institutions of the State as a butcher sticks a pig. They ripped the cities of Pittsburgh and Scranton in this way successfully in the persons of their chief magistrates, and they attempted to rip Philadelphia in the persons of its principal tax officers. The object which the gang had in view was not only to get possession of the patronage of the Board of Tax Revision, consisting of fifty-four assessors and a large clerical force, but also (as the *Ledger* thinks) "to increase taxation to meet the vast increase of the city's current obligations growing out of bad government, not by frankly raising the tax rate, but by the indirect and less noticeable method of increasing valuations, with shrewd discriminations in favor of machine followers." In other words, they intended to "make it hot" for the reformers by increasing their taxes. At all events, they would have the power to do so, and they could hold this power over the heads of their opponents *in terrorem*. The Supreme Court pronounces this in conflict with the clause of the State Constitution which prohibits special legislation regarding the affairs of counties. The rippers thought to circumvent this clause by making their law applicable to all counties which are now coextensive with cities of the first class. There is only one such county now. There may be others hereafter, but the ripper law will not apply to them, because they are not now in that class. Hence, it is special legislation, both actually and technically. This looks like a very narrow escape, but it gives the people of Philadelphia one more chance to redeem themselves from the rippers.

To a distant observer, the Triennial Convention of the Episcopal Church in San Francisco would seem to have simply failed to enact the chief measures of legislation laid before it. The new canons on marriage and divorce passed the House of Bishops, but were defeated, on the vote by dioceses, in the House of Deputies. Dr. Huntington's proposal to introduce a certain amount of liberty and flexibility in the use of the Prayer Book was likewise rejected, though by only the narrowest majority. As for the other burning question, the change of the official title of the Church, by dropping the words "Protestant Episcopal," that was merely referred to a committee to report three years hence. But we know, of course, that there were many important matters before the Convention relating to the internal life and to the general usefulness of the Church, which did not bulk largely in the newspaper accounts, but which were of deep interest to the delegates and their constituent churches. Great reforms or innovations are as hard to effect in an ecclesiastical convention as in Congress; but the routine work of either is as indispensable as it is humdrum.

The French budget for 1902 makes a better showing than had been expected, the deficit amounting to only $10,000,000. In view of the late decline in the revenues and the general unproductiveness of taxes during the past year, an even greater deficiency might well have been looked for. Of the probable shortage of $10,000,000, at least $4,000,000 represents the amounts paid as sugar bounties. Even under the most favorable showing, the financial estimates for the coming year must prove disheartening to those who have been promoting the plan for old-age pensions and the numerous other schemes for extending the functions of the state. Besides this, much disappointment will be caused by the economies already made in order to bring the estimates to their present figure. The outlays for new battle-ships have been cut off, and the estimates have been curtailed in every respect possible, yet it is quite to be expected that the supplementary budget, when introduced as usual, will very much enlarge the deficit. The adoption of a plan for giving the state control of the petroleum industry may furnish some relief, if experience with the tobacco monopoly may be taken as a guide.

The Austrian budget, submitted on Thursday to the lower house of the Reichsrath, makes a very favorable showing in its estimates for the coming year, receipts and expenditures being substantially identical. Notwithstanding the bad commercial conditions, the Finance Minister anticipated that the budget of the year would turn out even better than was foreshadowed by the estimates. The debate on the German tariff question was extremely significant, for it was pointed out that, should a tariff war be necessitated, Austria is now in better condition than Germany to bear the consequences. Moreover, the preservation of harmony with Hungary was regarded as being of primary importance. Inasmuch as the high duties levied by the new German bill on food products will effectually cut off a large market for Hungarian cereals, which have hitherto been extensively imported into Germany, this utterance has great significance. It indicates that the threats of tariff retaliation by Austria are based upon fact, and point to the conclusion that the Austro-German political alliance might be endangered by an economic war. The really important feature of the situation is revealed by the dispatches from Berlin, which point out what the German press has avoided speaking of—the inability of that country in its present weak condition to face any such contest. True, the Government is now fully committed to the new bill, but its future course may yet be influenced by a determined attitude like that which Austria seems to have adopted. This gives good ground for hope that the bill may finally be retired, or so altered as to render it harmless.

SECRETARY GAGE AT MILWAUKEE.

The Secretary of the Treasury seized the opportunity afforded by his address to the American Bankers' Association at Milwaukee to propose some radical reforms in Government finance. These are not altogether new suggestions, but they derive great importance from Mr. Gage's official and personal standing. The first in the series, as they were presented by the speaker, proposes that the legal-tender notes of the Government be put in the way of retirement and cancellation. All, or nearly all, writers who can be classed as economists and who have dealt with this question since these notes were first issued, have concurred in the opinion that they are a source of danger, and should be got rid of as soon as possible. The reason why they should be retired is that they are "fiat money"; that they derive their value from the promise of the Government to redeem them in gold on demand; that it depends upon votes in Congress and in popular elections, from time to time, to decide whether they shall be redeemed or not, and whether the amount in existence shall be greater or less at any particular time.

Few persons can now recall the shifting moods of the public temper, or remember the intense anxiety which has prevailed at certain crises in our history, in reference to this subject. The legal-tender notes were issued, with great reluctance, for war purposes nearly forty years ago, and with the declared purpose on the part of the issuers of redeeming and retiring them as soon as the war should be ended. In order to insure their retirement, they were made convertible into 6 per cent. bonds, which was indeed a wise provision. The shifting policy of the Government was first exhibited by a repeal of this safeguard against redundancy. As soon as the war was ended, however, Congress voted (in December, 1865) to resume specie payments at an early day. On this the vote was nearly unanimous. To carry out this intention a law was passed in April, 1866, for retiring and cancelling the legal-tender notes at the rate of $4,000,000 per month. In February, 1868, Congress repealed the act, $44,000,000 of the notes having been retired meanwhile. In 1873 the Treasury Department reissued $26,000,000 of the retired notes, without authority of law. In 1874 Congress passed a bill to reissue the entire $44,000,000, but President Grant vetoed it, and it was not passed over the veto.

In 1875 Congress passed an act to provide for the resumption of specie payment on the 1st of January, 1879. In 1877 the House passed a bill to repeal the Specie-Resumption Act, and this was defeated in the Senate by one vote only. Both houses passed a bill providing that the legal-tender notes should not be retired when redeemed, but should be paid out and kept in circulation. The amount of notes then outstanding was about $346,000,000. Specie resumption took place January 1, 1879. In 1890 Congress passed the so-called Sherman Act, providing for a new emission of legal-tender notes of indefinite amount, to pay for silver bullion to be stored in the Treasury. The new issues of notes were followed by the exportation of gold to nearly the same amount and by the panic of 1893. During the next three years the Government was obliged to issue interest-bearing bonds to the amount of $262,315,400, in order to redeem its legal-tender notes.

The foregoing recital of facts comparatively recent indicates that there will always be uncertainty in respect of the redemption of Government paper and of the amount issued. Such uncertainty attaches to the notes now outstanding, since it depends upon the political majority to decide what amount shall be issued and whether redemption shall continue or not. For this reason the notes should be redeemed with the surplus revenue of the Government and cancelled as soon as possible. Secretary Gage says truly that the present is the most propitious hour in all our history, and as favorable as any we may hope for in the future, to carry out this and other desirable reforms in our financial system. All that is needed is for Congress to re-enact the law of 1866, which authorized the Secretary to retire and cancel the notes at the rate of $4,000,000 per month, or at some rate corresponding to the surplus revenue. The time has long passed when anybody could call a measure of this kind "contraction of the currency."

The other recommendations of the Secretary look to the detachment of the Treasury from all connection with banking and currency, except as to the supervision of national banks, which the present law provides for. He would have the surplus revenue of the Government deposited in national banks, under a definite legalized plan, not the haphazard system now prevailing. He would have the banknote system so modified as to make it elastic and responsive to the needs of the business community, without any increase of risk to the noteholder, and he would have the Government's responsibility for the redemption of banknotes withdrawn. The details of these changes were not indicated, but it is probable that they will be outlined in his coming annual report.

The Bankers' Convention at Milwaukee has undoubtedly had a most wholesome influence. This is the first time since the civil war when a recommendation from a Secretary of the Treasury for a retirement of the Government's legal-tender notes finds public opinion sufficiently calm to give it the unprejudiced attention that it deserves.

UNITY IN BANKING.

The address of Mr. A. B. Stickney before the American Bankers' Association was a plea for the centralization of banking control, and for economy in bank administration. The speaker specifically mentioned a number of reforms to be instituted, but the measure upon which he laid most stress, and which formed the core of his recommendations, was the abolition of the sub-treasury system, and the substitution for it of a strong central institution, which should hold the money of the Government and the reserves of the banks of the country. Mr. Stickney's address is notable not merely for the force with which its recommendations are presented, but also because its main suggestion is now being urged from many quarters. The idea of a central bank, buried for so long under the opprobrium it incurred before the creation of the National system, is in process of rehabilitation, and is making a strong appeal to practical men, as well as to theorists. It has lately been advocated by Mr. Muhleman and many others.

In considering a proposal so radical as that of Mr. Stickney, it is fair to inquire carefully into both its theoretical merits and its practical feasibility. It is not to be denied that, from a purely abstract standpoint, the notion of a central bank is alluring, and the justice of most of Mr. Stickney's arguments in its behalf may at once be admitted. It is easy to conceive of a large and well-managed institution which should exercise general oversight and control over other banks, economizing the gold needed for legitimate reserve requirements, issuing or supervising a sound note-currency, and wholly overcoming the recurrent difficulty of a Treasury surplus, by making Government balances available in business. How great a strength to the Government such a bank might be in time of emergency, may be seen from the history of our two early United States banks, and may be equally well inferred from the painful lack of such a support during the civil war. Moreover, the abstract neatness of such an inclusive plan is not the only thing to recommend it. There is much sound argument to be adduced in its favor from analogy and from the experience of foreign countries. The United States is the only country which has a distinct Treasury, with all its attendant evils. The finances of practically all others are handled with efficiency and honesty by one central bank in each.

While the concept of a central Federal bank possesses this attractive element of completeness, there is a good deal that is not so obvious to be said against it. Our experience with the earlier United States Bank has shown some of the dangers likely to be encountered by such institutions. It is true that too much should not be made of the events

of a cruder period of our development. The defects displayed by a National bank in 1835 are no earnest that these troubles would reappear in an institution of the same sort seventy years later, any more than the unsoundness of the early bank currency secured by State bonds casts a doubt upon the notes of the National banking system to-day. Yet the experience of our Government in conducting other lines of work would indicate the hazard of intrusting it with the conduct of a bank of issue. And merely to make it a sleeping partner in an institution managed by private individuals does not seem to be a course warranted by the methods employed in some of the large banks of the present.

Apart from problems of management and technique, there are also more serious objections to Mr. Stickney's general argument. He comes before a convention of bankers with a plan intended to remedy the Treasury difficulties, and at the same time to solve the problem of inelastic currency and high interest rates in remote places. Nothing can be gained, however, by confusing these two different phases of the currency and banking question. The Treasury surplus involves a range of problems that are entirely its own. The argument for a strong central bank must rest largely upon considerations of Government finance and Treasury management. It is hard to see why such an institution should be better able to furnish a credit currency and equalize interest rates than would the present National banks, provided they were freed from the prohibitions upon branch banking and free note issue. Mr. Stickney, moreover, seems to claim too much for his plan. In maintaining that the establishment of a central Federal bank would largely overcome the danger of commercial crises, he disregards the plain teaching of history. The argument that the action of National banks in pooling reserves and issuing Clearing-house certificates in times of stringency shows what could be done constantly by a system of centralization of reserves, disregards an important principle. The late Professor Dunbar pointed this out with his usual incisiveness when he said that "what is effective by way of relief is not necessarily salutary as a regular system. The relief in this case comes from the fact that, under the arrangement for combined reserves, every bank is completely discharged from any real sense of responsibility for cautious action . . . Under ordinary circumstances it is not by any diminished sense of responsibility that the way to sound banking and to the ultimate good of the community is to be found."

When all has been said and done, the difficulty remains that a central Federal bank is practically and politically impossible. The adoption of such a plan, even though ideally perfect in theory, could hardly be expected by any but a thorough Utopian. Its introduction in Congress would be the signal for an unparalleled outburst of Populistic wrath. It would be hailed as the organization of a "Money Trust," and no amount of sober argument could demonstrate its advantages. Nor would the opposition be wholly of this frenzied character. It hardly needs to be said that the plan would meet with bitter opposition from both National and State banks, and its defeat would be assured. For support it could count only on a certain number of theorists and students. Currency reformers must for a long time to come make up their minds to be content with half a loaf. They must keep Treasury and banking problems separate, so far as possible. The crying need of the country at this moment is a credit currency, and this can be obtained in the near future if its advocates will unite in demanding the repeal of the bond deposit security for national banknotes and of the prohibition of branch banking. The larger matters of banking organization and care of Government funds will then be in much better condition for treatment than now.

MR. SHEPARD IN TAMMANY HALL.

Mr. Shepard's speech in Tammany Hall on Thursday evening was one of extraordinary quality. No candid reader can fail to perceive its revelation of a powerful intellect. Nor was it lacking in manly courage. Mr. Shepard stood up in Tammany Hall and told its leaders to their teeth that he was not there "to excuse or recede from anything" he had said against them; that he does not "approve all that has been done in the city administration," but believes that "specific reforms" are necessary "not only in the Police Department, but in other departments"; and that "if the power of the Mayor shall come to me, it will be used to effect these reforms." At the same time, we believe that Mr. Shepard is wholly wrong in placing his splendid abilities at the service of Richard Croker, and that the task which he has proposed to himself to accomplish is one which he never should have undertaken, one which, when he did undertake it, he set about in the wrong way, and one which, under the circumstances, must prove too formidable for even his great powers and honest purpose. For what is that task, as he himself defines it? It is to "bring to the Democratic party a useful and fruitful prestige, consistent in every way with the highest public service." In other words, Mr. Shepard aims at purifying and restoring the Democratic party. For that he seeks the mayoralty. On that score he appeals to wavering independent Democrats, upon whom the spell of the old party name and the old party leaders is so strong. He plainly cherishes the hope of re-embodying, to the masses of the party throughout the land, the spirit of inflexible reform which was so long associated with the name of Tilden, and afterwards with that of Cleveland.

Mention of the latter recalls the way in which his attitude towards the mayoralty of Buffalo in 1881 contrasts sharply with that of Mr. Shepard towards the mayoralty of New York in 1901. When Mr. Cleveland was asked by the Democrats to stand as Mayor, he made his consent depend upon the personnel of his associates on the ticket. In fact, not until the remainder of the city ticket was actually put in nomination, not until an objectionable candidate for Comptroller had been pushed aside, did Grover Cleveland allow himself to be nominated. He would not stand at the head of a reform ticket if rogues were to be scattered all the way down it. This is the position that Mr. Shepard should have taken when asked to accept the Tammany nomination. He should have insisted upon knowing who his associates were to be. He should have demanded borough and county nominees who would uphold his hands, instead of tying them. If this had not been conceded, he could have scornfully left Tammany to wallow in its own mire, and made its defeat certain. In that way he could have spared himself the mortification of standing upon a platform which consists of one long and defiant glorification of those very Tammany vices which he declares that he means to cut away with unsparing hand. We are certain that by his lack of Mr. Cleveland's resolute courage and foresight, he has in advance fatally crippled himself in the work which we do not doubt he has honestly at heart.

The Democrats of Philadelphia are at this moment giving Mr. Shepard a valuable object-lesson in purifying and restoring the party. They are doing it by cutting off the heads of their thieving committeemen. No less than six of the Donnelly-Ryan ringsters were compelled to walk the plank by the reformers under the lead of ex-Gov. Pattison. In Philadelphia they have learned that reform is not safe in the hands of its enemies. But suppose Mr. Shepard had insisted upon such a simple earnest of reform in Tammany. Why, the Tammany General Committee would have looked as if dynamite had exploded under it! Croker would have had to flee to Wantage before the election, instead of after it. The Engels and Sullivans and Gradys would have had to take refuge permanently in their favorite boozing-kens. The thieves and blackmailers of the Hall would have hastened to arrange their bail-bonds.

That Mr. Shepard did nothing of the kind was his fatal mistake. He should have seen that no reform of official

crime is possible without refusing to have anything to do with the criminals. Moral purity comes before party purity. Mr. Shepard's natural place, his place of greatest dignity and greatest usefulness, was with the decent people of the city who have banded themselves together to oppose Tammany Hall, not as a political party, but as a den of thieves. First get rid of the bandits, and then talk about reforming your party as much as you please. The case is one for heroic surgery, for a resolute application of the cautery to the gangrene. It is not the way of physicians to purify and restore an infected limb by exposing themselves to contamination by its poison; they cut the festering member clean off. And, with all the respect we entertain for Mr. Shepard, we can but tell him that he is in more danger from Tammany Hall than Tammany Hall is from him. He pointed, in his speech, to the fact that Tammany came back stronger than ever, worse than ever, after its temporary reverses at the hands of Mayor Havemeyer and Mayor Strong. But he forgot to say what happened after Mr Hewitt took the Tammany nomination in 1886, in the same spirit, Mr. Shepard says, that animates him in taking it now. Mr. Hewitt tried to reform Tammany from the inside, but he has told us how the thing worked. He was thwarted and counterworked from the first and was thrown aside angrily at the end of his term, and Tammany came back then to run that career of riotous crime which was exposed in 1894. What guarantee can Mr. Shepard give the independent Democrats that he will not suffer the same fate in the maw of the same tiger?

It is at this critical point of refusing even the appearance of an alliance with scoundrels that Mr. Shepard is most in peril. He denied again on Thursday that it would be right for him to use the powers of the Mayor to "disintegrate Tammany Hall." Yet he himself has told us that Tammany is the "disintegrating and corrupting" power that is undermining civilization in this city. How, then, can an honest Mayor help aiming at the disintegration of such a power? Every good appointment he makes, every rascal he sends to jail (as Henry George said he would send Croker to jail if he were elected Mayor), is necessarily a disintegrating blow at Tammany Hall. But Mr. Shepard alleges that it would be "gross treason to the cause of government" to use the mayoralty against Tammany. This, we must say, leaves us gasping. If this be treason, then we can only say with Drake, in the verses which he published in the *Evening Post* in 1819, under the unconsciously prophetic nom de plume of "Croaker":

"And reason is treason in Tammany Hall."

It is not treason, but reason, to assert that the Mayor of New York is bound to use all the power of his office to fight intrenched official corruption. To do that, as Mr. Shepard knows, as every man knows, is to fight and endeavor to disintegrate Tammany Hall. He will find, therefore, if elected Mayor, that the first things he will have to set himself to do, in order to restore to the Democratic party its "fruitful prestige," is to cut away the cancer of Crokerism. And the pity of it is that, when the best men in New York are getting together to do the job thoroughly, Mr. Shepard should have refused them his help.

TAMMANY AND THE COURTS.

"As a citizen and a lawyer trained amid better standards," wrote Samuel J. Tilden, about thirty years ago, in his pamphlet on the rise and fall of the Tweed ring, "I had seen the descent of the bench and the bar with inexpressible concern." He added that in conversations with Charles O'Conor he "had often questioned whether those of us at the bar who had ceased to be dependent for a livelihood upon professional earnings, ought not to feel ourselves under a providential call, on the first opportunity, to open to the younger members of the profession a better future than that which was closing in upon them." So strong were Mr. Tilden's feelings in this matter that he "had advised a son of Francis Kernan, who came here to begin a career, to return to Utica rather than confront the degrading competition to which a young man would be exposed."

Nearly twenty years later, James Russell Lowell, in an address on independence in politics, spoke in more general terms of the obstacles interposed to the honorable aspiration of young men for public life. "What to me is the saddest feature of our present methods," said this acute student of democratic institutions, "is the pitfalls which they dig in the path of ambitious and able men who feel that they are fitted for a political career, that by character and training they could be of service to their country, yet who find every avenue closed to them, unless at the sacrifice of the very independence which gives them a claim to what they seek. As, in semi-barbarous times, the sincerity of a converted Jew was tested by forcing him to swallow pork, so these are required to gulp without a wry face what is as nauseous to them. I would do all in my power to render such loathsome compliances unnecessary."

The "degrading competition" which the great New Yorker so earnestly deprecated, a generation ago, and the "loathsome compliances" which still later stirred the indignation of the New England philosopher, yet characterize our politics, and they are illustrated in the Tammany ticket which is headed by Edward M. Shepard. The administration of justice is the most important feature of government in this city. The voters of Manhattan, a fortnight hence, are to decide in no small measure how the laws shall be enforced for some time to come. They are also to show what they consider proper standards for high offices connected with the courts; what sort of men they think should be placed in responsible and honorable positions as public prosecutor and as judges.

The District Attorney of New York County represents the public in the prosecution of offenders among a population of considerably more than two millions—almost as many people as there are in the whole thickly settled State of Massachusetts. He deals with criminals of all degrees; he can largely compel or prevent the indictment of criminals who have powerful interests behind them; he can to a great extent decide whether the indicted criminal shall be promptly convicted by a relentless use of the State's power, or whether the case shall be allowed to drag along until escape can be secured by some cunning device or other. The office demands the highest legal talents, the loftiest character, the most unqualified public confidence in the incumbent's purpose and ability to do absolute justice. In Henry W. Unger, Tammany presents for District Attorney a candidate whose strength as a lawyer is chiefly his skill in pettifogging, whose record as an assistant under Col. Gardiner was most discreditable, whose nomination is openly charged to have been dictated by "the gambling combine," and whose reputation renders entirely credible this distinct accusation against him by Justice Jerome.

A justice of the Supreme Court in this State is elected for a term of fourteen years, and his salary in New York County is $17,500. It is fast becoming the rule to reëlect by common consent any judge whose conduct has been unexceptionable, so that a good lawyer who reaches the bench of this court at forty-five or thereabouts may expect to retain his seat until he must be retired by the age limitation at seventy. Under these circumstances, a place as Justice of the Supreme Court should be one of the great prizes for the legal profession in the metropolis—the reward of a proved judicial temperament, an established character, and a conceded ability. For one of the positions on this bench soon falling vacant, Tammany presents Robert A. Van Wyck, a man who has for four years past as Mayor given repeated displays of an ungovernable temper and an unconcealed prejudice, who has been almost unanimously pronounced "conspicuously unfit for judicial position" by the Bar Association of the city, who has shown his moral bluntness by his readiness to speculate in the stock of a company which was largely dependent upon the favor of the city authorities. For another justiceship, Tammany

presents Charles W. Dayton, a lawyer of respectable ability, who had, as the price of his nomination by Croker, to swallow his own words and to break his own pledges, as thus uttered only four years ago:

"I am in this fight to inflict upon Richard Croker and the brutal despotism which he has established in Tammany Hall the most serious possible injury. My friends in Tammany Hall had builded for me a splendid future. They had pointed out in their mind's eye a career that I was to occupy, if only I would bow down and worship at the shrine of Crokerism. That, my friends, I never did, and, as I value my citizenship and my reverence to the Almighty, I never will."

The Tammany ticket as it affects the courts thus represents servility to an odious boss, who requires a lawyer to gulp the most nauseous dose which could be forced down his throat; it represents a defiance of well-established standards for the bench so gross that the bar rises in indignant protest against the outrage; it represents a surrender to the worst possible influences of the office in which as public prosecutor a man can render immense service or work terrible harm to the interests of the community. Such nominations as those of Dayton, Van Wyck, and Unger, if ratified at the polls, mean a "descent of the bench and the bar" now such as Samuel J. Tilden deplored thirty years ago. If we still had "the same Edward M. Shepard as of old," we should have now a most effective foe of such abuses, as we had a generation ago in the great Democrat whom he so much admires. It is perhaps the worst injury which the Edward M. Shepard of to-day is doing this city that he is lending an honored name to a later Tweed, who, like the earlier one, seeks to bend the courts to his purposes.

VAN BUREN AND SHEPARD.

Mr. Edward M. Shepard's 'Life of Martin Van Buren,' in the "American Statesmen" series, is an excellent and valuable book. Its main historical importance lies in its rectification of prejudiced and unfounded views of Van Buren's character. But it also yields, incidentally, an interesting and instructive glimpse of Mr. Shepard's own political doctrines, judgments, standards. What he now means by calling himself "a Democrat through and through" may be best understood by his sympathetic account of the rise and solidification of the Democratic creed of 1828-1840—the leading articles of which were government reduced to the minimum, free trade, and a sound currency. But Mr. Shepard's deliberately recorded dicta on politicians and their methods are what lends most timeliness and piquancy to a re-reading of his biography of Van Buren. We propose to make a few extracts, in order to allow the past to light up the present, the historian to comment upon the candidate.

In the mixture of strength and weakness, good and evil, which was in Van Buren as in every other man, Mr. Shepard singles out matter for praise and for blame with singular skill and impartiality. His admiration for courage and frankness in the politician, when exhibited, is expressed in no measured terms. Thus, he says of Van Buren, while the election of 1840 was pending, that he "submitted to frequent interrogation."

"In a fashion that would seem *fatal to a modern candidate*, he wrote to political friends and enemies alike, letter after letter, restating his political opinions."

Previously he had said of the intrepid and masterly way in which Van Buren, as President, met the panic of 1837:

"There was no effort to *evade the questions put to him*, or to *divert public attention from the true issues*."

The sharpest test of the stuff that was in Van Buren came in 1844. He was anxious for another nomination, and might have had it, with the practical certainty of election, if he had been willing to give "no offence to the South" in the matter of the annexation of Texas. But his record was adverse to annexation, and "his opinion was still adverse." So, says Mr. Shepard, "he did not flinch. He resorted to no *safe generalizations*." He wrote the explicit letter which cost him the Presidency. Thereupon his biographer moralizes as follows:

"To a Presidential candidate the eve of a national convention is dim with the *self-deceiving twilight of sophistry;* and the twilight deepens when *a question is put upon which there is a division* among those who are or who may be his supporters. He can *keep silence*, . . . he can *ignore the question*, . . . he can affect an *enigmatical dignity*. Van Buren did neither."

But on some occasions the biographer has to condemn shiftiness or truckling. For example, Van Buren really disliked the introduction of the spoils system under Jackson. Yet he did not think it politic to "oppose the ruinous and demoralizing" practice. For this, writes Mr. Shepard, "for his *acquiescence*, or *even for his silence*," he must receive "a part of the condemnation which the American people, as time goes on, will more and more visit upon one of the *great political offences* committed against their *political integrity and welfare*." Similar is the sentence which Mr. Shepard feels compelled to pronounce upon Van Buren's attitude towards the bill for excluding anti-slavery publications from the mails. On this subject the candidate seems to have thought, with Sir Walter Scott, that "there were questions which *did not entitle the questioner to be told the truth*." The only excuse which Mr. Shepard finds himself able to offer is: "*This persuasive casuistry usually overcomes a candidate for great office in the stress of conflict.*"

But Mr. Shepard does not confine himself to the specific instances in which Van Buren met with "*clear and decided* answers" those "living issues dangerously dividing men *ready to vote for him if he would but remain quiet.*" He endeavors to work out a general political philosophy from the details of Van Buren's long career. In him he traces that "exalted art of the politician" which "gathers and binds to one another and to a creed the elements of a political party, the art which disciplines and guides the party, when formed, to clear and definite purposes, without wavering and without weakness or demagogy." That is the ideal; but what are the necessary means to attain it? Why, "the golden rule of successful politics," writes Mr. Shepard, is to "*foresee future benefits rather than remember past injuries.*" This is precisely what the nomination of Shepard by Croker is said by indignant Tammanyites to prove to be the boss's principle. Their version, however, is not thrown into such elegant literary form. What they say is: "Soak it to Croker hard enough and he'll give you an office."

We have not been at pains to point the *de te fabula* in these extracts from Mr. Shepard's writings. They speak for themselves. But a moral for the Tammany candidate may be drawn from the life of a friend of Van Buren's as well. In 1838 Washington Irving was asked, as Mr. Shepard was in 1901, to lend an honored name for the base uses of Tammany Hall. What would not Mr. Shepard's best friends give if he had acted as Irving did? In a letter to his sister the author of 'Knickerbocker' wrote:

"Yesterday I had a full deputation from Tammany Hall at the cottage, informing me that I had been unanimously and vociferously nominated as Mayor, and hoping that I would consent to be a candidate. *Of course, I declined.*"

THE PRESIDENCY OF COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

One of the numerous genuine achievements of President Low during his incumbency at Columbia University has been an awakening of civic pride in the institution. Its importance to the community, as well as the duty of public-spirited citizens to contribute to its growth and prosperity, was but little understood while the University was in the cramped and inadequate quarters which covered but a single block at Madison Avenue and Forty-ninth Street. Following Mr. Low's own generous example, men of means were not slow to realize the responsibility which rested upon them, and they have contributed liberally to the expenses of moving and of building the new home, as well as to the guarantee fund which has helped to tide the University over a serious crisis in its financial history. In his last annual report, Mr. Low was able to call attention to recent bequests from two men, Dorman B. Eaton and Henry Villard, both specially interested in Harvard University, as proof that even citizens of other university affiliations are

recognizing their obligations to the city and to the city's chief educational institution.

Reciprocally, the time has come when the intelligent public realizes that it is deeply concerned in the actions of the University authorities, and that the institution is pledged to repay the community's invaluable interest by unwavering devotion to its ideals, and by a steady improvement in the amount and quality of the instruction offered. Even the heat and excitement of the present political campaign have not distracted the attention of many people not directly interested in the University, from the serious problem which now confronts its trustees in finding a successor for Mr. Low. With the growth of the modern college and university, the difficulty of securing a man with the numerous qualities essential for the proper administration of a great institution and for the leadership of its teaching staff naturally increases year by year. The University of Wisconsin and Williams College are now also in search of heads, and it is an open secret that still other institutions would like to be free to choose again. In each case the sense of what depends upon the wisdom of the choice, as respects the intellectual development of the rising generation, makes the selection extremely difficult.

In the case of Columbia the first consideration will naturally be the type of man to be selected, since the division of the duties of the office between two men, often suggested, is not yet possible. Some of the names already mentioned are those of men similar to Mr. Low by virtue of their wealth, social standing, and public and business activity. It is of primary importance that the trustees shall carefully consider whether Columbia has not grown beyond the need of such a kind of leader. It is understood that Mr. Low had contemplated resigning for some time before receiving the urgent call of the honest and decent elements to lead the fight against Croker's "cohorts of corruption." His reason for this is reported to have been his realization of the fact that the urgent need for a skilled business man has now disappeared. The college year just closed was the most favorable one financially for some time past. It is generally believed that the financial problems arising out of the extremely costly moving of the University and the placing it upon a broader and better basis have either been solved, or are in a fair way to be solved without difficulty. It is also true that, because of the character of certain investments, the approaching expiration of various important leases, and for other reasons, the prosperity of the University will grow steadily and almost automatically. Furthermore, the hold it has obtained upon the affections of this wealthy community makes its financial outlook extremely hopeful.

Under these circumstances Mr. Low may well have felt, as do many graduate and non-graduate friends of the University, that Columbia's need now is for a President who has had sufficient training and experience in modern methods of university instruction to fit him to strengthen the teaching force. That there are some extremely able professors of international reputation at Columbia is known to every one familiar with American educational conditions. Some departments are exceptionally strong, but there are others which are unusually weak. Such development as there has been in the teaching force seems to many to have been very uneven, and in the direction of a mere numerical increase rather than in the securing of men of remarkable knowledge and power. As a result, Columbia has not yet attained that position in the world of learning to which its opportunities, its means, and its duties entitle it, and which it is infallibly destined to take, sooner or later. One of the quickest ways to win that position would be through the appointment of a strong and fearless educator, who would not hesitate to remove the present useless timber. He should also insist most rigidly upon the enforcement of the high entrance requirements, without favor to any one, and upon keeping the standards for degrees inviolable. A few years under the leadership of such a man would make a wonderful difference in the value of Columbia's teaching force, and in its service to the community, both inside and outside of the classroom.

When President Gilman of Johns Hopkins found it necessary to resign his office, he preceded the action by writing a letter to each member of the faculty, asking his views as to the man best fitted to succeed to the presidency. This formal action is, we believe, unique in American college history, and we commend it, or a similar step, to the trustees of Columbia as the first move towards the solution of their problem. To expect professors to volunteer their views is to expect the impossible, particularly if some of their own number are mentioned for the position. Moreover, the practice of informal conferences between trustees and professors frequently leads to misunderstandings, or to a failure to obtain the complete view of the situation desired. With the opinions of the faculty secured, the search for the proper man should be not a little simplified. It is inconceivable that, having the interests of the University at heart, a very large majority should do else than point out the necessity of securing a broad-minded and well-trained teacher, who would command the respect and support not only of the faculty, but also of those citizens who have the right to insist that from now on the University shall grow rapidly in matters intellectual.

THE YALE BICENTENARY.

The bicentennial celebration of the founding of Yale College falls at a time in the history of the institution itself, and in the development of our educational system as well, which makes it really mark the practical beginning of a new era. We speak now, and we shall hereafter speak more and more, of Yale University, but it is the College whose origin is recalled by the exercises at New Haven this week, as it was Harvard College whose two hundred and fiftieth birthday was observed in 1886. So-called "universities" we have had, by the dozen, for scores of years, especially in the newer and rawer sections of the country, but we had to wait practically until about the end of the nineteenth century before Harvard, or Yale, or Columbia, or Princeton had any just warrant for assuming the broader title.

Yale College, like Harvard and others of long life, was established primarily to train young men for the ministry. The President was always a clergyman; the course of instruction was largely theological; it was expected that the graduates would generally become preachers. Nothing could so emphasize the contrast between the college of 1701 and the university of 1901 as the fact that the President is now a man who is not a minister, but who has become a recognized authority in studies so far removed from ancient theology as modern economics. This layman came to his place at a time when the number of students intending to become clergymen had sunk to a very small percentage, and the last requirement in the prescribed curriculum of an education originally designed to prepare young men for the ministry has now disappeared. Meanwhile, other departments, for the study of science, theology, medicine, law, music, and the fine arts, have been established, and of late have grown into steadily larger importance, a graduate school has developed rapidly within recent years, and a school of forestry has been started under promising auspices. Yale thus enters upon a new century of time and a new century of its own existence well entitled to the name of university.

Conservatism has characterized the attitude of Yale towards the new theories of the higher education which have been advanced during the past quarter of a century. It has not sullenly opposed modern methods, but it has insisted upon testing the New before accepting it as necessarily wiser than the Old. In his address at the two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the foundation of Harvard, James Russell Lowell defined the general purpose of college education as being "to set free, to supple, and to train the fac-

ulties in such wise as shall make them most effective for whatever task life may afterwards set them, for the duties of life rather than for its business, and to open windows on every side of the mind where thickness of wall does not prevent it." He added:

"Let our aim be, as hitherto, to give a good all-round education fitted to cope with as many exigencies of the day as possible. I had rather the college should turn out one of Aristotle's four-square men, capable of holding his own in whatever field he may be cast, than a score of lop-sided ones developed abnormally in one direction. Our scheme should be adapted to the wants of the majority of undergraduates, to the objects that draw them hither, and to such training as will make the most of them after they come. Special aptitudes are sure to take care of themselves, but the latent possibilities of the average mind can only be discovered by experiment in many directions."

The great university of the twentieth century, under President Hadley, is a very different thing from the little college under President Pierson, two hundred years ago. But the animating purpose of the institution has remained unchanged through all the long period which intervenes, and it was never so strongly emphasized as it is to-day. The Puritan colonists established colleges in order to train men to become leaders in the community at a time when such leadership in New England was almost monopolized by the clergy, who were authorities almost as much outside the sphere of theology as in the church. An educated ministry, half a dozen generations ago, practically met the demand for an intelligent class among a people who accepted the minister as their guide in matters temporal as well as in matters spiritual. Mr. Lowell affirmed that "to the teaching and example of those reverend men whom Harvard bred and then planted in every hamlet as pioneers and outposts of her doctrine, Massachusetts owes the better part of her moral and intellectual inheritance." Connecticut owes a similar debt to graduates of Yale in the days when most graduates became clergymen, and the obligation extends far beyond the boundaries of that State.

Yale, like Harvard, has few graduates in these days who enter the ministry, and no clergyman in this century can be the commanding influence in any community that the New England parson was universally a hundred years ago, and continued to be in some retired towns even fifty years ago. But the lawyer, the banker, the merchant, the business man of any type can be leaders in all that makes for good citizenship, and that institution does most for the nation which best trains young men for this highest service of the educated class. The well-equipped university must furnish adequate opportunities for the specialist in every branch of learning, it must encourage men to become experts in one and another line of study, it must develop scholars and investigators, or it will fail in one of its missions. But it may do all this, and yet not succeed in what should be the chief aim of the higher education in a democracy—the training of young men to exemplify and to enforce good citizenship. We had good government, sound standards, and high ideals without having eminent specialists, and we can have eminent specialists without being sure of those virtues which are essential to the well-being of the state. We need, most of all, the "four-square men," who can grapple with the grave problems of the new century, bringing to their solution the training in fundamentals which is the most important function of education. It is the chief honor of Yale College that under many famous teachers it has impressed this lesson upon generations of Americans in the past. It is the most hopeful augury for the future of Yale University that, under President Hadley, it seems certain to do this most important work more successfully than it was ever done before.

PRINCESS LIEVEN.—II.

PARIS, October 11, 1901.

Madame de Lieven's relations with Guizot began in 1836, at a dinner at the Duke de Broglie's, where they sat by each other and conversed together; but Greville is right when he says that "their intimacy no doubt was established after he had begun to play a great political part, for his literary and philosophical celebrity would not alone have had much charm for her." M. Daudet will have it that a letter of Madame de Lieven to Guizot, dated June 24, 1839, fixes the exact time when their friendship became a close alliance. "It is just two years to-day since we dined together at Châtenay, and that we came back together. Do you remember it?" Châtenay was the country house of Madame de Boigne. They had taken a walk there in the park. Guizot had lost his second wife; Madame de Lieven had lost her two sons, and her husband had for a long time lived apart from her. Guizot was fifty years old; she was fifty-three. She confided her sorrows to him, and he reminded her afterwards in a letter of what passed at Châtenay. "Remember that the first word which really united us was this: 'From this day, you will no longer be alone.' "

From that day, when they both seemed to have pronounced the words which are a tie for eternity, Madame de Lieven renounced all idea of living in England; she established herself in Paris, in Talleyrand's old hôtel at the corner of the Rue St. Florentin, which is now inhabited by Alphonse de Rothschild. She took only the first floor.

"Her room," says M. Daudet, "was the one once occupied by the Prince. In this apartment, where Talleyrand himself, in 1814, had received the Emperor Alexander, she was, for nearly twenty years, to receive every day, in the afternoon and in the evening, everybody who counted for anything in politics and diplomacy, happy to do the honors of the salon, which had so much charm for her solely because he [Guizot] reigned in it like a sovereign. People came for him as much as for her. But the *habitués* knew that there were hours when they must not present themselves. They knew that Mme. Lieven and Guizot, when he was in Paris, saw each other regularly twice a day, and that everything was arranged so that they should not be disturbed in their tête-à-tête."

When Guizot was away from Paris, Madame de Lieven was inconsolable; and he used to go every year to his country place at Val-Richer. He was extremely devoted to his family, to his old mother, to his children. Madame de Lieven admired his family virtues, but she could not help seeing rivals in those who had such a large share of Guizot's affections. After a separation, she writes to him (July 28, 1838):

"Ah! how heavy and insupportable time will now be. I am already overwhelmed by the thought of it. I want to cry twenty times a day. I am so desolate that it seems to me I have not seen you for a year. Where shall I find courage? Adieu. I am going to read your letter again, but to read it is to cry. Give me strength."

He answers her:

"You ask me to give you strength. I have had much of it in my lifetime, never with the feeling that I had enough of it. On the contrary, I often felt that I was on the point of losing it. I can only give you much affection. Change it into strength if you can. I should like you to do so. When I am near you I hope that you can. But so far! Still, there is something there, even at a distance."

We see, in a letter, that she was accustomed to receive a line from Guizot every day when they were separated. Once, when she was obliged, on business matters, to go to Baden while he was at Val-Richer, she writes:

"What! no letter from you to-day! For heaven's sake, don't cause me such inquietude. I cannot bear it. It seems to me now that the greatest misfortune for me is not to receive a letter from you for two days. I cannot think of anything else since yesterday's five o'clock, the hour of the post. I have been far in the mountains, in the forests. It was so fine, it would be so fine with you! I should need nothing more, nobody; what goes on in the world would be indifferent to me. You cannot imagine how much this thought pleases me; but then, I was so sad! so sad! so sad! You are so far away."

One cannot but wonder at such expressions of passion, which savor more of youth than of mature age; and one cannot wonder if Guizot could not remain insensible to them. At the same time, such excessive appeals make one suspect that there was something a little artificial in them; the cold reader can feel it, if M. Guizot could not. There is too much study in her expansiveness and outbursts of affection, though at times it seems as if nature alone spoke—for instance, when she writes simply: "I love you; I love you; I am waiting for you. . . ." She is not so simple when she writes: "If I spoke the language of Petrarch, I would tell you that as soon as there rises in my mind a sweet impression, it leaves me, and goes looking for you. If it finds you, it returns to me. If it does not, I lose it altogether." Or when she says: "I walked alone for two hours, as young as the air, the woods, the fields. I mention it only to you; you will mention it to nobody. . . . I should like to have you, like my valley, fresh and smiling. I look at it with envy while thinking of you. I see you thin, sad, despondent, in tears. I remain in you; I will always remain in you."

This is certainly very curious language coming from a lady of ripe years, whose whole life has been given to the world, to the great political interests of her time, who lives only with statesmen and politicians. It seems as if her life were divided into two parts, one given exclusively to the world, the other to her passion; and, singularly enough, the numerous extracts from her correspondence made by M. Daudet do not show any fusion of these different interests. It seems almost impossible that she did not sometimes introduce in her correspondence political views and considerations. If the whole correspondence is ever published, the public will be more interested by those considerations than by purely emotional effusions.

M. Guizot's letters written in answer to hers are very fine; they are more grave, sometimes they become very eloquent. You feel in reading them that Guizot was a Huguenot, that he had received a very religious education. In answer to a letter in which Madame de Lieven was complaining louder than usual of the loss of her children, Guizot writes:

"When cruel images besiege you, when you are surrounded only by the dead, make an effort, go out of these tombs—*they* are out of them already, they are elsewhere. We shall go where they are. I have long tried to know where they are. I have found in my efforts only darkness and anxiety. It is because it is not given to us, it is not allowed us, to see clearly from one shore to the other. If we saw clearly that they were there, before our eyes, calling for us, expecting us, could we bear to remain where we are as long as God orders it? Could we proceed to the end of our task? We should refuse all work, we should abandon everything; we should throw away our burden, and we should fling ourselves toward the shore where we saw them clearly. God will not have it, my friend; God wishes us to remain where he has placed us, as long as he plants us there. This is why he refuses us this certain and vivid light which would draw us invincibly elsewhere. This is why he covers with darkness this unknown place where those who are dear to us would take our whole soul.

"But obscurity does not destroy what it hides; this other shore to which they have preceded us exists, though a cloud covers the river which separates us from it. We must renounce seeing, we must renounce understanding. We must believe in God. Since I have wrapt myself in this faith in God, since I have cast at his feet all the pretensions of my intellect and even the premature ambitions of my soul, I walk in peace even in the night, and I have attained certainty by accepting my ignorance. How I wish I could give you the same security, the same peace. I do not renounce, I will not renounce hoping for it."

We cannot much wonder if Madame de Lieven was anxious to keep up a correspondence which procured her such letters. The one I have cited, which sounds like an eloquent sermon and which might be read from the pulpit, is quite in harmony with all we know of M. Guizot. His figure remains in our mind with a sort of majesty such as we behold in the admirable portrait by Paul Delaroche.

The correspondence becomes very interesting at the time when Guizot was sent as Ambassador to London. Mme. de Lieven was so familiar with English society and English ways that she was very useful to him. On his return from London, the question of their marriage was agitated between them. They both desired this union, "but," says M. Daudet, "she could not resign herself to giving up the title and the name which she had so long borne; and, on his side, Guizot would not hear of a morganatic marriage. The project was abandoned almost as soon as formed, but their mutual affection did not suffer by it." During the long period of his ministry, Guizot went regularly to her "three times a day," says Greville, "on his way to and his way from the Chamber, when it was sitting, and in the evening. But while he was by far her first object, she cultivated the society of all the conspicuous and remarkable people whom she could collect about her."

The Revolution of 1848 dispersed all the members of her salon; she was so frightened by it that she thought it necessary to escape for a time to England. She returned to Paris after a while, and so did Guizot, who constantly refused to take any part again in political life and lived in dignified retirement. His friend Mme. de Lieven, though she remained always on the same terms with him, soon became reconciled to the imperial régime, and her salon was soon replenished with the adherents of the Empire, and she had herself presented in due form to Napoleon. This was going a step too far, and furnished an argument to those who had never quite looked upon her with sympathy, and who supposed she was continuing to keep her Government *au courant* of many things. When the war with Russia began, she was ordered to leave Paris and went to Brussels, where she spent nearly two years. She died in Paris, after a short illness, on January 26, 1872, at the age of seventy-two. Guizot was with her in her last moments. She left him in her will an income of 8,000 francs and a carriage. She could not bear the idea of his not having a carriage.

Correspondence.

RECIPROCITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the discussion of free trade, protection, and reciprocity, which has an ever-broadening and deepening interest, I have frequently referred to the words of Confucius, which I do not recall seeing in the *Nation* or in any periodical. When a pupil asked, "Is there one word which may serve as a rule of practice for all one's life?" the Master said, "Is not *reciprocity* such a word? What you do not want done to yourself, do not do to others."

It is a fatal mistake to put this question outside the domain of morals and religion, and class it political. As the Hebrews called the rest of the world "Gentile," and the Greek "Barbarian," the old morals, the old religion, and the old politics were the high protective idea which drew a line or built a wall around its own borders, and let the rest of the world shift for itself: the new morals, the new religion, and the new politics mean, as fast as you can come to it, the free-trade idea, founded on the reciprocity of nations and the brotherhood of man. Is not this the essence of Christianity?

James De Normandie.

45 Lambert Avenue, Boston,
October 16, 1901.

THE NEW FRENCH DOCTORATE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of September 2, 1897, you published a letter from Professor Bréal, outlining the requirements for the new *doctorat universitaire*, which the University of Paris was then on the point of establishing, especially for the benefit of foreigners, who might wish to bring home with them a visible evidence of the work which they had accomplished. It had been noted with regret that Americans, particularly, preferred to spend their years of foreign study in Germany, not so much because of the superior advantages which they could find there, as because of the diploma which they could bring home, and which was found to be of great service in the search for college and university positions. The new degree was thus intended to have a certain commercial value, and to be a serious competitor of the German doctorate. It did away with all the time-honored traditions of the French higher degrees. The antecedents of the candidates were as much as possible disregarded. In the Faculty of Letters the term of study was fixed at two years, entire freedom was allowed in the selection of subjects and in the number of courses to be followed, and the sole stress was laid upon the *thèse* and the *examen oral*. Those familiar with the French system of academic degrees could see at once that the *doctorat universitaire* resembled the French doctorate in its external features, but that it was easier to obtain.

Three years have now passed since the ministerial decree authorizing the new degree (April 1, 1898) was published; the machinery has been moving, and grooves are beginning to wear. It seems not out of place, therefore, to consider whether, from the American point of view, the new degree meets the purpose for which it was established. An opportunity to observe the practical workings of the system, on a recent visit to Paris, has convinced me that this new degree cannot take the place for which it was intended until the period of study is lengthened to the minimum required in our best universities, and until the conditions of examination are made as severe as they are at home. At present it is far easier to obtain this French degree than the similar American degree.

Considerations of a practical nature increase the distrust of its value. A large portion of the first year must perforce be lost to the American student before he is able to follow the lectures to the best advantage. In the next place, he is obliged to study in large libraries, where he can obtain only to a limited degree that close and intimate acquaintance with the literature of his subject which is made so easy for him through our own liberal system of seminary libraries. Finally, in the place of that close supervision of his work which he finds at home, he is thrown back upon his own initiative. Many of those who have studied in Paris have reason to recall with pleasure the interest manifested in their work by the masters whom they come to follow. But they must also remember the number of other Americans, less fortunate than themselves, who stumbled seemingly without aim from one lecture-room to the other, and who would have derived far more benefit from a year or two of advanced study at home.

There can be no question that study abroad is of untold value to the student; in the case of a teacher of French, residence in France is even an absolute necessity. But there is a question when this

foreign study should be undertaken. A single year abroad when the subject is well in hand and the bibliography is mastered, will serve a far better purpose than two years at the period when the elements of the science must yet be learned.

It has for some time been a matter of regret that certain German universities would confer the doctor's degree under conditions easier than those of this country. The new French degree is open to the same criticism. There was a time when the ambitious young scholar could not find in this country either the teachers or the libraries which he needed. At that time American degrees were regarded doubtfully in Europe. Has the time now come when the similar European degrees must be criticised in America? JOHN E. MATZKE.

LELAND STANFORD JR. UNIVERSITY,
October 15, 1901.

Notes.

Yale's bicentenary is to be still further illustrated by 'Two Centuries of Christian Activity at Yale, 1701-1901,' edited by three graduates, and published by G. P. Putnam's Sons.

From Messrs. Scribner we are to have 'The Pianoforte and its Music,' by Henry E. Krehbiel; 'More Animals,' by Oliver Herford; and 'The Apostles' Creed,' by Dr. McGiffert.

'The Crow's Nest,' by Mrs. Everard Cotes, to be published next spring by Dodd, Mead & Co., will tell of a summer spent in Simla, India.

Fleming H. Revell Co. have nearly ready 'The Lore of Cathay,' by W. A. P. Martin, D.D.

A translation of Vallary-Rodot's 'Life of Pasteur,' by H. H. Devonshire, is in the press of McClure, Phillips & Co., as are the 'Reminiscences of George S. Boutwell, ex-Governor of Massachusetts.'

Macmillan Company have in preparation 'Time-Table of Modern History, A. D. 400-1870,' compiled and arranged by M. Morison; 'A Source-Book in the History of Education for the Greek and Roman Period,' by Paul Monroe; and 'The World and the Individual: Nature, Man, and the Moral Order,' by Prof. Josiah Royce of Harvard.

Ed. Frossard, No. 111 East Fourteenth Street, New York, will issue directly 'The Copper Coins of the United States,' a guide to collectors and others.

The letterpress of Britton and Brown's 'Illustrated Flora' has been both amended and abridged so as to make a single portable volume, with omission of the illustrations. It will be thus brought out by Henry Holt & Co.

L. C. Page & Co., Boston, announce for immediate publication 'A History of American Art,' in two volumes, by S. Hartmann, and 'Little Pilgrimages among the Men who have written Famous Books,' by E. F. Harkins.

B. & J. F. Meehan, No. 32 Gay Street, Bath, England, solicit subscriptions to a limited edition of 'The Famous Houses of Bath and District,' by J. F. Meehan, with an introduction by the Marquess of Dufferin and Ava. There will be fifty full-page illustrations, and numerous smaller ones, including portraits, in the text.

The Germanic Museum Association at Cambridge, Mass., has issued a circular setting forth its aims, which are to parallel the Germanic Museum at Nuremberg, the Swiss Museum at Zürich, the Hôtel de Cluny, and the like national collections. What is typical and characteristic will be sought in preference to what is striking, and contributions to a collection illustrating, through objects of art and industry, the history of civilization among the Germanic peoples (including England of the Anglo-Saxon period), are requested from "all those who care for the ideals of German culture." Membership is open to every one on payment of the prescribed fee (annual, two dollars; life, twenty-five). The President is Carl Schurz, and the Treasurer, Frederic S. Goodwin, No. 183 Essex Street, Boston.

Three years ago we reviewed in these columns the scholarly translation of Marcus Aurelius by Mr. G. H. Rendall of Charterhouse. His version, which has practically superseded all others, has now been added to the Golden Treasury Series (Macmillan Co.). Serious students of the philosophic Emperor will not be diverted from the larger work with its learned introduction, but the present edition should attract the general reader, to whom the excellent get-up and the convenient size of the Golden Treasury Series have long been familiar.

Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. bring out anew seven volumes in their uniform set of the elder Dumas's Works, and add three more for the translation of the 'Vicomte de Bragelonne,' and so complete their selection for a "Popular Edition." The price justifies this title, and the print, if unadorned, is readable. The binding is equally unpretentious. Each volume has its frontispiece and each story its introduction.

Of quite a different order of manufacture is the continuation of the "Century Classics" (The Century Co.), with Ruskin's 'Sesame and Lilies, and Crown of Wild Olives'; Franklin's Autobiography; Kingsley's 'Hypatia,' in two volumes; and Poe's Tales. These are both elegantly printed and bound, and to each is prefixed a good portrait of the author. The introductions are, as heretofore, brief and not labored.

Under the caption of "Home Library" D. C. Heath & Co. group a number of good books for the young, some previously published, like Starr's 'American Indians,' Snedden's 'Docas, the Indian Boy,' Aiken and Barbauld's 'Eyes and No Eyes,' Hiestand's abridgment of 'The Tempest'; some just issued, as, Mrs. Trimmer's 'History of the Robins,' Miss Edgeworth's 'Waste Not, Want Not,' and Miss Craik's 'So Fat and Mew Mew.' The elder works, it is needless to say, have a useful discipline in good English.

The design of 'Object-Lessons for Rural Schools,' Book I., II. (Macmillan), by V. T. Murché, is to awaken and foster in children a genuine love for the country and country pursuits. The subjects treated range from the simple natural phenomena of air and sky to the work of the farm, the structure and habits of birds and animals. The instruction is given in such a clear, entertaining, and suggestive manner that it is impossible to doubt that this series will be eminently successful in arousing in many children the spirit and habit of observation. An accompanying book is a 'Rural Reader,' in which the same author makes three bright farmer's boys tell of what they have learned at school on these same subjects. Though intended for the village schools of Great Britain, there is comparatively little in these volumes which would be unfamiliar to our children. The illustrations are numerous, admirably chosen, and in some instances of great beauty.

'Yorke the Adventurer,' by Louis Becke (Lippincott), consists of sketches of sea and island life in the South Pacific. An English critic brackets the author and Mr. Kipling as possessing the same quality of "unhackneyed vitality of phrase that most people call realism." It appears to us that in this particular the two writers are as far apart as are the Desert of Gobi and Chicago. In the opening sketch of the series—that from which the book derives its title—the author parallels (with acknowledgment of the source of inspiration) an incident in Capt. Slocum's 'Sailing Alone Around the World'—we mean his protecting himself from night attacks by Patagonian savages by profusely sprinkling his sloop's deck with sharp tacks. Capt. Yorke, instead of tacks, used broken glass furnished by several casks of empty bottles which opportunely formed a portion of his cargo. 'Yorke the Adventurer' will not appeal to mature minds; but to lads from ten to fifteen years of age perusal will give, possibly, absorbing pleasure. The last chapter of the volume, on the poisonous fishes of the Pacific, may, or may not, offer opportunity to ichthyologists to meditate on the aphorism that "everything comes to him who waits."

'On Board a Whaler,' by T. W. Hammond (Putnam's), like 'Yorke the Adventurer,' will afford agreeable entertainment to lads of adventurous impulse, to whom the sea appeals as a boundless field of daring exploit. The author is so well equipped in the technique of whaling and of a seafaring life that he avoids those solecisms which mar the greater proportion of marine literature. He follows the usual conventional routine, depicting an ocean-smitten lad who ships on a whaler, and who proceeds, consecutively, to encounter all the stock experiences, from which no deviation appears possible in tales of the sea. The one exception in the volume is found in its closing chapter, where the author, with iconoclastic frankness, demolishes the theory, so dear to laymen and so tenaciously held in fiction, that the whale is an animal of undoubted courage, ever ready to assume the offensive against its foes. To use the author's own words: "He has hardly the grit to slap a fly." The whale, he says, is dangerous only on account of its weight, strength, and agility, which demand prudence and caution on the part of its assailants, to avoid its panic-stricken, purposeless rushes when it feels the sting of the harpoon.

'From Squire to Prince,' by Walter Phelps Dodge (Unwin), is a "History of the Rise of the House of Cirksena." This family, which produced eight counts and five princes of the Holy Roman Empire, became prominent in East Frisia towards the close of the Middle Ages, and established itself as the reigning dynasty in 1430. Its last representative was Prince Charles Edzard, who died in 1744. The reversion of East Frisia belonged to the House of Brandenburg, and Fred-

erick the Great succeeded to the inheritance of the Cirksena. We can hardly ascribe to this volume more consequence than is the due of a fairly good local chronicle. The interests of the study are genealogical rather than historical, and the composition shows signs of little skill. The most important chapter is that which deals with the reign of Count Edzard I., at the beginning of the sixteenth century. The career of the reformer Aportanus is not without some striking features, though Mr. Dodge suggests two singular comparisons when likening him to Savonarola, and the Counts of East Frisia to the Medici. The portraits, which are reproduced from originals in the town-hall at Aurich, are of some note, and make the book considerably more attractive than it would otherwise be. As an example of Mr. Dodge's philosophical observations, we quote the concluding sentence of the ninth chapter: "Its next change of country is still in abeyance, but if, as sometimes happens, the history of the past is repeated in the future, the end of East Frisia is not yet."

'The Century Book for Mothers,' by Dr. L. M. Yale and Gustav Pollak (The Century Co.), on very careful examination discloses no flaw. It is a collection of extraordinarily sensible essays upon the general care of young children, supplemented by a large number of anxious questions and intelligent answers received and given by the conductors of a magazine (*Babyhood*) devoted to that subject. The discussion is judicious and the conclusions are clearly expressed. A good table of contents and a complete index render any part of this well-made book available at once.

Weismann's theory that the effects of use or habit are *impossible* of transmission in animal life, is the subject of attack by Dr. Walter Kidd, F.Z.S., in a paper upon 'Use-Inheritance, Illustrated by the Direction of Hair on the Bodies of Animals' (London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan). The author freely admits that "Weismann's great rule undoubtedly holds good very largely," but he maintains that there are exceptions, and illustrates his contention by the whorls, featherings, and crests upon hirsute mammals, and by the direction of the hair growth on the exterior surface of the forearm of certain carnivora and of man, and by the upward capillary tendency upon the muzzle of the lion, for example, as opposed to the downward growth upon the horse's face. He admits that these variations of direction are intrinsically trifling, but holds that they can be interpreted only according to Lamarck. He maintains that the eddies in the hair-stream are caused, like dimples in the human form, by the action of antagonistic muscles; and that posture, especially during sleep, and use (as the cleansing action of the paws over a lion's face) are responsible for other counter-currents. He deduces that selection is incompetent to produce these peculiarities, which, if not originally created with the forms of life, must have been produced in ancestors by use or habit. Dr. Kidd's style is not particularly clear, but his statement of facts must receive some other explanation than his before Weismann's doctrine can be accepted as having no possible exception.

Nothing could be more attractive than Mr. Max Hirsch's preface to his 'Democracy versus Socialism' (Macmillan). Socialism draws its vitality from the conviction of the poor that the institutions of society are unjust, and it cannot be suppressed by demonstrations that its remedies are impracticable. Such demonstrations must be accompanied with some positive suggestions for the removal of inequality, in order to affect the mind of the Socialist. Mr. Hirsch, accordingly, supplements his able and exhaustive exposure of the futility of socialistic schemes with an elaborate scheme of social reorganization. But, alas! when we come to examine this plan, it turns out to be nothing more than Henry George's system of confiscating the rent of land. Mr. Hirsch expounds this system with more care, although with less eloquence and strength of style, than his master; but we fail to see that he removes the fundamental objections to all schemes for attaining justice by the confiscation of property. The present owners of land have acquired it without consciousness of sin, and they are too numerous to be punished for doing what law and public sentiment have sanctioned, without causing a revolution in which the poor would lose more than they could gain.

The series of publications by the Library of Congress is notably advanced by the quarto volume 'A List of Maps of America' belonging to the Library down to November, 1897, preceded by a list of works relating to cartography, by J. Lee Phillips, chief of the division of maps and charts. This bibliography alone fills 86 pages. The MS. maps of the Revolutionary war contained in the Fader, Force, and Rochambeau collections are here revealed. The arrangement is geographically alphabetical, without subdivisions, but with cross references to the counties under each State, and the order is chronological. The rubric World requires 45 pages, and the last of all, Zisputa Bay (for the list embraces both Americas), is on page 1137. It is needless to praise this labor or to descant on its utility. A supplemental volume is in preparation.

In the *National Geographic Magazine* for October there is an account of the work of the Weather Bureau, by its chief, Dr. W. L. Moore, containing many interesting facts. A part of the daily work is the distribution of 80,000 telegrams, maps, and bulletins; and when a storm is threatened, "it is not uncommon for the Bureau to distribute 100,000 telegrams and messages inside of the space of a few hours." In five predictions there is an average of one failure, and there is not much prospect of an increase of accuracy in our time, though the receipt of reports from Europe and the Azores, recently arranged for, will extend the wind's forecast for a period of three days out from each continent. Dr. Moore gives it as the opinion of many insurance experts that the service, costing a little over a million dollars, is worth more than twenty millions to the agriculture, the commerce, and the industry of the country. Other articles are upon the work of the Bureau of American Ethnology, a summary of Peary's work, and the conclusions reached at a "conference upon the boundaries of the successive acquisitions of territory by the United States." An announcement is made that the next International Geographical Congress will be held in Washington in 1904, under the auspices of the society of which this publication is the organ.

That President McKinley should have been omitted from the "imperial panel" portrait gallery of Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, was most unlikely. We have, in fact, just received his profile counterfeit presentment in the above series. To us, however, it appears one of the least successful of all, or is it that the best point of view was not seized? It is the fate of public characters to be treated by the camera to such a range of effigies that posterity is puzzled to select the true likeness. But then, enemies and admirers can often each find their vindicating aspect in the medley.

—Most welcome to the sight are two of the three supplementary volumes of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (A-Chi, Chi-Hos) (London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Macmillan). As is well known, this addition was designed to repair omissions, and to include notable persons who died "after the letter" in the progress of the main work, down to the date of Queen Victoria's death, January 22, 1901. By a singular fatality, Mr. George Smith, the courageous head of the publishing firm who ventured at certain loss to undertake the Dictionary, died after the Queen, on April 6. He was therefore ruled out of his own enterprise, but it was wisely determined, while denying him a place in the alphabetical succession, to give him a liberal biography at the forefront of the Supplement. This sketch is really a history of the house, and will be found interesting in a high degree. Mr. Smith's career was all the more to his credit because his animal spirits were too much for his educators, and he was but twenty-two when he had to succeed his father in the control of a large business of a multifarious kind. The connections of the house with India made them agents for the purchase and consignment even of munitions of war; and Mr. Smith himself in time became the owner of the profitable Apollinaris spring. He was the founder of the *Cornhill Magazine*, the *Pall Mall Gazette*, and the Dictionary. Darwin, Ruskin, G. P. R. James, Miss Brontë, Miss Martineau, Mrs. Gaskell, Thackeray, Wilkie Collins, Trollope, and Browning were some of the lights of literature and thought associated with the firm. Besides this tribute to a man of extraordinary energy, liberality, and success, he is, alone of Britain's worthies in this Dictionary, honored with a portrait. This was entirely fitting; but we wish the firm had resolved that the other two volumes should bear the frontispiece portraits of Leslie Stephen and Sidney Lee, notwithstanding the fact that Mr. Stephen has no article in these two volumes at least.

—Of the thousand new names, two hundred represent accidental omissions, and among these is the American Horatio Gates, rebellious British subject. Horatio Hale, ethnologist of the Wilkes Antarctic expedition, who ended his days in Canada, on the other side of his native New Hampshire border, is among the "post-obits," if we may abuse that term. The greatest of these is Gladstone, who needs 48 pages; John Bright receives 19, and it is odd to find Lord Randolph Churchill allowed 14, though he is not fulsomely praised. Browning gets 13, and Freeman and Froude lie down to-

gether with four and eight pages respectively, as becomes the more readable if not the more trustworthy historian. Matthew Arnold is extremely well estimated by Dr. Richard Garnett in six pages. The Duke of Argyll has the same portion. Sir W. G. Armstrong, Bessemer, and Archbishop Benson are also treated at length. Here are Black and Blackmore, Wilkie Collins and Du Maurier, Sir G. W. Dasent and C. L. Dodgson ("Lewis Carroll"), Ford Madox Brown and Burne-Jones and Birket Foster, Eliza Cook and Mary Cowden Clarke and Mme. Bodichon (remembered pleasantly of some Americans, and credited here with the idea of Girton College), Samuel Birch and Samuel Beal and Sheldon Amos, Burton and Sir Samuel W. Baker, and Baker's disgraced brother Valentine, who is not spared by reticence, H. W. Bates, the "Naturalist on the Amazon," and Henry Drummond, Airy and John Couch Adams of "Neptune" fame, Sir R. Alcock, the poet Allingham, Bradlaugh, C. C. Boycott (who minted a word against his will) and Le Caron the spy, Mrs. Catherine Booth, and many another celebrity high and low.

—The supplementary sixth volume of Mr. Larned's "History for Ready Reference" (Springfield, Mass.: C. A. Nichols Co.), with all its 720 large and closely printed pages, is devoted to the history of the six years (1894-5 to 1901) which have elapsed since the publication of the original five. This involves an enlargement of the scale of the articles which goes far to transform the character of the work. At the same time, it removes some of the objections which have been felt to the earlier tomes. It is one thing to put into the hands of young students a series of snippets from Grote and Mommsen and Green; it is another to present the general reader with the most significant and least wordy passages from the state papers and the journals of half a dozen years crowded with notable events. Certainly this volume is an exceedingly interesting one, and it will be found of the utmost value for purposes of reference. Great judgment has been displayed in the selection and arrangement of material; a wide range of recent literature has been put under contribution; and although the matter is often highly contentious (the mere names of Cuba and the Transvaal are sufficient to show this), Mr. Larned's preference for moderate statements and unemotional language will go far to conciliate all shades of opinion. And even if the conclusions should seem doubtful in many cases—and this is inevitable where so much in the way of motive can only be guessed at—the book would be worth possessing if merely for the sake of the state documents which it so conveniently brings together.

—Mr. Bradford Torrey's 'Footing it in Franconia' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) describes hills of vision and valleys of "leisurely delights and sauntering thoughts," and is reminiscent of scientific friends—hobbyists, Mr. Torrey calls himself and them—who have shared with him the happiness of annual fortnights in New Hampshire. The book records successive visits, and, to use the author's phrase, paints in "the high lights of enthusiasm" the changing aspects of Franconia and the changing hosts of birds and plants from May until October. Mr. Torrey likes roads and foot-paths better than untracked wilderness, so he walks in travelled ways; an explorer, nevertheless, who finds them full of such rare sights as are visible to the best naturalists, and of quickening thoughts and fancies that "put a girdle round about the earth"—though in point of fact their span is generally much more slender. In an earlier book Mr. Torrey has said that he possesses two selves, the naturalist, and the reflective, imaginative lover of nature, who by turns look out upon the world. They have both been at the window here in Franconia, sometimes singly, but often together, with the naturalist in the background looking over the other's shoulder. Amid much more that might be mentioned with appreciation of its excellence, one may speak of the descriptions of the horned lark's song and flight, the music of the wood thrush, the spring flowers of the Notch road, and the felicities of berry time. The style, with its clear and pleasant course and occasional quaintness of Biblical phrasing, has long been known so favorably that it needs no comment.

—Every lover of Stevenson will care to possess 'Stevenson's Attitude to Life,' an address lately delivered by Prof. John Franklin Genung, and now reproduced in a slim volume, finely printed, and engagingly made up (Crowell & Co.). Stevenson has been fortunate in being but rarely the chosen divinity of the merely faddish person; those who have cared for him have felt towards the man and his work an actual affection which but few men of letters of recent years have had the fortune to enlist. Still, there has been of late a deal of vaporizing concerning his ethical teaching. On this account Professor Genung's clear-headed, carefully considered, yet sympathetic exposition is valuable and timely. "Stevenson," he says, "may be regarded as pioneer in the new mood or spiritual current now well under way—a mood much heartier and wholesomer than what it succeeds; nor is it on the whole less reverent, albeit far less observant of devotional or philosophical forms. We may, in a word, call it a spiritual return to nature." At a first view this statement seems somewhat startling, but by explanation and qualification Professor Genung makes it good. Of course any one caring to designate the pioneer of a movement so atmospheric as this, might successfully hold a brief for Goethe, or, coming to a later generation, might make out a specious case for persons so diverse as Robert Browning and Walter Pater. But there can be little doubt that there is a certain reenforcement of this current at the present time; and Stevenson, by virtue of his temperament, the content of his work, and all the conditions of his life, is its best protagonist. A human personality less Olympian than Goethe, the author of work more virile than the early paganism of Pater, and finer, in a way, and less blatant than much of Browning's, he has more conclusively established the thesis of "the livableness of life." It is idle to hold, as Professor Genung just escapes doing, that Stevenson's work is the logical refutation of such pessimism as Leopardi's, or the utter world-weariness of Amiel. But, though never systematic in the technical sense, Stevenson's optimism was, nevertheless, more than temperamental. It was the conscious product of a mind so sweet and wise as to hold itself inaccessible to the forebodings and despair of the most protracted ill-health. His bed-ridden page, like some music, or, as he himself says whimsically, like a good meal with a bottle of wine, makes one realize freshly the fulness, color, and eternal desirability of life, and compels the belief (so says Professor Genung) that all this can contain no treachery as to the future.

—The fourth volume of Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart's "American History Told by Contemporaries" (Macmillan) brings to a close a work of whose usefulness to students and teachers there can be no question, and which has been on the whole remarkably well done. The abundant material has been judiciously drawn upon, and balance and proportion have been well observed. The result is a mosaic which, while exhibiting the greatest variety of detail, nevertheless gives a net impression of harmony and unity. The volume just issued, with its sub-title, 'Welding of the Nation,' covers the stirring period from 1845 to 1900, and few of the salient points fail to receive something of illustration. As was to have been expected, extracts from Presidential messages, speeches in Congress, and the like are rather more numerous than in the earlier volumes, but so-called "documents" are still, in the main, consistently excluded. The range of selection continues wide, the pieces illustrative of social and economic conditions being least familiar. Perhaps part vii., on reconstruction, is least varied, the predominance of political discussion overshadowing the extracts descriptive of the actual condition of the South at the time. The subsequent period is still too new for much coördination, and Professor Hart has wisely touched upon a few of its main features only. The final chapters on the Spanish war, questions of colonization and foreign policy, and current social and governmental problems, bring the exhibit down to date. There is but one jarring note, and that is the trivial sentence with which the editor introduces a selection of his own on the Monroe Doctrine. The series as a whole is to be commended as one of the most valuable of recent aids to the study and teaching of American history.

MICHIE'S M'CLELLAN.

General McClellan. By Gen. Peter S. Michie. With illustrations and maps. (Great Commanders Series.) D. Appleton & Co. 1901. 12mo, pp. 488.

Gen. Michie's estimate of the character and military services of McClellan, which was completed just before the death of its distinguished author, comes very near meeting, if, indeed, it does not fully meet, the requirements of posterity for judging the soldier who, whatever his limitations, undoubtedly possessed many of the qualities of a great commander. The biography is thoroughly just and kind to McClellan, yet impartial and searching in its treatment of military questions; and, being written outside of that atmosphere of personal friendship or hostility which for a long time colored all attempts to appraise McClellan's work, and, moreover, with command of the host of documents, public and private, which have made clear many a once obscure and disputed fact, the book

is a true enlightenment of our knowledge of the men and times of the civil war.

The essential conclusions which the reader will draw from the story is that McClellan fashioned, with utmost skill and success, a weapon in the shape of the Army of the Potomac, which he was quite unequal to wielding in the field, not for the reason which disabled some of his successors—of loss of head in the critical hour of battle—but because he was constantly preoccupied with concern for the possible defeat which he apprehended on account of the real or imaginary (often entirely imaginary) superiority of his adversary, and so refused many an opening of attack, and, when assailed, left the battle to be fought by his subordinates while he looked after the lines of retreat. Of this state of mind, the campaign of 1862 in the Virginia peninsula is full of examples. Gen. Michie bestows high praise upon that ability, which stood in great service to the nation in its early critical days after Bull Run, to organize and win the hearty enthusiasm of the rank and file of an army. The Army of the Potomac was made by McClellan, and to the end of its career it retained much of the character which his genius had stamped upon it. But the question will arise whether the sort of army which he insisted upon building up was suited to the need of the time, or to the mood of the country, which a wise commander would have taken into consideration. The armies of the West accomplished their ends, or at least kept the nation in a hopeful spirit (which is an important part of good generalship), with a much shorter delay in camp drill, not because, as has sometimes been alleged, of the inferiority of their adversaries as compared with the Confederate Army of Virginia, but because they were promptly thrust into action, and acquired that confidence and audacity which come only from experience under fire, and which no camp manœuvring can impart. During the long, anxious fall of 1861, when, as we now know, Johnston was lamenting the crippled and demoralized state of his Confederate troops, and was ready to beat a retreat towards Richmond upon the first signal of McClellan's advance, the latter hardly permitted his men to make a simple reconnoissance; dress parades there were in abundance, but nothing which gave the soldier the smell of powder; and thus precious opportunity for at least small successes was wasted, and the foundation was laid of that opposition to him at Washington and throughout the North which would have made his continuance in command impossible even if he could have won some moderate successes in the field, as it can hardly be said that he did.

The late Gen. Jacob D. Cox, in his 'Military Reminiscences,' was, we believe, the first historian of the war to detect the essential weakness of all McClellan's undertakings in his constant exaggeration, under the false reports of his spies, of the strength of his opponent; and Michie returns again and again to this consideration as accounting for his masterly inactivity and inordinate alarm for his army's safety upon many an occasion when victory could easily have been won. The chief of the spy service habitually doubled and trebled the numbers of the enemy, so that McClellan, in the latter days of October, 1861, in a formal communication to President Lincoln, who plaintively asked for some promise of action, declared that "the enemy have a force on the Potomac not less than one hundred and fifty thousand strong"; while Johnston's reports of the same date estimate his strength at "forty-seven thousand of all arms ready for battle." At Yorktown, under the same delusion, McClellan refrained from a prompt attack upon Magruder's small force, and entered upon a protracted siege, while the figures show that he had a hundred and nine thousand men present for duty, while Johnston, when his men were all up, had but fifty-three thousand. So it was to the end. The secret-service officers were utterly untrustworthy, feeding the ever-present fears of McClellan that he was upon the point of being overwhelmed, and giving partial justification for the accusations and complaints with which his correspondence with the Washington authorities is full, that he was being refused accessions or stripped, by detachments to other departments, of troops whose reinforcement was indispensable to any reasonable hope of success. The wonder is, not alone that an intelligent soldier should not have used other available means than bare reliance on his spies for finding what forces were in his front, but that he should have attributed to the Confederacy such extraordinary recruiting energy when at that time it was entirely dependent upon volunteering. The rigorous conscription of a later time which robbed the cradle and the grave dated from the assumption of the Confederate command by Lee, in the midsummer of 1862, and was not especially productive until after McClellan's day.

This conviction that his enemy was always his superior in numbers helps to explain another grave deficiency in his conduct as a commander, viz., that throughout the Peninsula campaign, from Yorktown to Malvern Hill, "his headquarters were unduly distant from the several fields of battle, and so much so, indeed, that, so far as his personal or professional influence was concerned, it may be almost completely ignored in all tactical combinations." Gaines's Mill was fought by Fitz John Porter against the combined divisions of Longstreet, Jackson, and the two Hills, with three times his number of men, while McClellan was diverted by a few brigades in his front under Magruder, and stayed there with the bulk of the army. Glendale, the vital cross-roads of the army's retreat to the James, where the enemy pressed hard, was a battle without a head; the several corps commanders fighting as they saw an enemy, independently of one another, and for the most part unaware of one another's presence. When the position became untenable, "without orders from the commanding general, it was most fortunately abandoned." Concerning his absence from Malvern Hill, whose management was confided to Porter while McClellan went on board the gunboat *Galena*, to select, with Commodore Rodgers, the final establishment for the army, our biographer declares, with entire justice, that "the continued presence of Gen. McClellan with his troops, seeing to their best tactical disposition, and giving them the inspiration of his undoubted personal magnetism, was a duty of the first importance, in comparison with which everything else was of no military value whatever; and every explanation of this absence must be in the nature of an unsatisfactory apology."

When, in view of the miscarriage of this campaign and his bitter altercations with the War Department, it is asked why McClellan was continued in command to make another disappointing trial at Antietam, the evident answer is, that there was nobody else who could be pointed out as having the confidence of the country or the army; and nobody else appeared when Lincoln's patience came to an end after Antietam. Burnside and Hooker failed disastrously, and Meade was feeling his way until 1864. By his superabundant caution McClellan had preserved the army from any such disaster as befell it at Fredericksburg in December, 1862, and therefore was a safe commander. But this negative virtue does not win battles, and the season of experiment with other leaders had to come. Furthermore, McClellan came to attach excessive importance to his indispensableness to the army and the country, and to feel a considerable degree of contempt towards the Administration, whose head, as later generations have discovered, possessed a far from contemptible sagacity in military affairs, as he showed himself to be the master spirit in civil administration. A little more humility on McClellan's part, such as should have been born of his failures, and a little more readiness to share wisdom with the President and his advisers; a little more tact to bind to himself the men of civil affairs who began with being his stanch friends and ended by thorough distrust of all his aims, and the story of the reception of a mighty trust might have had an end commensurate with the fine promise of its beginning.

That McClellan was, in any act or thought, other than utterly loyal and patriotic, or that he or any of those near to him connived at defeat of the Union arms under Pope or any other officer, Gen. Michie believes, as do most impartial witnesses, to be devoid of any reasonable foundation. One of the most notable of the charges of his sulking in his tent while the country was imperilled, under cover of the trial of Fitz John Porter for alleged treasonable failure of duty, was completely refuted, when, after the heat and blindness of the war passion had abated, Porter was fully exonerated from all fault and declared to have borne a highly honorable part in the last of Pope's battles, by a competent military tribunal, whose conclusions received the hearty approval of Gen. Grant. Not on account of lack of high moral qualities did McClellan step out of the combat, but because "his generalship was not up to the standard which the situation demanded."

The Oldest Type-Printed Book in Existence: A Disquisition on the Relative Antiquity of the Pfister and Mazarin Bibles and the "65-line A" Catholicon. Prefaced by a Brief History of the Invention of Printing. By George Washington Moon. London: Privately printed. MCMI.

Will the controversy about the invention of printing never end? Fifty years ago students of typography were divided in opinion: one-half believed that printing was invented by Laurens Janszoon Koster of Haarlem, in 1423, and the other half accredited it to John Gutenberg of Mainz in 1450. In 1869-70, Dr. A. Van der Linde pub-

lished a series of articles in Dutch journals (afterward expanded in two large volumes) in which he showed that the pretensions made on behalf of Koster had no sound basis in history. He did what no one before had done so thoroughly, for he sifted evidence and examined records with uncommon critical discernment. Although he wrote with needless asperity, his reasoning was accepted as conclusive by many partisans of Koster, who were led by him to believe that the real inventor of printing was John Gutenberg of Mainz.

Moved no doubt by emulation, Dr. Hessels of Oxford, England, undertook a similar sifting of the evidence that had been published in favor of Gutenberg. He showed that fables and forgeries had been devised to cover supposed weak spots in the histories written about Gutenberg, and that his records also needed further investigation. He does not deny that Gutenberg printed before 1455, but he does lead the reader to doubt that he was sole inventor, or even the master spirit in the invention of printing. It is certain that Gutenberg had forerunners.

A French investigator in the archives of Avignon reports that one Christopher Valdfoghel had there introduced, before the period of Gutenberg in Mainz, a new "art of writing with metal letters." No specimen of Valdfoghel's workmanship was discovered, nor is it known what methods he used; but it is possible that he was attempting to invent printing with metal types. We have also some new evidence that Mentilin of Strassburg was a successful and an industrious printer in that city at or before the publication of the two great Bibles attributed (and denied) to Gutenberg.

One of these Bibles is known as the Bible of Forty-two Lines, or the Mazarin Bible, so called from its discovery in the library of Cardinal Mazarin. This Bible, now in the National Library at Paris, contains in its two volumes two colophons, professedly written by the illuminator of the books, certifying that his work was done at Mainz in the year 1455. These colophons, with other evidences, have led to the conclusion that this Bible must have been printed in Mainz before 1455. Mr. Moon challenges the credibility of these colophons, and names bibliographers of authority who believe that they were not written by the illuminator. The other Bible is known as the Bible of Thirty-six Lines, or the Pfister Bible, or the Bamberg Bible, so called because Albert Pfister of Bamberg is known to have used its types in several of his little books. It has no printed date, nor has any copy been found with an early written date. The types of the two Bibles are different as to size, but they resemble one another in form, and should have been made by the same printer; but there are historic difficulties in the way of this hypothesis. The Bible of Forty-two Lines always has been regarded as the first, because it had a written date; but there are bibliographers of authority who maintain that the Bible of Thirty-six Lines was the first product of the new art. If the authenticity of the written date of 1455 is proved a forgery, then the relative priority of the two Bibles is still an open question.

Now comes George Washington Moon (well known as the rasping critic of Dean Alford's 'Queen's English'), with a thin quarto of 47 pages, in which he challenges the priority of these Bibles. He asserts that they were printed in too workmanlike a manner, and that neither one could have been the first product of the new art. He begins with a recital of the oldest printed testimonies in favor of Gutenberg, and adjudges their merits as history with creditable impartiality; but he shows, as Dr. Van der Linde had done before him, that the repetition of an early statement by an uncritical writer adds nothing to the credibility of that statement. Nevertheless, he insists that the testimony of the earliest writers on the subject should not be put aside entirely. He quotes one old writer who said that the 'Catholicon' was the first printed book. He prefers the internal evidences in early printed books to the assertions of contemporaneous writers, for many of them had no exact knowledge of the mechanics of printing, and, without intending to mislead, did mislead seriously. He compares the appearance of print in early books not by the types of letters only, but by marks of punctuation and other trifles of typographical practice that have been overlooked. He says that the acknowledged characteristics of earliest printing are:

"No title-page, preface, table of contents, or of rubrics.
"No colophon, pagination, catch-words.
"No signature or lettering for marking separately printed sheets.
"No marginal notes or footnotes.
"No headings to pages or to chapters, and no space between chapters.
"No large printed capitals (as initial letters) and no small letters as guides to the maker of the initials.
"No diphthongs or quotation marks.
"No marks of punctuation, except the dot, and this dot was always above the lower lining of the letters.
"No register of lettered signatures and no errata.
"No printer's name or place of printing and no date.
"Only Gothic or semi-Gothic type.
"Only one long s and one short s.
"Only one straight and one curved r.
"Only one size of each small letter.
"Only one size and one form of each capital.
"Only one form of each double letter.
"Only one form of each single letter or abbreviation.
"The i never dotted; it was either with an acute or circumflex accent.
"The first and last leaf always blank.
"An irregular or uneven number of lines in mated columns."

The two Bibles previously mentioned do not conform to all these characteristics of early printing. As they have different forms of the same letter, and as one of them shows four kinds of marks of punctuation, and has other peculiarities, Mr. Moon decides that they cannot be rated as the first or even as very early products of the new art. They show improvements upon a still earlier and a cruder practice of printing.

The only book that approximates the characteristics specified by Mr. Moon is this rare and undated edition of the 'Catholicon' in his possession, and described by him as the "65-line A Catholicon" from its peculiar form of the capital A. This Catholicon, a folio of 800 pages, the combination of a Latin grammar and dictionary, had been a book of high authority for nearly two centuries, and it was undoubtedly a book to be selected by an early printer as certain of ready sale. It seems to have been printed from new and sharp types in a creditable manner, but it betrays on the part of the printer remarkable ignorance of, or indifference to, the niceties of typography which have been listed by Mr. Moon. He gives a facsimile of a paragraph of this Catholicon. It conforms to his standard of the characteristics of early printing in all features but one: its capital letters are neither Gothic nor semi-Gothic, but a fair form of Roman letter, fully as correct as the Roman capitals shown by Sweynheim and Pannartz at Subiaco in 1465. Even the small or minuscule letters of this Catholicon incline more to the Roman than the semi-Gothic style.

Who printed this edition of the Catholicon? Mr. Moon does not hazard a direct answer, but he points to the significant circumstance that it is one of a series of four volumes (the earlier ones undated, and without name or place) printed by Mentilin of Strassburg, and that the second volume of the series, 'Speculum Doctrinale,' is printed in the types of this "65-line A Catholicon," but its types show wear and have new capital letters. The reader is led to form his own conclusion that it should have been printed about 1445, and probably by Mentilin of Strassburg.

It is already established that Gutenberg was experimenting in or practising printing in Strassburg as early as 1440, and that he had associates with whom he was at variance. Mentilin's name was not mentioned in their law-suit against Gutenberg, but Mentilin did practise printing in that city for many years after the alleged departure of Gutenberg to Mainz. There is no record of any work done by Gutenberg between 1442 and 1448, but it is not at all probable that he was idle. It is possible that this Catholicon might have been printed in Strassburg at or about 1445, but whether with or without the aid of Gutenberg, is uncertain.

Ethics: Descriptive and Explanatory. By Sidney Edward Mezes. The Macmillan Co. 1901. 8vo, pp. 435.

Professor Mezes of the University of Texas has been known to the general public as a scholar of Howison, and as one of the four authors of the sympotic book, 'The Conception of God.' He there produced upon us a mixed impression, for his intellect seemed not to have quite so keen an edge as is called for in philosophy; and yet here and there conceptions appeared so simple and obvious, and yet so novel, that one ransacked one's memory in the endeavor to recall any anticipation of the remark. Much the same impression is renewed by the present book. Hard work and solid has been put into it; and, of course, the harvest must have proportionate value. Parts of the treatise are admirably worked out, and are, at any rate, instructive, even if their conclusions are rejected. But hard work is not all that is required in dealing with such a subject.

In aim and method the present work is fully as original as it ought to be. The author belongs to that school of ethics which is probably nearest right—that is to say, to the school which makes tribal tradition a main factor of morality, and which is thus enabled to frame an evolutionary theory of it. But although the author is thus in the van of ethical exploration, a

certain old-fashioned and conservative color—attributable, perhaps, to temperament and Texan environment—strongly tinges his theory. Now, conservatism in morals is most needful in practice, and, of course, is theoretically defensible. But that defence itself is not conservative: on the contrary, it is rationalistic; and in pure theory, especially in a theory of aims, conservatism is irrational and out of place. The writer effects a reconciliation of his conservatism (which is very likely unconscious) with his advanced views by exaggerating more than usual a prevalent tendency which we venture to think that the majority of philosophers of our day carry too far—we mean the tendency to base everything in philosophy upon the psychical sciences. The immense success of scientific psychology during the last forty years has very naturally given it a weight in men's minds that ought not in philosophy to be accorded to any merely special science, which is precisely what psychology has all along been striving and struggling to be. On the contrary, it is now generally admitted that psychology, like general physics, necessarily takes for granted a *Weltanschauung* or outline system of metaphysics. Now, metaphysics can have no satisfactory grounding except upon a scientific logic; and logic rests on ethics to a degree that few are aware of. So if there be no other basis for ethics than psychology, which is a third story above it, the whole erection floats on air. Ethics as a positive science must rest on observed facts. But it is quite a different thing to make it rest on special scientific observation, and still more so to base it upon scientific conclusions. The only solid foundation for ethics lies in those facts of every-day life which no skeptical philosopher ever yet really called in question.

Now, Mr. Mezes is so far from taking this view that he maintains that the whole business of the moralist consists in saying what men mean by morality, in describing what they hold to be moral, and in explaining how they come to do so. This is a most interesting and valuable study, but it is ethical anthropology, not pure ethics; and to limit ethics in this way is to be faithless to the first duty of a moralist, as such. "Ethical writers do not in any proper sense," he says, meaning that they overstep the bounds of their province when they do, "judge conduct or issue pronouncements as to what is right or wrong. Their more modest task is to discover and record men's genuine judgments as to what is right or wrong." Let us see how this view of ethics works. A judge, let us suppose, has brought before him a case in which a man has suffered injury for which he claims damages of another. Whether damages ought to be paid in such a case is often, we know, a delicate and puzzling question. We will follow Professor Mezes in using a much too simple illustration, which ought to puzzle nobody. "Take," he says, "the case where A's cattle break out of their enclosure, in spite of A's having used all the care he reasonably could have used, or could learn to use, and destroy B's valuable crop in an adjoining field." This case (or rather another far more difficult) puzzles the judge, and he takes it under advisement. He naturally looks into works on ethics, and, finding nothing pertinent in modern books, is driven to the scholastic treatises. Now, there is nothing in the whole scholastic logic more justly an object of derision for any modern thinker than its weak confusion of thought in its doctrine of causes; nor in that whole doctrine is there any more manifest absurdity than the distinction between a *proximate* and a *remote* cause. When we meet with an application of it in the scholastic commentary on the Sentences, it stands out as so much more nonsensical than the rest as to be comical; but that anybody should be made to suffer because of any consequence of such metaphysical jargon is outrageous flippancy. Yet it is just this outrage that the judge is driven to commit, or to pretend to commit, because the ethical writers have not expounded right and wrong in a sufficiently luminous and reasonable form.

Professor Mezes follows them. He maintains that A, the owner of the cattle, ought to reimburse B for the injury done by them to his crop, because A is the *proximate cause* of B's suffering. If he would not follow the decisions of Texas courts as the ultimate evidence concerning right and wrong, he could not fail to see that the real reason why the judge awards damages to B is that to allow a private person to undertake a business humanly sure in the long run to injure his neighbors (and all the more so if he "cannot learn to use" suitable preventive measures), and then to allow him to pocket all the profits, and make his neighbors pay for incidental losses, would be to bring himself and his court into public contempt and into no little danger. That was the judge's real reason. But in days gone by (perhaps not yet in Texas) if a judge could decide a case justly, and yet by a process of metaphysical reasoning the less intelligible the better, he was regarded with awe by the vulgar; and that was one motive for his seizing upon that argument when he could get no modern light.

One of the distinctive features of Professor Mezes's book is a seventy-page chapter on Justice, in which legal decisions are followed, often in a way which will be repugnant to right-minded readers, and yet not so exclusively that the chapter can be said to constitute an exposition of the traditional legal conception of justice. Professor Mezes defines ultimate good as "the welfare of all sentient beings," but he is doubtful whether it is worth while to have any regard for the welfare either of *bacilli* (are these sentient beings in Texas?) or of criminals of all classes. The last exclusion is characteristic, we are sorry to say. But when we ask what he means by "welfare," in place of a *definition*, nothing is vouchsafed but a *division* of "welfare," in which there are two or three dozen items, such as "easy activity," "sense of personal attractiveness," "sense of solvency," "satisfaction from social standing," "sense of divine favor," "national pride," "self-control," "a body of well-poised spontaneous activities," "systematic ideas of rights and duties," "sagacity." There are those who will think that all this is on a pretty low plane, and we do not see much in the list about the welfare of earth-worms, etc., notwithstanding the insistence upon "all sentient beings."

The best thing in the book is the psychological analysis of conscience, which is decidedly noticeable. We could hardly have expected the terminology to be reformed. The scholastic writers mark two things which they distinguish by the terms *synderesis* and *conscience* (the latter nearly in the sense in which it is a household word). The interest of progress in ethical discussion calls upon us to come to agreement about the use of technical terms. But each of us is attached to his own habit, and will not surrender it unless it can be shown clearly to violate a law to which he has given in his allegiance. A code of rules is needed, in framing which we cannot do better than to be guided by the taxonomists, who have had, of all men, most experience in dealing with similar difficulties. If we do that, our first rule, subject, perhaps, to a few general but well-defined classes of exceptions (the fewer the better), will certainly be that every technical term of philosophy ought to be used in that sense in which it first became a technical term of philosophy. This will, generally speaking, result in the greatest accord between the language of philosophy and the vernacular, of which the word *conscience* will be an example. As for that other thing which a good many moralists call conscience, some other name ought to be given to it, preferably a new word. At any rate, not *synderesis*, of which the original meaning, we are convinced, is not that which Siebeck assigns to it. Professor Mezes, whose definitions are mostly of doubtful accuracy, distinguishes between conscience about others' acts and conscience about one's own. But a stay-at-home conscience does the most to render earth habitable.

As we rise from the reading of the whole book, we find ourselves saying, If *this* is what morality is, we are disposed to sympathize with Henry James, the elder, in his very limited respect for morality.

A History of Egypt in the Middle Ages. By Stanley Lane-Poole. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901. Pp. xvi, 382. Map and 101 illustrations.

This is the sixth volume in the great history of Egypt now publishing, and covers, in spite of its title, the period from the Arab conquest in 640 to the conquest by the Ottoman Turks in 1517. The seventh volume will treat the Ottoman period from 1517 to the present day.

There can be no question of the learning and skill which Professor Lane-Poole has brought to bear on a complicated and abstruse subject. Hereditarily and personally interested in Egypt and in the glories of its history and civilization, he has added to the merely picturesque that definite exactitude in dates which marks the modern historian. Few men have at their command such a skeleton for the history of any part of the Muslim world as he has drawn from his long labors among the coins of the British Museum. He has also had access to the unique collection of materials which M. van Berchem has made for his 'Corpus Inscriptionum Arabicarum.' The Ethiopic and Byzantine sources, too, have been open to him. It will thus be seen that he has been able to use much wider and more exact information on his subject than was the case with Weil, his only serious competitor. As for Sir William Muir's volume on the Mamluks, the remark on it, page 317, is unfortunately true, but would also be better away. At the best, that book covers only a small part of the present field.

It was probably exigencies of space alone which led to the few weaknesses here open to criticism. Thus, it must be said that

Egypt is treated too much in isolation and too little as an element in the Muslim world. Little attention is paid to the Shi'ite movement outside of Egypt, although the romance of the Fatimids is only a part of it, and unintelligible when treated alone. Even the Qarmatians, that element in Shi'ism which was most directly connected with the Fatimids, are hardly mentioned except when they enter Egypt, and their position generally is left in great obscurity. The same holds of the history of Northern Africa and Spain. There is no mention of Ibn Tumart and the Muwahhids, though their sweep of conquest reacted upon Egypt. As for Egypt itself, the account of al-Hakim Bi'amrillah, though detailed, cannot be called illuminating. The problem presented by that strange character, fantastic life, and mysterious end is hardly even suggested. It may even be said that the problem of the Fatimids as a whole is treated in too external a fashion. The secret philosophical teaching which must have lain behind their Shi'ite orthodoxy is passed over. There is also very little about the Assassins; probably because their operations lay mostly outside of Egypt, though their origin was Fatimid. The events of history bear much more stress than the ideas which gave rise to them; it is true that in this case the ideas are obscure enough. Further, and in accordance with this, we find here little about the religious movements of the time, however illuminating they might have been to the course of the history. In an-Nasir's reign, some account of the trials of Ibn Taymiya and of his conflict with popular superstition and with mysticism in high places would have thrown much light on the period and on the character of an-Nasir himself. Still less attention is paid to literature.

But all this is probably due to want of space. There can be no question that Professor Lane-Poole is fully aware of all the points that we have now raised. The pity is that his space should have fallen thus short. The map, too, is very inadequate. That the dating on the margin and in the text is A. D. is exceedingly awkward. It is not always possible to consult Wüstenfeld's *Tabellen*, and for the student the date A. H. is the more important. It would have been well, too, if a transliteration and translation of the numerous inscriptions and coins reproduced had been added. Comparatively few Arabists can read the involved script used in such cases. To balance this, we have numerous tables, dynastic and of governors, lists of authorities, of monuments, inscriptions and coins, and an excellent index of twenty-four pages. If Professor Lane-Poole cannot rival the detail of Weil and Quatremère, he has given us a history, as a whole, more solid and trustworthy, and has well earned our gratitude.

Irish Pastorals. By Shan F. Bullock. McClure, Phillips & Co. Pp. 309.

These pastorals are nine sketches of Irish peasant life mainly as passed in the open. We are led through the circle of the year, from the planting of the potatoes to the cutting of the hedges in late autumn. The scenes appear to be laid about Louth and Cavan. "My lord the mountain," so often referred to, is probably Slieve Gullion in Armagh. Some if not all the Pastorals have appeared in magazine form. From the context we should infer they are a selection from a large number published or unpublished.

There have been so many poor attempts on the like theme that we opened the book somewhat with misgiving. We did not finally lay it down until we had read it from cover to cover. It is of singular merit, displaying insight into character and close observation of manners and ways of speech. We can hardly say it is better than anything that has been written upon the same subject; it is certainly as good, and fit to take its place beside Carleton and Miss Barlow. "The Brothers" is a shocking story of love and murder. It is out of keeping with the rest of the collection. Had Mr. Bullock been content to omit this and subsidiary stories in two other of the sketches, bringing the book down to some 250 pages, it would have been a more consistent and creditable piece of work.

As a specimen of the author's style we cannot do better than give the following. A party of turf-cutters are resting at midday. They are joined by a poor old man Robin, who, like some of the others, nods off asleep over a fire they have kindled. Lizzie Dolan, a bouncing girl, shortly to be married—her courting forms the main theme of "The Planters"—is one of the party:

"Lizzie's eyes fell upon the sleeping figure of ould Robin. He looked woful; and at sight of him—at sight of his time-beaten face, his ugliness and squalor, his open mouth and dribbling chin—the girl shivered in the sunshine. 'Lord, the ugly old man he is,' said she; 'the ugly ould sinner.' "

Then, in a spirit of mischief, she reaches over and decorates his hat with heather and potato peelings.

" 'Lord, the sight he is, the comical ould sight,' cried she. 'Whisht, Anne, whisht; don't laugh or you'll wake him.' But already Anne had laughed, and Robin was awake."

Further to bring him into ridicule, she asks his age, seventy-five, and—

" 'I say, Robin, isn't it near time ye thought o' marryin' again?' The old man turned slowly and looked full at Lizzie. . . . 'Is it o' marryin' you're axin' me?' asked Robin; and before the solemnity of his face Lizzie dropped her eyes. . . . 'I was married only once,' said he, very deliberately; 'only once; an' I wish to God I was married yet, for its meself is the lonesome man this day. . . . Ay, but it's wonderful the grip a woman has on a man when he's wi' her for fifty years. It's astonishin'. An' ye never know how astonishin' it is till ye lose her. Naw, ye never know till then. Losin' anythin' else in the world's nothin' to it; nothin' at all. Ye get used to that in a week, or a month, or so; but niver, niver do ye get used to th' other. Niver, niver! Ah, well I know it. . . . Twelve months ago an' a day more I buried Mary. That's a longish time, you'd think, long enough anyway to get used to missin' her. But, somehow, I can't get used to it. [He then rambles on into thoughts of his loneliness.] So you'll see that mebbe, when all's considered, I've had enough o' marryin' to do my time.' . . . . Lizzie, her face all wet with tears, ran to Robin . . . and deftly began plucking away the sprigs of heather from his hat. . . . 'An' now come away wi' me,' said she, 'till I help ye catch the ass, an' get the scraws for the fire. Come away.' "

The singular merit of these 'Irish Pastorals' has led us into making these somewhat long extracts, which in but a small degree give a true impression of the beauty and pathos of the full narrative. There is no politics, no religion, no intention in the work. It brings to our imagination as neither pen nor pencil has brought before phases in the daily life of the Irish peasantry on the borders of Ulster.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, F. F. A History and Description of Roman Political Institutions. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.60.
Addyman, F. T. Practical X-Ray Work. London: Scott, Greenwood & Co.; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $4.
Bate, Percy. The English Pre-Raphaelite Painters. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. New ed. $3.
Begbie, Harold. The Fall of the Curtain. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Blanchard, Amy E. Because of Conscience. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Bonehill, Ralph. The Three Young Ranchmen. The Saalfield Pub. Co. $1.
Champney, Elizabeth W. A Daughter of the Huguenots. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.35.
Chesnutt, C. W. The Marrow of Tradition. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Cook, E. T. Rights and Wrongs of the Transvaal War. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Curtis, W. E. The True Thomas Jefferson. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Davies, Acton. Maude Adams. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.10.
Doubleday, Russell. A Year in a Yawl. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.25.
Douglas, Amanda M. A Little Girl in Old New Orleans. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.20.
Douglas, Amanda M. A Sherburne Inheritance. Dodd, Mead & Co. 90 cents.
Errera, Carlo. L'Epoca delle Grandi Scoperte Geografiche. Milan: Ulrico Hoepli.
Flaubert, Gustave. Salâmmbo. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Gager, C. S. Errors in Science Teaching. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 50 cents.
Grinnell, Morton. Neighbours of Field, Wood, and Stream. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.30.
Hargitt, C. W. Outlines of General Biology. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. $1.
Hodder, Alfred. The New Americans. Macmillan. $1.50.
Jacobs, W. W. Light Freights. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Keightley, S. R. A Man of Millions. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Levett-Yeats, S. The Traitor's Way. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Licò, Nigro. La Protezione degli Animali. Milan: Ulrico Hoepli.
Ludlow, J. M. Deborah. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Mabie, H. W. Norse Stories. Dodd, Mead & Co. New ed. $1.80.
Mabie, H. W. William Shakespeare, Poet, Dramatist, and Man. New ed. Macmillan. $2.
Mathews, F. A. My Lady Peggy Goes to Town. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Mohr, Charles. Plant Life in Alabama. Montgomery (Ala.): Geological Survey.
Newman, J. H. The Lives of the English Saints. New ed. 6 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Oman, C. W. C. A History of Greece. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Paton, James. Beautiful Characters, or Types of Victory. American Tract Society. 50 cents.
Price, G. M. Handbook on Sanitation. John Wiley & Sons. $1.50.
Scott, Leader. Filippo di Ser Brunellesco. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Silver Series of Classics. (1) Burns. Selected Poems; (2) Selected Essays of Charles Lamb; (3) The Holy Grail; (4) Lays of Ancient Rome; (5) Silas Marner. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Singleton, Esther. Romantic Castles and Palaces, as Seen and Described by Famous Writers. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.60.
Southworth, May E. One Hundred and One Sandwiches. San Francisco: D. P. Elder and Morgan Shepard. 50 cents.
Starr, Frederick. American Indians. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Stephenson, H. T. The Fickle Wheel. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Swan, Annie S. An American Woman. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Swoope, C. W. Lessons in Practical Electricity. D. Van Nostrand Co. $2.
Taylor, Bayard. Boys of Other Countries. New ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
The Love Letters of Abelard and Heloise. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
The Nine to Twelve Series: (1) Pratt, Ella F. The Little Cave-Dwellers; (2) Wells, Kate G. Little Dick's Son; (3) Diaz, Abby M. The Flatiron and the Red Cloak; (4) Butterworth, Hezekiah, Little Sky-High; (5) Clark, Kate Upson. How Dexter Paid his Way; (6) Harbour, J. L. Marcia and the Major; (7) Spofford, Harriet P. The Children of the Valley; (8) Douglas, Marion. In the Poverty Year. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 35 cents each.
Veitch, John. The Meditations, and Selections from the Principles, of René Descartes. Chicago: Open Court Pub. Co. 35 cents.
Watson, W. F. Elementary Experimental Chemistry. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.25.
Williams, W. H. Sonnetical Notes on Philosophy. Published by the Author.
Winfield, A. M. A Young Inventor's Pluck. The Saalfield Pub. Co. $1.
Wood, C. W. The Glories of Spain. Macmillan. $3.50.
Wright, Carrie D. Lincoln's First Love. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Yechton, Barbara. Young Mrs. Teddy. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 31, 1901.

The Week.

It is reported from Washington that Senator Aldrich has had a long interview with the President, in which he (Aldrich) has urged that there shall be no legislation on the currency question this winter, and none on the tariff question, and that none of the pending reciprocity treaties shall be ratified. The writer says also that, judging by what the influential Senators and Representatives who have been in consultation with the President during the present month have said to him, it is probable that his first message to Congress will not recommend the reciprocity treaties or any currency legislation, but that he will have something to say about the growing power of industrial combinations or Trusts. It is very probable that Senator Aldrich is opposed to the reciprocity treaties—all of them. The French treaty makes a reduction of the duties on pinchbeck jewelry. Aldrich is strongly opposed to that, and of course he could not consistently vote in favor of the Argentine treaty or any other, while opposing the French treaty. It does not follow, however, that President Roosevelt has been moved from his declared purpose to carry out, so far as it lies in his power, the policy of President McKinley in this regard. We shall be much surprised if he changes front on this question, but, of course, nothing commits him to an aggressive campaign for reciprocity. Nothing commits him to the kind of fight for it that he made at Albany for the Franchise-Tax Law. The battle must be fought by the Western manufacturers who held the Detroit convention last spring, and they must not be discouraged if they do not win the first round. The President, we feel sure, will not go back on them.

Col. James Kilbourne, the Democratic candidate for Governor of Ohio, made a speech at Bucyrus on Wednesday of last week, in which he gave some attention to the situation in the Philippines. The tone of his remarks was serious, but not in any manner offensive to the supporters of the prevailing policy of the Government. Mr. Kilbourne is a manufacturer, and he says that it is idle to suppose that we shall ever get back from these islands what they are now costing us. Whether we call it conquering the islands or putting down the rebellion, we are paying out for this purpose $100,000,000 per year, not to mention the precious blood we are pouring out there. And how are we to get anything back? Some people say, by trade with the people. But there is no trade worth mentioning so long as the war continues. There can be very little trade, even after the islands are subjugated, with a people who hate us, and have been impoverished by us. On the other hand, we had a very considerable trade with the Philippines before the war. "My own company," said Mr. Kilbourne, "shipped goods by the carload to the Philippines twenty years ago."

Who would have believed it possible after reading the American denunciations of Spain's Cuban concentration policy in 1897 and 1898, that within three years American generals would be applying it in the Philippines? Yet the unexpected has come to pass. In Samar the strictest orders have been given for the entire population of the island to concentrate in towns, accompanied by the threat that any one found outside them will be shot or hung as an enemy of the American people. Any man who would have dared to prophesy in 1898 such a state of affairs, would have been denounced far and wide as a slanderer of the United States. Now, however, we have changed all that, and it is almost impossible to get newspapers which were most outspoken in their denunciations of Spanish misrule to discuss the situation in the Philippines. When they are forced to comment upon it by such mishaps as the recent disasters in Samar, it is only to assure their readers, as did the New York *Times* recently, that the state of things in Luzon is satisfactory.

Just how satisfactory it is in that island, appears from Gen. Chaffee's remarks apropos of a court-martial sentence, in the course of which he declared that the "whole Philippine people" were now engaged in making war in a manner not in accordance with the recognized laws of war. Officers who have returned lately from the Philippines have recorded their belief not only that all the troops now there will be needed to keep them in subjection, but that the number may need to be increased to 60,000. It is understood, too, that several of the staff generals who spent the summer in the islands have brought back far more discouraging reports than have been allowed to leak out. The constant treachery of the Filipino civil officials lends color to the oft-repeated assertions that even those who have taken office in Manila are at heart against the Americans. It was but natural, therefore, for Judge Taft to frown upon the recent formation of a third Filipino political party, whose avowed object is "the Philippines for the Filipinos." Upon the 7th of February next the war in the archipelago will be in its fourth year. How much longer will the American people consent to such a waste of treasure and blood? How much longer will they care to have their actions in the East cited by Mr. Chamberlain and his fellow-wrongdoers in South Africa as their excuse for concentration camps, for banishments, and for stamping out nationality?

A certain indecision marks the opening ceremonies of the Pan-American conference now in session in the City of Mexico. Misunderstanding between the delegates from the United States and those from the Latin countries, and distrust of our preponderancy, are of course the chief dangers to be guarded against. The fervent eulogy of Spain delivered by General Reyes, delegate from Colombia, shows the existence of a solidarity of Latin sentiment which, if we are to achieve results with the South Americans, we must learn to understand, or at least to respect. It is gratifying to learn that the delegates from the United States, differing from certain ill-advised critics at Washington, appear to have appreciated the spirit of General Reyes's meridional eloquence, and congratulated him heartily on his oration. This was well done, and calculated to allay the suspicion that we intend to impose our modes of thought and government upon people trained in another tradition. It is only by maintaining such an attitude of disinterestedness and sympathy that the very modest ends set before the conference can be attained.

That the city of Worcester should choose Senator Hoar to be the formal eulogist of the late President was perhaps natural. That Senator Hoar should decline this office was even more inevitable, for how could the orator who, if he supported Mr. McKinley last fall, had never agreed with him on the most important issue, praise the policy which he had consistently denounced? Accordingly he writes:

> "I think the eulogy on the President should be delivered by some person who was in full accord with him upon the principal political measure of his Administration. I never questioned his absolute sincerity, his devotion to the public welfare, his love of liberty, and his desire to do his duty as God gave him to see it. I was fully in accord with him on the great fiscal measures with which he was identified. But, as you know, I differed with him and his Administration—and my opinion on that subject has been strengthened and not weakened in the lapse of time—in regard to his policy in dealing with the Philippine Islands."

The personal import of these words is less significant than the fact that Senator Hoar believes increasingly that President McKinley's solution of the problem of the Philippines was radically wrong. This leads to the hope that Senator Hoar

will show his old ardor in urging every measure which looks towards the ultimate independence of these unfortunate islands. The time for recrimination has passed, and the time for repairing a situation rashly incurred has come. All moderate men recognize this fact, and the talk of never hauling down the flag is no longer heard. Towards this constructive work for the Philippines none may more justly contribute than those who have opposed the Government's policy in the past.

The figures just published by the Comptroller of the Currency concerning the organization of national banks under the act of March 14, 1900, will probably be read by certain "currency reformers" with some surprise. Those who spoke of the law as "a very wise measure politically" may not be disappointed, since their object seems to have been merely the passage of some legislation that would stop the mouths of those who were clamoring for action. But there are others who were too overjoyed with the real gain in Treasury methods made by the act to look very narrowly into its sections on banking. They contented themselves with vaguely expecting great results from the provisions regarding small banks and the increase of circulation to the par value of deposited bonds; and they waved aside all protests as the words of those who were seeking better bread than could be made of wheat. To those who thus mildly hoped for the best, the new figures will be something of a shock. True, they are produced with a triumphant air, but no flourish of trumpets can conceal the fact that the law has been a great disappointment in its operation. Since the passage of the act, more than eighteen months have elapsed—a time quite long enough to show what its permanent results are likely to be. And the number of small banks organized has been so great as at first blush to give some color to the claims of success made for the measure. Of 715 new institutions, 486, or more than two-thirds, have capitals of less than $50,000, and among these the 68 that were formerly State institutions of low capitalization. These figures would seem to show not merely that the needs of small towns were being met, but also that the national system had become more attractive to bankers.

Plausible as these inferences appear to be, their inaccuracy is apparent when we turn to consider the figures for circulation and distribution of the banks. It is true that the total circulation of the national banks of the country has been largely added to, increasing by fully 40 per cent. since March 14, 1900. Instead of $254,402,730, it is now $358,830,547. But no conclusions based upon the mere gross increase of circulation can be accepted, though it is their acceptance that is blinding the eyes of bankers and others to the failure of the act and to the need for further legislation. The important fact is that the 715 new institutions have issued only 29 per cent. of the maximum notes to which they may become entitled by the terms of the new law. This is little more than would have been taken out in any event under the bond-deposit requirement. It shows absolutely no increase in the elasticity of the circulation, nor are there other facts in the situation to modify this conclusion. In short, so far as the act of 1900 aimed at flexibility in the currency, it has been a total failure.

In one of his speeches on Saturday last, Justice Jerome alluded to the letter of William C. Whitney in support of Mr. Shepard, and called attention at the same time to the remarkable kindness of Tammany Hall to the Metropolitan street railway. In connection with Mr. Jerome's remarks, attention should be directed to the strange coincidence between Mr. Whitney's letter and the granting of the Elm Street franchise to the Metropolitan Railway Company by the Municipal Assembly. It should be remarked that Elm Street is the only north and south thoroughfare not already controlled by the Metropolitan Company. Its value as a means of shutting out future competition is greater to the latter company than its value as a thoroughfare, since it is the only unoccupied street which could be so used. The franchise ordinance had been "hung up" in the Municipal Assembly for several months, evidently because the Metropolitan Company and Tammany were, for the time being, at odds about something. On Monday week the ordinance was "put through" the Assembly, and on the next day Mr. Whitney wrote a letter in which he said:

"Yes, I am for Mr. Shepard. I have been pretty independent lately, like a great many others. As I retired from politics years ago, my opinions now are only of individual interest. No one, in my opinion, can read Mr. Shepard's Tammany Hall speech and avoid the conviction that a man of rare capacity and breadth of view has arisen to claim public attention. It will be hailed all over the country, in my opinion, by the Democrats as marking the advent of a man capable of the highest order of political leadership."

It could not be considered an unusual thing for a well-known Democrat like Mr. Whitney to "come out" for Mr. Shepard. Many others have done so who have no dealings with franchises for street railways. Yet it is queer that the coming out for Shepard and the coming out of the Elm Street ordinance should have been simultaneous. The coincidence may be explained, if we assume that there has been a movement on foot to reorganize the Democratic party in the State in opposition to Crokerism—something like the Sheehan movement, for example. It is supposable that the Metropolitan Railway was tired of paying blackmail to Tammany, or was inclined to "kick" at the amount levied, and that Mr. Whitney, an influential Democratic leader, was quietly pushing the Sheehan movement without committing himself to it irrevocably, so that it was worth while for Croker to do something for his company—at the expense of the city of New York, of course. If the Elm Street franchise were the consideration for such a trade, the reconciliation might be explained, or half explained. If any further explanation were wanted, it might be found in some remarks made by Mr. Vreeland, the President of the Metropolitan Company, to a convention of railway accountants in this city, a couple of weeks ago, which were published in the New York *Times*, thus:

"There are certain items in your accounts, gentlemen, which, when carried on your books, look very well from the standpoint of a street-railway accountant. But they might be better left out, as they would be hard for the President of the road to get around if called upon before certain public bodies to explain what they meant."

Examination of the text of the tax decision rendered by the Illinois Supreme Court last Thursday does not in all respects warrant the extreme inferences drawn from that ruling at the start. The gist of the matter appears to be as follows: Under existing law, the State Board of Equalization is required "to value and assess against every corporation the fair cash value of the capital stock, including the franchises, over and above the assessed value of the tangible property" of such corporations. How to estimate this "fair cash value" has been a question of some perplexity in Illinois, as it has been in New York State since the Ford Law of 1899, for purposes of taxation, classed corporate franchises as real estate. During many years it would appear that stock-market valuations have been used in Illinois as the general basis of valuation, and that both stock and bonds have been included in levying the tax on capital. A year ago the Board adopted a new set of rules for assessment, by virtue of which they omitted corporation indebtedness from the tax assessment, following this move by fixing a low ratio of assessment on the stock. The matter was carried into the lower courts by citizens, who obtained last May a mandamus requiring adequate assessment of the franchises. This judgment the highest court, before whom the case came on appeal, has now affirmed.

The most interesting part of its decision is that in which the judgment of the lower court is thus confirmed:

"In arriving at such valuation and assessments of the capital stock, including the franchises, of said companies hereinbefore named, said Board, and each member thereof, shall, from the best informa-

tion obtainable by it and them, ascertain and take into consideration, among other things, as to each corporation as the same was on the first day of April, 1900, the market value, or if no market value, then the fair cash value, of its shares of stock, and the total amount of all its indebtedness except the indebtedness for current expenses, excluding from such expenses the amount paid for the purchase or the improvement of property of said corporations."

The inference rather generally drawn is that this decision will require assessment of corporation franchises by the total stock-market valuation of their stocks and bonds on the day of assessment. Such a procedure would involve so much of injustice that whereas real estate is commonly assessed at a fractional part—usually about two-thirds—of its market valuation, corporate enterprises would be assessed at the full 100 per cent. We are unable to see, however, that the court makes any such arbitrary stipulation.

The accountants' estimates of the probable financial outcome of the Pan-American Exposition may be somewhat discouraging to promoters of similar undertakings in the future. The total loss, it is calculated, will exceed $4,000,000. Not only will the $2,500,000 contributed by stockholders be a total loss, but the contractors will suffer to the extent of $1,000,000, and 20 per cent. of the first-mortgage bonds, as well as the whole of the second-mortgage, will be defaulted. The determination of the contractors to push their claims before the courts, notwithstanding that the provisions of the act incorporating the stockholders specifically exempt them from liability, gives promise that the closing of the Exposition may be succeeded by a long period of litigation. Almost from the very outset the Buffalo Exposition has had to struggle against circumstance. Not only was the railway situation such as practically to prevent the giving of low excursion rates through the summer, but the Fair has had to suffer from various causes which could never have been foreseen. The failure of several Buffalo banks disturbed business, and indirectly injured the prospect of a large attendance, while the methods employed by some institutions in pushing the Exposition securities before the public had an exceedingly injurious effect upon their standing. Worst of all, the assassination of Mr. McKinley not only destroyed the chance of increased profit from the President's visit, but necessitated closing the gates for some days, and, besides, undoubtedly deterred many from visiting Buffalo in the latter part of September and during October.

Gen. Buller's dismissal from the command of the First British Army Corps, after his characteristically stubborn refusal to resign, is the first evidence that the War Office is beginning to take notice of the popular outcry against its mismanagement of the South African campaign. That this action required no small courage in view of Gen. Buller's enormous social influence, is undoubtedly true. It remains to be seen whether it means that a determined effort will now be made to free the War Office from all social entanglements. In its issue of October 12, the *Broad Arrow* cites a case of rank favoritism such as might have been attributable to Alger himself. Two men, one a civilian, "lately a private in the Imperial Yeomanry," the other a militia lieutenant, have been made captains in two of the best dragoon regiments in the army—over the heads, of course, of all the subalterns now in service. As long as this method of doing things prevails, whether in the selection of captains or of army corps commanders, it is idle to expect that the British Army will be an efficient military machine. The selection of Gen. French as Gen. Buller's successor will undoubtedly prove extremely popular, since his conduct has been second to none in South Africa for gallantry and good judgment. In his appointment, at least, the War Office has redeemed its promise to appoint only capable men to the command of the army corps. This it violated when it appointed Gen. Buller.

The latest news from Paris gives ground for hope that the mining troubles in the Montceau-les-Mines district of France may be averted, thanks to the firm measures employed to repress them. It will be remembered that at the Sens Labor Congress, held some months ago, it was agreed to initiate two general strikes in case the demands of the miners were not granted. The first of these strikes, which was to have been undertaken May 1, was given up because of the unfavorable outcome of the miners' referendum vote, which declared against it. This failure rendered the second, which was to occur on November 1, still more threatening; and the fact that the demands of the miners coincided with certain bills introduced by the Socialists in the Chamber, gave a political cast to the proposed strike. The main demands were the eight-hour day and the institution of a system of old-age pensions, to be provided for by the use of the property of the religious houses. These bills were voted down by the Chamber the other day, and the repulse for the moment added new danger to the outlook. The action of the Government on October 23, in warning each member of the Miners' Committee that he would be liable to death for inciting civil war in case the strike should occur, is as courageous as it is unprecedented.

After having acceded to the Emperor's wishes in regard to the tramway across Unter den Linden, the Berlin Municipal Council has again shown its courage by declining to hold a fresh election for Second Burgomaster. It stubbornly holds to its view that the President of the Province of Brandenburg is legally bound to submit the reëlection of Herr Kaufmann to the Emperor. Its refusal to put him aside, since there is no just reason for doing so, will still further embitter the relations between the head of the state and his capital. A more tactful ruler than the Emperor would see the advantages to be gained by letting the citizens have their own way once in a while, and by not exercising all the powers which he claims. How great these powers are, may be seen fro mthe fact that not a paving-stone may be removed without his sanction. No school-house, engine-house, or public hall can be erected without his permission. He once stopped the work on a cemetery gate because the plan had not been submitted to him in person, while the construction of a monument to firemen was recently delayed for the same reason. Moreover, the chief magistrate of Berlin has not the right to audiences with the Emperor, all urban matters being submitted to the latter by the Chief of Police. This official is accountable, not to the citizens, but to the Ministry, and can be removed at the pleasure of the Emperor. He is naturally less fitted to present the needs of the city than is its actual head.

The meeting held on Thursday in Vienna under the auspices of the Association of Austrian Manufacturers revived the discussion of the "American peril" in good earnest. The threatening difficulties between Austria and Germany, due to the pending German tariff bill, were lost sight of in the general dread of American competition, and in the fear that what has already happened in the contest between American and European agriculturists will be repeated in the case of coal and other crude products, and later in that of manufactured goods. Most of the speakers conceded that the outcry for protection to Continental agriculturists had been ineffectual, and that the campaign against American cereals was practically lost. On this ground the grain duties of the new German tariff were condemned as reactionary. It was curious, therefore, that the remedy which had proved ineffectual with cereals should have been unanimously urged with increased force as a bulwark against American manufactured goods, viz., that each European country should endeavor to preserve its home market for its own producers, and that reciprocity arrangements should take the place of the "most-favored-nation" provisions in the commercial systems of the different countries. The scheme for tariff barriers was to be completed by agreement for mutual protection against America.

THE PAN-AMERICAN CONGRESS.

One way of regarding the Pan-American Congress, now formally opened in the City of Mexico, is as a terrible bogey. It was, in fact, dangled before the bulging eyes of manufacturers in Vienna on Thursday as an imminent part of the awful "American Peril." If American competition is already so severe, what will it be when a Pan-American customs union is arranged? If that is all the Europeans are afraid of, they may rest in peace. Even a cautious little approach to a tariff agreement with Argentina has not been able to run the gauntlet of the Senate, and now, it is announced, that very moderate measure of reciprocity is to be "dropped" in order to placate the wool-growers. We may be sure that the sugar-growers and the tobacco-growers and the hide-producers will be equally in need of conciliation when it comes to allowing South American exports to poach upon their tariff preserves. It is certain that there will not be in Mexico even as much talk about a customs union as there was in Washington ten years ago.

The other way of thinking of the Congress is as a great bore. Nothing practical has ever come out of such gatherings, from the unlucky Congress of Panama down; so why go on holding them merely for the sake of letting loose new floods of unmeaning gush? For this cynical view there is, it must be confessed, some justification. The Pan-American Congress of 1890-91 opened and closed in a great wash of sentiment. Platonic effusiveness almost ran into tears. But when the waters subsided, nothing tangible was discovered standing. The projects for an international bank and an intercontinental railway, for assimilated tariffs and assimilated coinage, were all swept away, and nothing remained but a halting treaty of arbitration, which our own Senate promptly proceeded to send to the tomb of the Capulets.

How expert the South Americans are in the art of elaborate compliment and protestation, really meaning nothing thereby, is shown again by the inaugural speeches at Mexico. Once more we are asked to behold Washington as "the Saxon father," and Bolivar as "the Latin father," extending hands of benediction over the heads of the two blushing and happy continents. Try as they will, our delegates cannot beat the representatives of the southern republics at that sort of thing. But if we ask, in a spirit of political realism, what is the actual attitude—the actual hopes and fears—of South America towards the United States, and what the real wishes and expectations of this country, as it stands facing the nations to the south, we shall have to recognize a few plain if not wholly pleasant facts.

The South Americans are moved only by self-interest. That is natural and right. So are we. Nor are they under any illusions about the United States. The big-brother theory does not impose upon them for an instant. In matters of high politics they have been and are perfectly willing to appeal to and profit by the good offices of this county. Venezuela did it in 1895; the young Brazilian republic did it in 1890-91. But they know perfectly well that our protecting attitude towards them, as against Europe, is simply that of a "contemptuous guardianship," to use the happy phrase of an English writer. They do not suspect us of any immediate ulterior designs, but they know that we have little in common with them, and that we do not consider them our equals in culture or religion or government. And it cannot be doubted by any one who has kept track of the recent trend of South American opinion, that the old lack of confidence in the unselfishness of the United States has been deepened by the events of the past three years. It was inevitable that our war with Spain should have given the Monroe Doctrine a sinister interpretation in the eyes of the South Americans, and led them to entertain a new suspicion of the purity of our motives when we assert again, as we did so devoutly before the Spanish war, that we seek no territory, and disclaim all thought of aggrandizement, at the expense of our neighbors.

The net result cannot but be to make the South Americans exceedingly watchful, while perfectly friendly and polite, in the Congress at Mexico. It will doubtless be some weeks before any important measure is brought up in the general body for debate; all such matters will first be carefully considered in committee. But in all the discussions, private as well as public, it is safe to say that the delegates from below the Rio Grande will steadily and sturdily maintain the interests of their respective republics, and will never dream of yielding, in an expansive moment, any advantage to the United States. American capital they will undoubtedly welcome in the development of their natural resources, but it must run its own risks. American trade they will not oppose, provided Americans do not oppose *their* trade. But any surrender of control over their own tariffs, their own laws and customs, or any abatement of that national sovereignty which they so jealously assert, it is perfectly clear that they will never contemplate.

All this is not to say that we consider the calling of the Congress a mistake, or that we think it foredoomed to failure. No grandiose programme, such as Mr. Blaine sketched in 1890, can be carried out; but very useful, if more modest, purposes can easily be subserved by the Congress. It should promote real friendliness between North and South America. Our delegates will have won a sufficient triumph if, under the sagacious promptings of Secretary Hay, they so bear themselves as to reassure the suspicious South Americans, and convince them that we are now so conscious of undigested empire in our stomachs that we have no desire to swallow more for long years to come. Then there may be some practical achievements in the way of revising the treaty of arbitration; of strengthening the existing treaties of extradition, and doing something in a concerted way to check the passage to and fro of anarchists; as of assimilating postal systems, extending sanitation, and facilitating the interchange of ideas. By not undertaking too much, the Congress may accomplish a great deal, in the ways mentioned, and in others of the non-Jingo sort, so as fully to justify its convening. We should neither be afraid of it nor be disgusted at it, but should look at it as one of the rather cumbrous instruments necessary for political man in order to do a little good.

LESSON OF THE CZOLGOSZ TRIAL.

Before the memory of the wretched Czolgosz rots with his body, it behooves the American people, and especially citizens of New York, to lay to heart the true lesson of his trial and punishment. The vindication of justice in his person has been in every way creditable to the bench and bar of this State. He was swiftly brought to trial. His prosecution was pushed without clamor or malice; the solemn duty of seeing that he enjoyed all his legal rights was undertaken by two members of the Buffalo bar of the highest standing; there was no unseemly wrangling in court; the condemned man was held in close confinement and executed without any sensational display. The whole affair shows what justice is when it is most impressive. It is as if the law, embodied in its sworn ministers in New York, had lifted the sword without passion, and let it fall with the sure and undelayed stroke necessary to make the process of the courts appear dignified, impartial, and as just and unescapable as the finger of God.

From that admirable instance of the march of justice in New York, turn to the chaotic exhibition of courts at cross purposes, and the tricky employment of technicalities to stay the punishment of public criminals, which we have seen going on in this State almost at the same time. Czolgosz died within six weeks of his victim; but Bissert was convicted only to have his sentence indefinitely stayed; Diamond was indicted only to have his trial delayed and transferred; Scannell gets off for the present on a technicality; Glennon's case is held up on some preliminary plea which a judge is supposed to have been passing upon for many weeks. Why the difference? Do the lawyers in Buffalo know nothing about

the artifices of criminal defence? Could they not travel the State over to get a stay, as Bissert's lawyers did; take an appeal simply for the purpose of delay, or contrive to throw Czolgosz's case into the Federal courts? A New Jersey murderer was kept from the gallows for two years after conviction by successive appeals to the Supreme Court of the United States. One from the State of Washington waited for punishment eight years after his crime. A St. Louis murderer was convicted in 1875; his conviction was upheld in repeated decisions by the Supreme Court of Missouri, but in 1882 was declared invalid by the Supreme Court of the United States.

Such miscarriages of justice are, unhappily, getting to be the rule in the United States. The Czolgosz trial was an exception. Our general looseness and slackness in criminal procedure are undoubtedly on the increase, as Mr. J. H. Webb asserts in his review of the changes of two centuries in American criminal law, and tend, as he confesses, to "encourage a contempt for the law." And the *American Law Review*, speaking of the lamentable practice of indefinitely postponing the punishment of notorious criminals, by an abuse of the right of appeal, said that some of the processes of our courts would "provoke laughter and derision" if they were recounted to an English lawyer, trained in the common law.

It is obvious that it was not the state of the law, but the state of public opinion, which prevented, in the case of Czolgosz, any of the grievous delays and thwartings of justice which we see on every hand. His lawyers could, but would not, dared not, apply for stays and certificates and changes of venue. Judges could, but would not, dared not, stay the execution of sentence upon the President's assassin. His case, too, might have been taken, as Bissert's was, by transparent jugglery, into the Federal courts. Why was none of these things done? Because an alert, a vigilant, a jealous public opinion was behind the trial and behind the court. The people wanted only justice on a miscreant, but they wanted it, wanted it speedily and surely. They got it; and it is safe to say that if an equally aroused and watchful public opinion pressed upon all our courts at all times, we should not see justice baffled so often as we do. The Buffalo bar, with a fine sense of its own responsibility, secured the appointment of two ex-judges as counsel for Czolgosz. If the New York bar were as sensitive concerning its own reputation, it would in similar ways bring its influence to bear to make the process of our courts in this city more orderly and less scandalous. By suitable action the bar could make it impossible for a lawyer to undertake such legal chicanery as was practised in the Bissert case, and still retain an honorable standing among his brethren.

We are not arguing for a restriction of the right of appeal. That subject was debated before the American Bar Association a few years ago, and although a Justice of the Supreme Court urged a limitation of appeals in criminal cases, the prevailing sentiment was that they should not be substantially abridged. There is, however, reason in the demand that the laws of this State should be so amended as to put an end to abuses like those we have had to witness this year in the Bissert case. If a judge 400 miles from New York is not restrained by propriety, he ought to be by statute, from interfering with the orderly processes of the courts in the county of New York. If the law permits such an anomaly as the transfer of the trial of an indicted captain of the New York police to Albany, then the law ought to be changed, unless it wishes to be regarded as "a ass." This whole subject is one which might worthily engage the attention of so practical a Governor as Mr. Odell. We hope that he will recommend to the Legislature such amendments of the code of procedure as may be needful to prevent New York justice from being brought into contempt. Who can deny that both the punitive and the deterrent effects of the execution of Czolgosz illustrate the real intent of the law, just as the delays, the impediments, the legal sparring for time, resorted to by the Tammany lawyers in behalf of their imperilled scoundrels, represent a perversion and defeat of the will of the people as expressed in the criminal code? We must amend our laws when necessary, and so far as feasible; but we must amend our manners, too, and create about bench and bar alike such an atmosphere of public opinion, itself charged with the true spirit of justice, as shall make a trial like that of Czolgosz the normal thing, instead of, as now, only a shining exception.

GROWTH OF THE NEGRO POPULATION.

It has long been known that the negro population of the country was imperfectly enumerated in 1870. It now appears that the census of 1890 was defective in the same respect, although to a less degree. According to the official reports, the number of persons of African descent in the United States, exclusive of Alaska, Hawaii, the Indian Territory, and the Indian reservations, at each of the last four censuses, with the increase during each decade, and the percentage of that increase, was as follows:

Census.	Negro population.	Increase during decade.	Percentage of increase.
1860	4,441,830	803,022	22.07
1870	4,880,009	438,179	9.86
1880	6,580,793	1,700,784	34.85
1890	7,470,040	889,247	13.51
1900	8,803,535	1,333,495	17.85

It is obvious that some of the above figures cannot represent the actual facts. If between 1880 and 1890 the negro population increased at the rate of only 13¼ per cent., it is hard to believe that between 1890 and 1900 the gain was at the rate of more than 17¾ per cent.

Because of their heavy death-rate, the natural increase among the negroes living in cities must be small. In the decade from 1890 to 1900 a somewhat larger proportion of the entire negro population of the country dwelt in cities than was the case between 1880 and 1890. During most of the period between the taking of the eleventh and twelfth censuses times were hard in the South, as elsewhere. Unfavorable economic conditions have their effect upon the increase of even so improvident a race as the negro. It may, therefore, be assumed as reasonably certain that the percentage of negro increase was greater between 1880 and 1890 than it was between 1890 and 1900, instead of smaller, as the census represents it to have been. There can be little question that the error is to be found in the census of 1890. The omissions in it were by no means so great as those which impaired the accuracy of the enumeration of 1870, but they were sufficiently serious.

The Census Act of 1890, and the schedules framed in accordance with it, required the enumerators to ask a great many more questions than had ever been put before. To some of these questions, such as whether a person wholly or partially of African descent was a negro, mulatto, quadroon, or octoroon, it was difficult or impossible to obtain a correct answer, or indeed to obtain any answer at all. The persons inquired of simply did not know what the proportion of white blood in their veins was, and therefore could not tell. There were other questions, such as those which inquired whether any member of the family had suffered during the census year from any chronic or acute disease, which few people liked to answer, and which many people made up their minds they would not answer. The knowledge that such questions were to be asked made the census enumerators' visits very unwelcome ones to many families. At the time the census was taken, partisan feeling, especially in the South, ran high, for the Force Bill was then pending in Congress. All of these circumstances combined to make the work of the enumerators hard. Where they did it conscientiously, they were very imperfectly paid for it. The rates of compensation were based upon the experience of the census of 1880; but in 1880 the enumerators could do at least 50 per cent. more work in the same time. An enumerator who was not of high character was strongly tempted to omit the enumeration of outlying families in his district, or of families the

information concerning which he could not obtain on his first visit. The omissions were the most serious where the character of the enumerators was the lowest. That is to say, under the conditions which then prevailed, the most imperfect census was likely to be taken in the Black Belts of the South. It is for this reason that while there were omissions in the count of both races, relatively more negroes escaped enumeration than whites.

The following table shows the white population at each census beginning with that of 1860, and also the gross increase of the white population during the decade as given in the census returns. It shows further the total immigration during the decade, and the difference between the total increase and the total immigration, which difference is assumed to be the natural increase. The last column shows the percentage of natural increase for each decade as thus determined:

	White.	Increase.	Immigration.	Natural Increase.	Percentage of Natural Increase.
1860	26,922,537				
1870	33.589,377	6,666,840	2.314,824	4,352,016	16.16
1880	43,402,970	9,813,593	2,812,191	7,001.402	20.84
1890	54,983,890	11,580,920	5,246,613	6.334.307	14.59
1900	66,590,725	11.606.835	3,687,564	7,919.271	14.44

The figures for immigration are not always complete, and there are no statistics which show with any approach to accuracy the emigration from the country. Nevertheless, in a rough way the conclusions deducible from the above table may be accepted as at least approximately correct. The table indicates that the rate of natural increase was substantially the same between 1890 and 1900 as it was between 1880 and 1890. It is not probable that this was true. The great business depression extending from 1893 to 1897, the continued concentration of the population in cities, and the lowering of the birth-rate among the native population, must have more than offset whatever diminution in the death-rate resulted from improved sanitation.

The rate of increase between 1880 and 1890 was therefore probably somewhat greater, and that between 1890 and 1900 was somewhat smaller than the census figures would indicate. There seems no reason to doubt that the census of 1880 and the census of 1900 were well taken. Assuming their accuracy, it appears that, during these twenty years, the negro population of the country increased at the rate of 33.77 per cent. Substantially all of this was due to natural increase. During the same period the rate of natural increase among the white population was 32.84 per cent. That is to say, taking the country as a whole, during the last twenty years the net excess of the birth-rate over the death-rate has been substantially the same for the two races. Whatever difference there has been has been in favor of the negroes.

"DISINTEGRATING" TAMMANY.

Mr. Shepard showed in his speech on Wednesday week that Mr. Schurz had touched him on the raw by challenging his contention that it would not be his duty as an honest Mayor to attack Tammany Hall. He attempted to make a shadowy distinction or two between the "unfit" Tammany Commissioners and those of the angel breed, but in general reasserted his former position. This is, that it is not for the Mayor of New York to "disintegrate and destroy the ancient institution known as Tammany Hall." But we maintain that Mr. Shepard, in taking that ground, is palpably confusing both facts and morals.

The first reason he gives for refusing to promise his official antagonism to Tammany is that his sole business as Mayor would be to attend to the welfare of the city. He must keep his eye upon bridges and tunnels and paving; must busy himself about rapid transit and municipal finance; must take long looks ahead, and think of the beautiful and powerful city that is to be. How absurd to suppose that he must divert his attention from these great concerns in order to make war upon "a certain political organization"! We are but quoting Mr. Shepard's language—almost his precise words. But an open fallacy lies in his argument. The general welfare of the city? No Mayor who labors for that can avoid making war upon its deadliest foe —Tammany Hall. Mr. Shepard is fond of legal citations, and we ask him to note what is said in the charter about the duty of the Mayor to "keep himself informed of the doings of the several departments," and to be "vigilant and active in causing the ordinances of the city and laws of the State to be executed and enforced." What we assert is, that no Mayor can obey the law without being hostile to Tammany Hall.

It is not necessary to argue the case —least of all with Mr. Shepard, for he has put into words as biting as those uttered by any speaker or newspaper his own arraignment of Tammany Hall and its insolent boss as defiers of the law and corrupters of morals. It is, therefore, preposterous for him to contend that he will have to be so solicitous of the city's highest good that he cannot fight the power that is sapping the city's very life. Such an attitude is really no different from that of a shepherd who should think he could properly care for his sheep without beating off the wolves. Wolf Croker has his fangs in the city's throat, yet Mr. Shepard is able blandly to argue that his earnest devotion to the city forbids him to pay any attention to the wolf!

His second line of defence is that, even if he wanted to, he could not destroy Tammany Hall. It is so "ancient," so "anchored in the hearts of the people"; and, after every defeat, it "has come back into power stronger than ever." This excuse, however, would be good as against any form of vice or crime, or "the eternal devil" himself. There always has been brigandage, so why try to rescue Miss Stone and punish her kidnappers? They will only be more powerful than ever. Burglars, garroters, embezzlers, card sharpers, procurers are of lineage fully as ancient and as honorable as Tammany Hall, and the silly reformers and officers of the law who try to put them down should learn from Mr. Shepard that their efforts will surely be in vain. Has vice, then, vested rights? If an evil has but flourished long enough to become inveterate, does it thereby become immune? Why did not Mr. Shepard put this strange new philosophy of his into practice when he was fighting John Y. McKane? He might have said then, with as good a face as he urges his apologies for Tammany now, "Ballot-box stuffing is a very ancient practice. Fraudulent elections are at least a hundred years old. Political bosses have been rapacious and defiant since the memory of man runneth not to the contrary. So what is the use of trying to attack crime made venerable with age?" Mr. Shepard did not say that, and what he did was to fling himself into the fight against McKane, nor did he rest until that convicted felon went to his cell in Sing Sing. Mr. Shepard was able then to take his eye off the "city" long enough to catch a rogue.

What he is really confounding now is the existence of a political party with that of a corrupt organization claiming shelter within the party. It is the party that is the "ancient" institution; the Tammany fungus has had to be cut from it again and again. The triumph of Tammany may coincide with the victory of the Democratic party, or it may synchronize with and hasten its defeat. In 1884 Tammany was beaten in the National Convention, beaten in the State, beaten in the city; yet when did the Democratic party ever more gloriously succeed? Tammany has steadily won victories in the very years when the Democratic party in State and nation was sinking into its lowest estate. Yet it is the fluctuating succession of corrupt Tammany bosses, from Isaiah Rynders to Richard Croker, that Mr. Shepard is now willing to identify with the life and principles of the Democratic party.

There is such a thing as disintegrating Tammany Hall, and also such a thing as "integrating" it. We have before expressed, and we do not mean now to retract, our confidence in Mr. Shepard's personal sincerity; but we have frankly to tell him that his greatest peril is that of adding his honored name to the list of respectable men whom Tammany has turned to in a desperate emergency, and whom, after using, it has contemptuously thrown aside as a "squeezed lemon," in Mr. Schurz's phrase. Mr. Shepard does not think he can destroy Tammany;

but is he willing to strengthen it, and make it a more baleful power than ever? Does he wish to have it said of him that, when Tammany's corrupt and licentious régime was in a way to be overthrown by peaceful and legal measures, he set himself to prolong it to a pass which elsewhere has evoked a Vigilance Committee?

BLOOD-MONEY.

"It does not smell" is what extortioners and murderers have traditionally and defiantly said of the money which came to them through oppression and crime. But the money with which Richard Croker is now attempting to debauch New York, and keep a proud city under his heel, does smell. It smells of blood. Croker is in ample funds for his desperate campaign. On every side he is pouring out money as if from an inexhaustible store. No campaign expense is too large for him; none is too small for him to overlook. He has frankly set out to buy the election. But the money that he pays out has blood upon it.

"Where did you get it?" is an inquiry which Croker regards (when directed to the sources of his personal wealth) as an intrusion upon his "private business." But it is public business in which he is now engaged—the outlay of hundreds of thousands of dollars to corrupt the franchise and to fasten his chains upon our necks. Even the Roman satirist who comforted the monster of avarice by telling him that no man would ask him whence his ill-gotten gains came, did not go so far as to imagine a Croker flinging his bribes about lavishly to degrade a great city, and claiming immunity when asked who put the money in his purse. With Tammany acting as if it were Prince Fortunatus, New York has a right to know where the vast sums come from that are being used for its shame and subjugation; and the more reckless Croker is in announcing his ability to purchase voters as he does dogs and horses, the more pressing is the duty of looking to the mint in which he coins his gold.

Let us put aside the levies which he wrings from his office-holders. They yield to him as they would to a highwayman, loathing him, as many of them do, even while they fear him. These forced contributions from men whose salaries should be wholly their own, though earned in the public service, are an old crying scandal of our politics; and we shall not affirm that Croker is a greater sinner in this respect (except as his opportunity has been greater) than his brother-boss of the Republican party. But what of the bills that come to Croker's hands stained with the life-blood of women and damp with the death-dews of young men? That is the fearful thing about Croker's swollen campaign fund. Much of it represents the price of blood. It is money paid to him for the past privilege of making barter of womanhood, and in the hope of being granted immunity in the future for luring thousands of the city's youth to ruin. It is to Richard Croker that every keeper of a brothel, every pander, every trafficker in woman's honor, every ruffianly betrayer or kidnapper of ignorant and helpless girls, every gambler and sharper and crook and cheat who can beg or steal a dollar is turning it over in order to help prolong his and their reign of infamy in this city. From such tainted sources no single penny is given to promote the campaign of Mr. Low. The money used to further the Fusion ticket is clean. It does not, as so much of Croker's fund does, reek of the pit.

In another way is the Tammany treasury a second Aceldama—a field of blood. It is being drawn upon to perpetuate the conditions in this city which make against the safety of human life. The money paid out to elect the Tammany ticket is as if invested for the direct purpose of taking thousands of lives. "Murder" is what Mr. Jacob Riis bluntly calls the Tammany policy of so administering the city as to let children stifle in foul and illegal tenements, and to put the Health Department in possession of a district leader, with the result of allowing an epidemic of smallpox to overrun the community. Here is something for those great corporations to think of that are so busily engaged these days in making "checks payable to Richard Croker." They may think that they are but submitting to blackmail; or, at the worst, that they are cynically giving a bribe. But they are doing other and far worse than that. They are paying money to strangle children, to destroy women, to entrap the feet of young men in the ways of death, to make life more wretched and base for thousands in this city. Therefore, their money, too, smells of blood; and they are doing their best, these heads of great businesses, these directors of large affairs, who finance Richard Croker as they would a mine or railway—they are doing their best to have New York

"——taught what conquered cities feel
By ædiles chosen that they might safely steal."

And what of the indirect responsibility of men who, with no matter what high professions and honorable intentions, allow themselves to profit politically by the blood-money at Croker's disposal? We shall only say that it is a fearful responsibility; and that one further respect in which Mr. Shepard failed at the very beginning of his plan to work through Tammany, was in not seeing to it that the money contributed for his election should be unstained by innocent blood. As it is, he has to sit silent while clergymen tell him, as so many did on Sunday, that he has made himself the candidate of the vilest elements in New York, who are trying to elect him by the vilest means. The Scriptures have terrible things to say of deliberate and open wickedness, but their hottest scorn is reserved for the man who consents with a thief and is "a partaker with adulterers."

RECENT EXCAVATION OF THE TEMPLE OF AEGINA.

ATHENS, October 12, 1901.

Incontestably one of the most important events of the current year in the world of art and archæology is the excavation of the well-known temple of Aegina by Professor Furtwängler during the spring and summer. It had long been felt that the excavations made in and around this temple in 1811, which brought to light the famous gable groups long known and much discussed under the name of the Aeginetan marbles, could not be regarded as definitive. After some slight work done by the Greek Archæological Society in 1893, it was much mooted who should undertake the final excavation. Two considerations made it most fitting that this privilege finally fell to Professor Furtwängler—the general consideration that it would be difficult to find another man who possesses such a comprehensive and minute knowledge of all the remains of ancient Greece, and the particular consideration that he is the Director of the museum in Munich where the statues found in 1811 are lodged, and has recently made from the lumber-room of the museum certain important additions to the two groups.

Of course it was his especial desire and hope to find more statues or fragments which should bring the two groups nearer to completion; but no one understood better than he that there was only one way to secure this result, and this was the thorough clearing of the temple and the area adjacent to it. This is the modern method of excavation. The method of Cockerell and his associates was like fishing in turbid water, while Furtwängler's process was an application of the drag-net which nothing could escape. A striking example of the thoroughness of his process is the fact that six heads, five of which *may* belong to the gable groups (although this, with becoming prudence, is left undecided in the provisional report which has just appeared), were found at the bottom of a deep cistern near the east front of the temple, into which the rain water from the roof was conducted through an aperture in the pavement of the esplanade in front of the temple. Before reaching the cistern, the water had to fall through a rather spacious cave, in the rock floor of which the cistern was cut. It is an interesting fact that the excavators of 1811 had their quarters in this very cave, which at that time had an opening to the north, subsequently closed by accumulation of débris. Cockerell did not think to let down his line under his own bed, where Furtwängler's drag-net secured the prize. Whatever may be the final adjustment of the five heads just mentioned, it is practically certain that two other heads found in the propylon of the temple precinct belonged, one to the east gable and the other to the west. No one can doubt that Professor Furtwängler would like

to be able to take off some of the heads of the figures in the Munich Museum that were put upon them by the skilful hand of Thorwaldsen, and put in their place the heads just discovered. Athenian gossip has it that an expression of this most natural desire was met by the Greek authorities by a request for the return of the groups now in Munich. Whether request and counter-request have ever been expressed is more than doubtful, and at any rate there is no likelihood that any of these recently discovered heads will ever leave the Athenian Museum, where they now lie. Greece will henceforth remain the jealous custodian of the treasures which she knows how to appreciate.

But to return to the excavations themselves, which I visited two days ago. They have one great charm, viz., that they performed a limited task which it was possible after a few months to present to the world as a finished piece of work. Besides the completely cleared floor of the temple, which makes the interior arrangement plainer than before, the foundation has been cleared down to bed rock. The propylon, the great altar, and several adjacent buildings have been excavated with a care which not only brings its own reward, but has yielded a considerable quantity of small finds from Mycenæan times down well into the fifth century. Into the details of any of these matters I will not go; but there is one most interesting result of the work which cannot be passed by. The temple has, to the surprise of the world, changed its name. The world has for more than half a century regarded nothing as more certain than that this was the Temple of Athena, and has sometimes smiled at the reappearance now and again of the name, "Temple of Jupiter Panhellenius," in certain books which thereby took on an antiquated appearance. It leaked out long ago that this name went out into all the world in consequence of a very shallow fraud practised by some of the younger and more frisky members of the excavation party of 1811 upon some of the more venerable members, which consisted in cutting the words Διὶ Πανελληνίῳ on a block of the cornice to the cella—an impossible place for the name of a temple to be actually cut, to say nothing of the fact that the cutting was done in a ridiculously superficial manner and with no expectation of deceiving. When, however, the fraud had deceived the venerable authorities and had passed along through Europe, the perpetrators of it had not the courage to expose it; but, for the last fifty years, it has been generally understood. The story has been told by Ross in his 'Archaeologische Aufsätze, I., p. 241 ff., and elsewhere.

All books published in late years have called the temple the Temple of Athena. Not only is Athena the central figure in both gable groups, but in the church of St. Athanasius, not so very far from the temple, was seen a lintel block bearing the ancient inscription ὅρος τεμένους Ἀθηναίας. Then another stone was found with the same inscription, "a little farther off," Ross says. It is true that voices were from time to time raised against the validity of these grounds for the name. Prof. Paul Wolters, in the *Mittheilungen des Deutschen Archaeologischen Instituts in Athen*, 1889 (p. 177 ff.), pointed out the fact that Ross had been over-zealous in saying that the first of these inscriptions was found only a quarter of an hour from the temple. It is, in fact, over an hour away; and the second one, being quite near the city, is over an hour and a half distant from the temple. Quite recently another such boundary-stone has been found in the sea near the city. It ought to have been recognized as practically impossible that so many rather heavy stones should be carried so far, and their provenance ought to have been sought elsewhere than at the temple under discussion. In the *American Journal of Archæology*, 1893, Prof. F. B. Tarbell and Mr. W. N. Bates collected all the evidence available as to the connection of the subjects of the sculptures on various temples with the divinity worshipped in the temples. They appear to have had in mind some question in regard to the Aeginetan sculptures, as appears in a note on p. 19. Professor Furtwängler himself, in his 'Beschreibung der Glyptothek König Ludwig I. zu München,' 1900 (pp. 86 and 157), had already declared that the presence of Athena in both gables was no proof that the temple was hers. He then thought it a temple of Herakles. But no serious and strenuous objection had been made to the current name; doubts only had been expressed, when all at once, with the recent excavations, the certainty came with a blaze of proof that the temple belonged to another divinity almost purely local and much inferior to the great goddess Athena.

First came three fragments of inscriptions, all of which seemed to contain parts of the name Aphæa, and then came a large block nearly six feet long and a foot high, with an inscription of three lines, saying: "When Cleœtas was priest, the house was built to Aphæa. The altar and the ivory [*i. e.*, presumably, the wooden cultus statue adorned with ivory], were made in addition, and a wall built around." This inscription is in archaic Doric, and must be put well back into the sixth century. It cannot refer to the present temple, because three of the four fragments of the block containing it were found in the débris used for filling, at a considerable depth below the surface of the platform east of the temple, and down near the bed-rock. The present temple, then, replaced at some time an older one of the same divinity on the same spot. Pausanias (ii., 30, 3) says that the Temple of Aphæa had inscribed on it a song of Pindar. Furtwängler naturally supposed that there was some special occasion for this, and what more fitting occasion could be found than the dedication of the temple itself, which replaced with pomp an older one antiquated or destroyed? The time of dedication would then probably be when Pindar was at the height of his popularity.

The new name of the temple, based as it is not only upon the complete inscription, but on the fragments of three others, will probably stand secure. One of the blocks is too large to have been transported very far. The only rift in the otherwise secure foundation is the fact that Pausanias, in mentioning the Temple of Aphæa, says: "It is on the way as you go up to the mountain of Zeus Panhellenios." It is true that this mountain of Zeus Panhellenios was once supposed to be the height on which stands the temple under discussion; but there is little room for doubt that it is the peak now known as the ὄρος, near the south point of the island, which dominates the whole island and affords a view not easily forgotten. It is, in fact, perfectly clear that Theophrastus means this mountain when, in discussing the signs of storms, he says that clouds settling upon Zeus Hellenios are a sign of rain. This very peak is used to-day in the same way as a weather gauge. Taking the ὄρος as something fixed, one has generally believed, on the authority of Pausanias, that the ruined chapel of the Archangel Michael, which stands on an imposing and finely constructed terrace, near the bottom of the northern slope of the ὄρος, occupies the site of the Temple of Aphæa. Several ancient inscriptions have been found there; none, however, giving the name of a divinity. It might be well to rummage a little more among the blocks which cover the ground here. Some decisive inscription might be the reward. But, as the case now stands, it is easier to believe that Pausanias was a "betrogener Betrüger" than that Furtwängler is in error in his identification of the Temple of Aphæa.

In the interest, however, of a complete statement of facts, I may say that Professor Furtwängler is a little unjust as to the fitness of this place to be the location of the Temple of Aphæa. In citing the passage in the narrative of Antoninus Liberalis which describes the flight of Aphæa—who is a sort of double of Dictynna—from Crete, her touching at Aegina, and her taking refuge in a grove in which her temple was afterwards set up, he denies the possibility of this region near the foot of the ὄρος ever having been a grove, calling it an "öde Felswüste." Two visits to the spot have left me with the opposite conviction. Several fig trees flourish on and about the terrace; and there is even now considerable humus there, in spite of a long process of denudation and washing-down of the soil to a slightly lower level since classical times. There is, moreover, a large cistern, or well rather, near the upper edge of the terrace, which seems fed by a perennial source at the bottom. I have, at any rate, in two different years—1894 and 1901—seen crowds of women washing there in September, before the fall rains. I set this down as something to be taken into consideration in case there should be a change of the kaleidoscope, and new possibilities at present not in sight should present themselves.

The new discovery will hardly contribute anything toward fixing more exactly the date of the famous temple. Furtwängler, to be sure, suggests a very plausible and extremely interesting connection of the building of the temple with an episode in the battle of Salamis. Herodotus, after giving the Athenian account of the beginning of the battle, adds: "The Aeginetans tell another story, and say that the ship which had gone over to Aegina to fetch the Aeacidæ brought on the battle, and that, furthermore, the phantom of a woman appeared to them, and, when she had appeared, she reviled them, saying, 'Wretches, how long are you going to keep backing water?' and urged them on, so that the whole Greek line heard her voice." Furtwängler accepts a suggestion of Salomon Reinach that this phantom woman was, according to the belief of the Aeginetans, none other than the goddess Aphæa, who looked down from the height on which her temple stood, and, beholding her island devotees in the throes of a dangerous crisis,

inspired them to the deeds of valor which made their name resound throughout Hellas. Herodotus, even with his Athenian leanings, has to record the fact that the Aeginetans outstripped the Athenians in this battle, according to the general judgment. What an occasion this afforded them to devote their treasure to the erection of a fine temple to the goddess who had led them on that day to immortal glory! Well might they call in Pindar to add lustre to the offering—Pindar, who, in his fourth Isthmian ode, also showed his predilection to praise the island whose "strong tower was high valor."

This most attractive weaving of history and myth to form a setting for the date of the temple will not, however, remove entirely a doubt created in the minds of many by the solid presence of the gable groups themselves, which make such an impression of antiquity. It is difficult to believe that, long after the group of Athena battling with the giants in the gable of the Old Athena temple on the Athenian Acropolis had been produced, with its tremendous life and energy, sculptors could have gone on making such stiff, expressionless figures at a place so hard by. The newly discovered sculptures at Delphi seem rather to increase this difficulty. Sculpture was beginning to throb with life everywhere in Greece. Could Aegina have been in an eddy? But it must be said that Furtwängler, who is a master in the field of sculpture, has long held to about this date, and is not being carried away by any fancy generated by his new discovery. After years of discussion, while there is no perfect agreement as to the date of the Aegina sculptures, the limits have been drawn more closely. It is, after all, a question of a decade or so. The time when Leake and Cockerell dated the temple at 600 B. C. is long past.

RUFUS B. RICHARDSON.

INTERNATIONAL ART IN LONDON.

LONDON, October, 1901.

The autumn season in London probably never began in such gloom for artists. The war in South Africa has entered upon its third year—the war that was to have been carried to a triumphant end in a month's time; every one knows that the income tax, already enormous, will be very much bigger before the next payment is called for—the more pessimistic, indeed, insisting that it will go up to half a crown in the pound before it can begin to go down again; the papers are full of the gradual decline of British trade and commerce; Lord Rosebery has just been calling upon the British people to awake and borrow a little energy from Americans, or there is no telling whither their apathy may lead. Altogether, the financial outlook is anything but brilliant, and, in moments of national economy, it is the artist who suffers first. Bread and meat must be paid for before pictures can be bought. While from Venice, from Dresden, from Vevey reports come of the wonderful success of the summer's big exhibitions—success, that is, from the point of view of sales—in the London galleries that pleasant little mark "Sold" on a picture has long been the exception. The Academy itself, the stronghold of popular art, is said to have suffered, and when the sales at the Academy diminish, the other galleries might as well lock their doors and put up their shutters.

It is all the more encouraging, therefore, to find that a society of artists upon whom the future of the art of Great Britain may be said in a large measure to depend, should have bravely faced the period of depression and chosen the present moment to open its third exhibition, after an interval of a little more than two years. It is unusual in London for any group of artists to allow such a long time to pass without giving signs of life—the risk would be too great; and, I think, in the conservative or Academic camp there was every hope that the last had been heard of the International Society of Sculptors, Painters, and Gravers. Its first two shows had proved it a force to be reckoned with, a formidable rival to Academies and Institutes and British Artists, and its disappearance would not have been regretted. But now it is once more to the fore, its activity and excellence unimpaired, its standard as high as ever, its example as subversive of all the old, long-established superstitions and traditions of British art.

I have spoken at length of the aims and constitution of the Society because it is in this way I can best explain its importance and the reason why so much is expected of its influence. As for the exhibition that has recently opened, it has the very virtues that in most London exhibitions are conspicuous by their absence. The pictures are intelligently hung. In the two previous shows there was the further advantage of unusually fine rooms. Prince's Skating Rink at Knightsbridge had been transformed for the summer into a picture gallery, large and spacious, and decorated for the purpose by the Society itself. Now, for various reasons, Knightsbridge has been abandoned for much more convenient Piccadilly, and temporary quarters have been found in the Institute, where the galleries are pleasant, but limited in space, and decorated according to unfortunate Institute ideals. But the arrangement of the walls is harmonious; there is no crowding, each picture has its necessary margin of space, while the low velarium concentrates the light just where it is wanted. Mr. Whistler so seldom exhibits that a row of small pictures by him is an event. They are marines; a little street scene, all "gold and orange"; a most beautiful study of the nude, "Phryne the Superb"; notes of color, suave, rhythmical, exquisite. Here you have proof positive that the success of a picture in an exhibition is not in proportion to the size of the canvas or paper and the sensation of the subject. These little masterpieces hold you when you would pass with indifference the huge *machine* at the Salon or the rapid "picture of the year" at the Academy.

Exhibitions without end open and close in London, and call for no special mention. But not only for what the International shows, but for what it means, does it deserve careful consideration; and American artists have a particular reason to be interested in its welfare. In England or Great Britain, there has never been any definite well-organized movement of "Secession," as in Paris or Munich or Vienna. I have heard abroad the International called the "London Secession," but this word really does not describe it. Its members do not "secede" from anything; it represents no one group, it is no association merely of the younger men still in the hot rebellion of youth; it gives expression to no revolutionary tendencies or brand-new doctrines and theories; it is not Mystic, or Symbolist, or Pointillist, or Impressionist, or Divisionist; it has not even invented a name by which to electrify or puzzle a world on the lookout for sensations. It is merely a society of artists drawn together by their love of art and their desire to show the best work that is being done nowadays, and to arrange it in such fashion that it can be seen to the best advantage. But whoever has been forced by duty to make the rounds of the chief galleries in England and on the Continent during the last fifteen or twenty years will know what a novelty this is. The means by which these ends are realized are simple—so simple, the wonder is they have not been thought of before by any association of British artists. In the first place, the President has been chosen for his distinction as an artist, and not solely for social or other reasons; a society over which Mr. Whistler presides could not but be distinguished. In the second place, the members—divided into Executive Members, Honorary Members, and Associates—have also been elected, not because they are "good fellows," or popular with the public, but because of their merit as artists. And, in the third place, narrow insular and national barriers have been disregarded, and the effort is made to include all the men who are doing original work in any part of the world. It may be said that, in this respect, the Academy is liberal enough; are not two Americans, a German, and a Dutchman counted among the full-fledged Academicians? But all these painters live in England, and have identified themselves with English art and English life, even when they have not been officially nationalized. Outside its own ranks the Academy is indifferent enough to the foreigner. Take the case of Americans; Mr. Millet and Mrs. Merritt are fairly regular contributors, but I have had to point out before now the shameful sort of treatment accorded to only too many others who have ventured to exhibit. With the International, however, the tables are turned: The President is an American; so is one of the Executive Members or Council—Mr. Pennell; and Mr. St. Gaudens, Mr. MacMonnies, Mr. Chase, Mr. Alexander, and Mr. Melchers are among the Honorary Members; Mr. Humphreys Johnston, Mr. Muhrman, Mr. Mura, among the Associates; while, this year, Mr. Lungren and Mr. McLure Hamilton also are exhibitors. This is why I think the Society and its exhibitions of special interest to Americans. It may, again, be said that, as Academicians are not admitted to the Executive, therefore the Society must be in direct and deliberate opposition to the Academy. But it is well known that, with a few notable exceptions, most of the eminent British artists of to-day—including the large and accomplished Glasgow group—have little favor shown them at Burlington House. And, again, the ends of the International Society would be at once defeated were it brought under Academical influence.

The Glasgow men are naturally to the fore; it is their only chance to make a good showing in London, and one of their num-

ber, Mr. Lavery, is Vice-President of the Society. His portraits and Mr. Walton's and Mr. Henry's are, as a rule, excellent. Indeed, the work of this group usually has character and sometimes charm, though they may not have fulfilled all the expectations they aroused at the outset of their career, and though several now seem in danger of falling victims to "pattern," so determined are they to be decorative in their pictures. Mr. Hornel, for one, reduces his landscapes to a blinding, kaleidoscopic mosaic of color. Mr. Sauter, the Honorary Secretary of the Society, is also prominent among the portrait-painters, and the landscape men are chiefly Mr. Muhrman and Mr. Priestman, who are always to be studied even when, as now, they are scarcely up to their own high level.

I have said who are the Americans. France is represented by M. Besnard, M. Cottet, M. Milcendeau; Germany, by Franz Stuck and Klinger; Holland, by Mathys and James Maris, Breitner, and Bauer; Belgium by Khnopff and Claus; Italy by Fragiacomo and Segantini. A fine series of paintings and drawings by Segantini has, indeed, been made one of the chief features of the collection. Two Canadians also send: Mr. Homer Watson, well known, I believe, in New York, and Mr. Morrice, new as an exhibitor in London, but whose work here, as in the Champ-de-Mars Salon, reveals a sense of style and color that promises much. This short summary will at least give an idea of the scope of the exhibition.

The black-and-white, though not so representative as in previous shows, is good, M. Lepère, Mr. Pennell, and Mr. E. J. Sullivan being the chief exhibitors in this section. And if there is but little sculpture, that little is of interest; Meunier, Troubetzkoy, and Klinger, the most notable contributors.

I do not pretend that the show is faultless—that would be absurd. If I were writing at length, I might compare it, not always to its advantage, with the first two shows. I might call attention to more than one disappointment or failure. The millennium will have come before a society of artists can reach that stage of perfection where it is beyond reproach. But, as a rule, the work that does not command praise at least challenges criticism. Comparatively little commonplace has crept in. There is no painting or drawing or modelling down to the popular taste, and it is better to err on the side of eccentricity than of sentiment. The disappointment, as a rule, is when the artist falls below the standard he has set; the failure, when he has not been able to solve the problem his picture or drawing or statue meant to him. That there should be a standard, and a high one, that there should be a problem, and an artistic one, is the great thing. N. N.

Notes.

Mr. R. B. Marston, the veteran London publisher, has consented to act as Honorary Secretary and Honorary Treasurer of a fund to enable a memorial of the late R. D. Blackmore to be placed in Exeter Cathedral. He expects, if the sum raised should be more than sufficient thus to honor the author of 'Lorna Doone,' to invest the surplus for the benefit of the Authors' Benevolent Fund. A copy of Mr. Marston's circular will be sent to any one addressing him at St. Dunstan's House, Fetter Lane, London, E. C. Messrs. Hall Caine, Thomas Hardy, Kipling, R. E. Prothero, and W. Clark Russell are of the Honorary Committee of the fund.

A beginning has been made in Massachusetts, by the Women's Auxiliary of the Civil-Service-Reform Association of that State, of an attempt to reach the minds of youth in the high schools on the subject of public office as a public trust. A pamphlet on the merit system versus the spoils system, written by Mr. Edward Carey, has been widely circulated by the Auxiliary, which is ready to send copies to high schools outside of Massachusetts. Application should be made to Miss Elizabeth Foster, No. 44 Fairfield Street, Boston.

The interesting announcement is made that Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are to be the American agents for the sale of the publications of the famous Plantin-Moretus Museum at Antwerp. The Administrative Board decided last year "to print from the copper and wood cuts in the Museum a limited number of proofs, which should be offered for sale to art lovers and connoisseurs." Among these are engravings by Lucas van Leyden (1521), Crispin van de Passe (1588, after designs by Martin de Vos), John Wiericx (1585-1590); frontispieces and portraits after designs by Rubens, whose relations to the great printing-house were very close; 'Emblemata Hadriani Junii,' by various hands; fifteen etchings and seven engravings on copper by the late Baron Leys, the eminent Belgian painter of the last century, whose plates have been bought by the Museum; besides several large prints from the original plates—after Van Dyck's "Christ on the Cross," the portrait of Christopher Plantin, etc. These books and prints may be seen at the new offices of the firm, at No. 85 Fifth Avenue.

Mr. E. A. Crawley, of Bradfield College, Berkshire, England, has turned FitzGerald's 'Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám' into Greek elegiacs, which will be issued early in December in a limited bilingual edition printed at the Merrymount Press for Mr. Nathan Haskell Dole, of Jamaica Plain, Boston. This edition is specially authorized by Dr. William Aldis Wright of Cambridge, FitzGerald's executor.

Immediately forthcoming from Henry Holt & Co. are Prof. Henry A. Beers's 'History of English Romanticism in the Nineteenth Century,' and 'American Political History to the Death of Lincoln,' popularly told by Viola A. Conklin.

'Famous Sayings of Famous Americans,' compiled by James J. Neville, will be issued by Frederick H. Johnson, Syracuse, N. Y.

'China in Convulsion,' by Dr. Arthur H. Smith, and 'Culture and Restraint,' by the Rev. Hugh Black, are in the press of Fleming H. Revell Co.

Still another book on China, 'The War of Civilization,' by George Lynch, is to be published immediately by Longmans, Green & Co.

A romantic novel founded on the life of François Villon, and entitled 'If I Were King,' by Justin Huntly McCarthy, will shortly be published by R. H. Russell.

Richardson's 'Pamela,' 'Clarissa Harlowe,' and 'Sir Charles Grandison,' in twenty small crown octavo volumes, will be issued by Chapman & Hall in London and J. B. Lippincott Co. in Philadelphia. A portrait of Richardson, and 78 illustrations after Stothard and E. F. Burney, will adorn this set.

Macmillan Co. have transferred to their "Handbooks of Archæology" Lanciani's 'Destruction of Ancient Rome,' already noticed in these columns.

Among the reprints of the week none is more captivating than the twelve volumes of the Temple edition of the Works of the Brontës (London: Dent; New York: Macmillan), in olive-green binding brightly stamped in gilt. Etched frontispieces embrace portrait, historic scene, and imaginative illustration of the story. One volume is given up to the verse of the three sisters, with Cottage Poems by the Rev. Patrick Brontë. The hand will not tire of these light books, and the eye will not be strained by the text.

Mr. Edwin Atlee Barber's 'Pottery and Porcelain of the United States' (Putnams) was reviewed by us seven years ago, with acknowledgment of its merit particularly on the historical side. It has not been superseded, and is not likely to be, and is now issued in a second edition with nearly a hundred additional pages and a liberal continuation of the illustrations. Mr. Barber offers much fresh and valuable information about the earlier potteries, while his account of developments since 1893 (and very important they are) fills fifty pages. The public that buys, as well as that which collects, has now a book of reference brought up to date. The author is less critic than antiquarian and chronicler, but his interest in his subject is, like his industry, most commendable. A curious instance of the sociological significance of forms of pottery is given in the supplement at p. 435, where is depicted a ring-shaped cider bottle, meant to be carried afield on the owner's arm.

Mr. Hamilton W. Mabie's 'William Shakspere: Poet, Dramatist, and Man' comes to us from Macmillan in a third edition, with all the illustrations, with some corrections, and in a cheaper, but still handsome form. At the same time his excellent early version of 'Norse Stories,' which we noticed last winter, is put forth anew by Dodd, Mead & Co., in elegant typography, with pale-tinted scroll borders and with gayly colored full-page designs by George Wright.

Nearly sixty years have elapsed since the inception of John Henry Newman's 'Lives of the English Saints,' and whether hagiology has meanwhile risen in repute, or whether we can all enjoy these biographies as pure literature, viewing as poetry what we decline to accept as history, as the Rev. Arthur W. Hutton suggests, he has put them to press once more in a handsome set of six volumes, garnished with portraits of twelve of the contributors (of whom only one survives, some being under twenty-five at the time, and most being on either side of thirty), and a list as nearly perfect as can be made of the several attributions. This edition bears in London the imprint of Freemantle and in Philadelphia of Lippincott. Mark Pattison, J. A. Froude, Faber, Oakeley, and Mozley are among the portraits mentioned.

In noticing the latest addition to the "Versailles Historical Series" (Boston: Hardy, Pratt & Co.), which comprises three

volumes of Madame de Motteville's Memoirs, translated by Miss Wormeley, we have pleasure in observing that the work is in many particulars more accurate than in some of the preceding volumes. The elementary error of mistaking "esprit" for *intelligence* (when the context shows that *wit* is meant) may be found in i., 202, and ii., 57. Still, the translator keeps even pace with the not very stimulating original, and practises a fair amount of judicious ex cision here and there. Sainte-Beuve's "Causerie" serves as an introduction.

Superficially considered, there might appear to be a happy thought in the compilation, 'Romantic Castles and Palaces as Seen and Described by Famous Writers, Edited and Translated by Esther Singleton' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). For mere description, Gautier and Alexander Dumas, Hawthorne, William Howitt, Mr. and Mrs. S. C. Hall, Leigh Hunt and Walter Scott (to cite the less recent) may answer; but wherever the historical details of a guide-book enter in, the age of the selection counts, and many of the details here to be found must be as untrustworthy as they are unreadable. On the other hand, we have passages from J. R. Green, J. A. Symonds, Grant Allen, Pierre Loti, E. De Amicis, C. Yriarte, and other of our contemporaries. There are also nearly fifty excellent photographic illustrations. The proof-reading (or is it the scholarship?) leaves something to be desired. "Farinata des Uberti" occurs on page 42, for example; "Françoise de'Mercœur" on page 174; "Catherine de Medicis" on page 174, "de'Medicis" on page 101, "de'Medici" on pages 175, 177; "de los Arraynes" on page 79; "Maréchale de Chaumont, to do honor to his uncle," on page 213.

Under the title 'The Education of the American Citizen,' President Hadley has reprinted a number of his addresses and essays (Charles Scribner's Sons). The views here presented are too well known to require commendation to our readers. President Hadley's theory is "that the real test of an educational system lies in its training of the citizen to meet political exigencies," and he is fond of dwelling on the potency of public opinion in solving political problems. While the manner in which the thought is presented is not brilliant, its substance is excellent. Occasionally, the desire to be fair and conciliatory produces some indefiniteness of assertion, and optimism takes the place of argument. But the head of a great university must nowadays be a diplomatist and beware of too much zeal. The most scholarly paper in the collection, on "Ethics as a Political Science," appeared nine years ago, and is perhaps more truly educational than the recent addresses, which necessarily lack the incisiveness of arguments meant for students.

The legal position of women in this country is examined by Mr. G. J. Bayles under the title 'Woman and the Law' (The Century Co.). The book is intended for women —as women, not as lawyers—and will undoubtedly be of interest to the growing class of self-sufficient members of the sometime "weaker sex." As Prof. I. F. Russell says in his introduction, in this country woman labors under no legal disabilities, and is in some respects favored by the law. Not being ordinarily a voter or office-holder, her public relations are of moderate importance; but her property relations are no longer insignificant, while the domestic relations are of at least as much consequence to her as to man. Hence the author of this book dwells mainly on such subjects as marriage and divorce, the guardianship of children, marriage settlements, dower, separate estates, and the conduct of their affairs by women. His presentation of the law is necessarily concise, but is clear and neat, and will meet the wants of those who desire to take a general view of the subject.

To sketch in a single volume the history of both critical and creative literature in France during so strikingly productive a period as the last twenty-five or thirty years, might at first blush appear a mere *tour de force*. In M. Georges Pellissier's hands the result turns out to be a most valuable general guide for popular purposes. It is, indeed, to France that one must look for such an admirable summary of the subject as 'Le Mouvement Littéraire Contemporain' (Paris: Plon - Nourrit). This work, which takes up novels, plays, poetry, criticism, and history, combines the treatment of all essential elements in these various *genres* with comprehensiveness and lightness of touch. Its one striking want is the almost complete absence of dates, which might easily find a place in footnotes. Doubtless, many readers may feel disposed to take issue with some of M. Pellissier's conclusions, notably with his charity towards recent experiments in the rejuvenation of French prosody. But the distinguished critic is at all events true to his literary faith, which consists mainly in counselling a return to the method of Sainte-Beuve, in preference to either Taine or Brunetière.

Two more numbers of the 'Catalogo Generale della Libreria Italiana — 1847-1899' (Milan: Hoepli; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) carry the alphabet on into D. Among the more striking lists of works are those, in politics and sociology, of the statesman Colajanni; in letters, of D'Annunzio, whose beginnings were poetical—'In Memoriam: Versi' (1880); 'Canto Novo' (1882); 'Intermezzo di Rime' (1884), and so on. Massimo D'Azeglio editions fill three-quarters of a page, and range, in the case of his 'Ettore Fieramosca,' from 1847 to 1899; of his 'Nicolò de' Lapi' from 1847 to 1894—a very even running for these masterpieces. The Dante entries (that is, of works on him) are surprisingly small for the half century; a mere handful. Dino Compagni's 'Chronicle' has been reprinted six times—in 1847, 1852, 1858, and, after a decade's pause, 1869, 1870, 1872. Darwin's 'Origin of Species' was not translated till 1865; his 'Journal of a Voyage' till 1872. Fenimore Cooper's vogue in Italy in this later period dates from 1858 with 'The Bravo.' 'Robinson Crusoe' has been issued from 1854 to 1898, but De Foe remains to Italians a man of one book. It is pleasant to find here Cowper's lines on his mother's picture translated (1882).

The October issue of the Historical Collections of the Essex Institute (Salem, Mass.) contains a paper by the President of that society entitled "What Washington Thought of a Third Term." It will well repay reading, however little the present generation takes Washington's opinions and political example to heart. It is conclusive as to his being in favor of the republic's right to employ a public servant as long as its advantage was consulted by his continuance in office. In his correspondence with his friends and in his Farewell Address a scruple against the principle of a third term found no place among his reasons for seeking retirement; nor did he avoid a second term on the ground of its being opposed to public policy, as he might have done.

The conditions of South African trade are reviewed in the Consular Reports for October by Consul-General Stowe; its growing importance to us being indicated by the fact that only nine other countries take more of our products. He refers to the universal use in Cape Colony of our kitchen ware, furniture, and agricultural implements, and quotes Lord Roberts's commendation of the American buckboard wagon as "superior to any other pattern of either Cape or English manufacture." Another proof of the increase of our interests in the Old World is the establishment in Harput of an agency for the exhibition of American goods, chiefly agricultural machinery. To promote this end, a model farm has been started in the vicinity which is "cultivated exclusively by American machinery," and the Governor-General of the province has granted the agency the use of a large tract of arable land near the capital "on which the operations of ploughing, sowing, cultivating, and harvesting the standard crops of the country can be readily followed and studied." Among other subjects treated in the Reports is Japanese trade, the total volume of our commerce last year having exceeded fifty-seven million dollars. Attention is called to the gradual abolition of domestic slavery in Egypt, 3,450 manumission papers having been granted in the last six years.

Kang-Wha, the fortified island lying at the mouth of the Han River, the largest in Korea, has hitherto been the asylum of each refugee native dynasty, and frequently the capital of the country at months at a time, during the many invasions of that oft-conquered country. Modern methods of warfare have made the island less valuable as a stronghold, but the duplicate records of the Government are still kept there in a fortified monastery, which French infantry in 1866 vainly endeavored to storm. These archives are in the care of Buddhist monks, who are subsidized and act as a clerical militia. An account of Kang-Wha, historical and descriptive, is given by the Rev. M. N. Trollope in volume ii. of the Transactions of the Korea Asiatic Society. Rich in ancient masonry, fortifications, and monuments, the island now boasts of two comparatively new tablets standing on the headland above the forts stormed by the Americans under Lieut.-Commander (now Rear-Admiral) W. S. Schley, in 1871. They were erected by the people of Kang-Wha in grateful memory of their fellows who died for their country. One of them gives the names of four officers and forty-nine Koreans, rank and file slain (compare the "three hundred and fifty" of the official report to our Secretary of the Navy). Perhaps the smaller number were from Kang-Wha only. A similar tablet within the monastery enclosure recalls the French expedition of 1866. "The Spirit Worship of the Koreans" is treated in a scholarly paper by the Rev. George Heber Jones. While Confucianism is the creed of the lettered classes, and Buddh-

ism of the women, ministering thus to the social side of life, some of the monasteries also being subsidized, Shamanism is the prevailing cult, the female sorcerers everywhere having amazing influence. Happily, Korean spirits cease all activity at cock-crow, for at the first blast of chanticleer they are unable to travel.

The claims of geographical research were urged by Dr. R. H. Mill in his address before the British Association at Glasgow. Referring to the unsatisfactory position of the science in Great Britain, both in the general educational scheme and in the Government departments, he stated that "there is still one important colonial boundary entirely undelimited in a region somewhat difficult of access and still little known, where gold fields will probably be found or reported before long, and where a very serious international question may suddenly arise." He also called attention to the undesirable condition of the laws in regard to water-rights, and the absence of laws as to the utilization of wind—a dangerous situation in view of the growing importance of wind- and water-power, and the transport of that power by electricity.

The American Philosophical Society of Philadelphia has, after 158 years of existence (Franklin called it into being), resolved to supplement its semi-monthly meetings with at least one general meeting annually, beginning in Easter week of 1902. Papers to be presented by or through members should be in the Secretaries' hands not later than February 15.

—The writers in the "Highways and Byways Series" (Macmillan) have all, so far, succeeded in producing guide-books so glorified with anecdote, literary reminiscence, and, above all, excellent illustration, that they appeal to several classes of readers. Many who will never visit the Lake District will find Mr. A. G. Bradley's little book fascinating; and certainly it is one that no traveller in the north of England should fail to take with him. Mr. Bradley explored the country from Kendal to Gretna Green, and down to St. Bees on the Irish Sea, riding a bicycle for the most part, and asserting the supreme advantage of this method of progression while he admits that smooth roads are none too common in the Lake Country. His experiences will tempt many cyclists to whom a cycle in that region may have seemed an anomaly, to abandon where possible the lumbering coach of the tourist and loiter with their wheels in the less-known byways. Mr. Bradley's pages are full of memoirs of Shelley, De Quincey, and the "Lakers"; but some of us have had enough of anecdotes of Wordsworth, Southey, and Hartley Coleridge, and we have read with more interest the curious and gruesome tales connected with the remote granges and ruined halls that cluster in the valleys little visited, even now, by tourists. Mr. Pennell's illustrations are as good as ever, though here and there the reproduction is faulty. The map of Mr. Bradley's travels is valuable; for though one usually ends by developing one's own route, in such a pilgrimage, another's experiences form an interesting basis if only of comparison.

—'Arnold's Expedition to Quebec' (Macmillan) is a posthumous work of John Codman, 2d, who died in 1897 at the age of thirty-four. His last years were spent in preparing this book, and, although he was unable to give it a final revision, it was practically completed at the time of his death. As an example of the effort bestowed upon it, we may say that Mr. Codman followed the course of Arnold's advance, either on foot or by canoe, for nearly the whole of the way. No preceding writer on the subject had taken the pains to do this, and the result is seen in a much firmer grasp of topographical detail. The suffering of the troops must be the main theme of any narrative which describes this expedition, and no one can properly realize what they endured unless he has been through the country between Dead River and Lake Megantic. Mr. Codman thought a great mistake was made in taking bateaux. "Rafts could have been built rapidly on the shores of many of the ponds by an advance party, and used to ferry the troops across as fast as they arrived, while a large enough amount of ammunition to have answered every purpose could have been thus transported." The cause of this blunder is traceable less to sheer stupidity than to false information about the region. Arnold in one of his letters says: "We have been deceived in every account of our route." The description of the fighting before Quebec is very good, and does justice to Carleton's humanity as well as to the bravery of the colonists. We must also point out that the book is in no sense a panegyric of Arnold, composed with a view to mitigating judgment of his later career. The General's courage and determination are fully illustrated, but, after all, the real hero is the common soldier. After quoting a devout passage from the journal of Private Abner Stocking, Mr. Codman proceeds: "Such was the simple piety of many of that devoted little army. On the stern but confident religion of their youth, taught them under the white steeples of their village meeting-houses, they leaned, full of faith, as upon a strong staff, in the days of hunger, cold, and wretchedness in the wilderness, and in the weary hours of disease and defeat before the fortress city of Quebec." We can only regret that Mr. Codman should not have lived to see the publication of a book which is so carefully worked out and so filled with enthusiasm.

—In 'Johnnie Courteau and Other Poems' (Putnams), Dr. W. H. Drummond reasserts his claim to the province which he entered upon when he wrote 'The Wreck of the *Julie Plante*,' and made his own by the publication of 'The Habitant.' He knows the French Canadians thoroughly well, and his fund of humor is far from being exhausted, as may be seen from pieces like "Johnnie Courteau" and "Mon Frère Camille" in the present volume. "The Hill of St. Sebastien" recalls Chateaubriand's "Le Montagnard Émigré," while there is more than a suggestion of pathos in several of the poems. "Little Lac Grenier" gives a delightful picture of the solitary Laurentian tarn, and "The Curé of Calumette" is the clever portraiture of a type well known in Quebec, the man whose parentage is partly Irish and partly French. But best of all is "Little Bateese," which may be called the most delicate of Dr. Drummond's poems, whether in this book or in 'The Habitant.' Occasionally the broken English of the French farmer is cast aside; for example, in a few lines at the very beginning, where the true motive of all these verses about the Canadian is exposed:

> "Remember when these tales you read
> Of rude but honest 'Canayen,'
> That Joliet, La Verandrye,
> La Salle, Marquette, and Hennepin
> Were all true 'Canayen' themselves—
> And in their veins the same red stream;
> The conquering blood of Normandie
> Flowed strong, and gave America
> Coureurs de bois and voyageurs
> Whose trail extends from sea to sea!"

Here Dr. Drummond shows where his real sympathies lie. The life of the *habitant* at its best is, and has ever been, bound up with the woods and with the freedom of the open air. Dr. Drummond's hunters, lumbermen, and peasants are somewhat idealized, but, though they are the products of a generous spirit, history is not seriously distorted, while the sincerity of the poet's feeling adds depth and color to his lines. Mr. Coburn's illustrations are all animated, and some of them give proof of decided talent.

—Whatever importance may attach to Mr. Hubert W. Brown's 'Latin America: The Pagans, the Papists, the Patriots, the Protestants, and the Present Problem' (Fleming H. Revell Co.) cannot be attributable to either profound historical research or to keen philosophic deductions from known facts concerning the Latin Americans. It might serve to awaken enthusiasm among a certain class of church people, whose zeal to aid missionary enterprise might thereby be quickened. That pagan forms in the externals of Roman Catholic worship crop up also in Latin America hardly needs to be explained at the cost of many printed pages. We have heard more or less of such practices since the days of Ulrich Zwingli. The evil of Rome, the failure of Roman Catholicism to touch the spiritual natures of the indigines of Spanish America, fanaticism, useless penances—these constitute the burden of Mr. Brown's book. It is pleasing, however, to note that he has observed evidences of a revival of energy, presumably for good, in the Roman Catholic Church in Latin America, and that he admits progress towards a reformation, or casting off of the excrescences that had grown during the colonial period; but he does not fully recognize how much of this has resulted from the persistent efforts of the Vatican councils in recent years. There is some confusion of thought in the volume, as where Mr. Brown assumes that there would be amazement at home if we sent missionary workers with an invading army at their back, after having been able to write without apology (p. 194), "An agent of the American Bible Society accompanied the American army in its invasion of Mexico in the war of 1847." We must protest against his defence of that vicious practice of adapting the so-called Gospel Hymns to the Spanish in violation of the poetic laws of that language. No people in the world are more devoted to literary excellence of form than those of Spanish blood. To offend in this is to repel people of culture and refinement. The author is often interesting when dealing with Mexico, but his knowledge of the rest of Latin America is derived from second and often third-hand sources of information.

—'American Literature' (Scott, Foresman & Co.), by Prof. Alphonso G. Newcomer of Stanford University, is an excellent school-book and something more. Considered sim-

ply as an aid in academic and collegiate instruction, it is—so far as can be judged without actually using it with a class—admirably adapted to its purpose. It imparts important information concisely and accurately; its groupings of authors by the natural cleavage of chronology, locality, and idea are managed with great discretion, and are excellently suited to help the student toward a synoptical view of the subject. Finally, its suggestions for study are unusually helpful and suggestive. But, quite apart from its function as a text-book, Professor Newcomer's little volume deserves consideration by the general reader as a literary history of America. It is actualized by a vivid historical imagination, and its author's feeling for perspective and proportion—in placing American literature in the general course of letters, and in internal ranking and classification—is unusually keen and just. In the ticklish sections upon contemporary writers there are certain implications with which some readers are sure to find fault. For instance, it would seem to us that more space should have been given to men like Col. Higginson, Dr. Mitchell, and Dr. Eggleston; and to others whom it would be indelicate to mention, considerably less. But, on the whole, the comparative judgments are contrived with caution and fairness. The detailed criticism of particular writers also is eminently satisfactory. Professor Newcomer's estimates and appreciations are often original and independent. He is never slavishly holden to literary authority; but neither is he intolerant of it. He avoids equally the extremes of pedantry and cockiness, which have not been unknown in studies of American literature. He writes a graceful, unaffected style, lively but not flippant.

—Mr. J. N. Larned's 'Multitude of Counsellors: A Collection of Codes, Precepts, and Rules of Life from the Wise of All Ages' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) has had many predecessors of its kind, but compares favorably with the best of them. Its distinction from many others is that it is almost purely ethical. There is an introductory essay of thirty-one pages, which is a remarkably concise and valuable comment on the selections that follow it. These, if lacking much of a complete representation, disarm the critic of his objection by the abundance of their riches. One is persuaded that men have known well enough what they ought to do for some five or six thousand years; what they have lacked has been personal impulse or inspiration. Mr. Larned questions the value of systematic moral philosophy as a help to right living, but it may be permitted us to doubt whether his beloved maxims are much better. It is "truth embodied in a tale" that makes for righteousness. A good biography of a noble life, however simple, would help more than all these aphorisms, though one must check his opinion by such a judgment as that of Robert Louis Stevenson on William Penn's 'Fruits of Solitude.' The most remarkable omission here is that of the Wisdom of Solomon, certainly a much more important book than Ecclesiasticus. A less eccentric moralist than Thoreau might have served for colophon, and, seeing that Mr. Larned begins with Ptah-hotep, "the primitive archetype of all gentlemen," could he have done better than to end with George William Curtis, a modern gentleman between whose ideals of manners and of morals there was no dividing line?

THE JEWISH ENCYCLOPÆDIA.

The Jewish Encyclopædia: A Descriptive Record of the History, Religion, Literature, and Customs of the Jewish People from the Earliest Times to the Present Day. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co. 1901. Vol. I. Aach—Apocalyptic Literature. Pp. xxxviii+686+xxxviii.

Of encyclopædias and cyclopædias the flood still rises. From gardening to theology, and from architecture to law, its waves roll in on us, and the only doubt left is whether we have come to the age which condenses, sums, concludes, and rests, or to that which revolts and casts its challenge of things as they are into a statement of those things themselves. So the 'De Proprietatibus Rerum' of Bartholomeus de Glanville marked an end, and the 'Encyclopédie' marked a beginning. If such fears for us in the fulness of our twentieth-century vivacity and expansion seem absurd, it is yet well to remember that the greatest encyclopædia of all is in Chinese, and that the decline of original work in Arabic was marked by the writing of compends. Should we resist this old fatality of "Rest and be thankful" and go on from assured ground, thus seemingly steadied beneath our feet, into fresh uncertainties, it will be a new thing in the history of civilization.

The appearance, therefore, of this latest encyclopædia has an interest even greater than its own sufficiently great importance would explain. It is of a new kind. The description of no other encyclopædia yet in existence, draw it largely as we may, covers the one now before us. It may possibly belong to the same class as the long-promised but still lingering Muhammadan Cyclopædia, and, again, there may be grave differences. On one side, it is a true encyclopædia, and speaks, always from a Jewish standpoint, *de omni scibili;* on another, it is a cyclopædia as the record of a single branch of knowledge—the civilization of a single race. But the civilization of one race cannot be cut out with a hatchet from the civilization of all races, and least of all when that race is the Hebrew. Their line has gone out through all the earth, and their word to the end of the world. Cosmopolitan beyond all others, narrowly national above all others, no other people is so fitted to be the despair of the classifier. The new spirit of nationality which Mr. Gladstone hailed in the Balkans, has touched them, but in touching them has been changed into something which, the cynic will say, is both rich and strange. Even as a nation among the nations the chosen people is the chosen people still, and gathers to itself the heritage of the world. And so it alone has the self-consciousness to write its own encyclopædia and sum its own life. For other peoples the same thing, to some extent, has come about unconsciously. The Spanish and the Italian, the American and the English descendants of Brockhaus's 'Conversations-Lexikon' — the century-old mother of them all—mirror the thought, tastes, and attitudes of the peoples for whom they are written. But each tries fairly enough to represent unbiassedly the sum of human knowledge, so far, at least, as it rises on their horizon. Their limitations are necessary, not self-imposed.

If, then, the present work is to avoid an unhappy provincialism, it must accept absolutely that it is only a cyclopædia in the exact sense, and rigidly reject all general rubrics. The full title would suggest that such is in fact the plan, but in this first volume some articles have entered which can hardly be justified. Thus, Albertus Magnus undoubtedly was to some extent influenced by Maimonides and Avicebron, but only those who would see him at a Hebrew angle should look for him here. At the most his system might be treated under Maimonides or Avicebron as a result influenced by them. Again, Aldus Manutius certainly should have a place in a true encyclopædia, but it may be doubted whether his publishing a Hebrew grammar and enjoying Hebrew friendships justify his appearance here. He might be mentioned under Printing or under Gerson Soncino, his Jewish friend. As it is, his biography here is ludicrously one-sided. Similarly we have a biography of al-Farabi, for no other reason, apparently, than because Maimonides and other Jewish philosophers borrowed from him. He himself had no Jewish relationships, and should have been introduced in some general sketch of the development of philosophy among the Jews, or in the article on Maimonides. Again, the article on Altruism, if its own view is justified, is as much in place as the historic chapter on the snakes in Iceland. It is practically a definition and description of altruism, and a statement that such a thing does not exist in Judaism. So, too, with that on Agnosticism. It is an elaborate exposition how the difficulty which produces agnosticism cannot exist for Jews. All that is pure negative polemic, and should have no place here.

But such errors of intrusion are comparatively rare, and, leaving them on one side as due to mal-arrangement more than anything else, the true contents of the book may be classified under the following heads: First, and overwhelmingly, comes biography. This is really the backbone of the book and an ample justification for its existence. Beginning with Biblical biography, its net sweeps in all Jews of any name in the Talmud, in the Middle Ages, and down to the present day, taking up all contemporary Jews of reputation and forming of them practically a "Who's Who" in Judaism. Of necessity the scale of these biographies is limited, but each is followed by a bibliography which gives access to the ultimate facts. In this respect the importance of the work done cannot be exaggerated. A dictionary of Jewish biography has been a long and painfully felt want; but now it will be possible to turn to this book with confidence that, even though there may not be found in it all that is sought, yet it will at least afford that *πού στῶ* indispensable for further search.

Secondly, the history of the Jews is treated geographically. Thus, we have, for example, articles on Afghanistan, Africa, Alabama, Albany, Alexandria, Algeria, Amsterdam, etc., which contain a mass of information inaccessible elsewhere. That holds especially of the descriptions of the present condition of the Jewish population, for which it has been possible to draw largely on the assistance of the local rabbis, thus affording a very curious and interesting illustration of the essential unity of the Jewish civilization over all the

world. These descriptions, originally written in many different languages and scripts, emanating from very different environments and conditions, are still descriptions of the one people of Israel as it pursues its separate life wherever in the world it may have been cast. Not an organization, but an organism, it impresses the imagination as does the tremendous system of the Church of Rome. Viewed on one side, we can understand the proudest pages of Disraeli, exulting in his Sephardic blood, and, on another, that insane panic before a gigantic fact whose fruit has been anti-Semitism. As to execution, these historical articles are naturally somewhat unequal. Those, for example, on Alsace and Amsterdam are excellent, being continuously full and detailed. That on Alexandria, although in parts good, and especially so in its treatment of the present situation, is very uneven. The history from the Roman period to the present day is passed over without a word, and the treatment of Hellenistic Judaism under the Ptolemies is almost childishly inadequate. Under this head should be mentioned also the articles on Agricultural Colonies, on the Alliance Israélite Universelle, and on Anti-Semitism. These explain some of the most interesting and important movements in modern Judaism, and are excellent of their kind; the first two are filled with statistics and tables and fairly illuminated with illustrations.

Thirdly, we have such a treatment of the Old Testament as might be looked for in a dictionary of the Bible. This is by far the weakest side of the book, and even the preface (p. xii.) speaks of it apologetically. The difficulty has been rightly felt, that an exhaustive, or even adequate, treatment at this point would compete unhappily with other modern and successful books. Yet, on the other hand, this book is to describe the history and religion of the Jewish people from beginning to end, and its Scriptures are certainly a most important part of both. In view of this, we cannot but feel that either all articles on Biblical subjects should have been frankly struck out and reference made to the corresponding sections in the known Bible dictionaries, or that these articles should have been developed with sufficient detail and thoroughness. Such competing articles written on the scale of those in "Cheyne" and "Hastings," but from a specifically Jewish point of view, would have had the highest racial and even scientific value. As it is, we have space taken up to little purpose. But there was a further difficulty, which may have decided this matter, and which certainly went to give a curious compound character to the articles as written. It would appear that the gap separating "traditionalists" and "critics"—to use the current terms—among Jews is even wider than among Christians. No Christian dictionary of the Bible of any size, not even the "Hastings," can be claimed specifically as traditionalist; the traditional party among the Jews has been of weight enough to affect this book. The editors, with a "canniness" that characterizes their efforts throughout, have divided each of the more important Biblical articles into three sections. First comes a simple statement of the traditional facts, no comment, no analysis; secondly, the rabbinical interpretation, the facts as the fathers have viewed them—so far, the devout may go without soul's peril; thirdly, the "critical" view — here the traditional facts are rechopped, rearranged, and reinterpreted. To the rabbinical section is attached an account of the transmutations suffered by Jewish legends and beliefs among Muslims. Of these three sections, only the rabbinical has the slightest novelty to commend it, and even it is bare enough.

The fourth division may be classified as articles bearing on Talmudic law. The treatment of rabbinic literature in general is, for the most part, under the authors' names, but there are besides special rubrics for legal points, *e. g.*, Abetment, Alibi, Alienation, etc. The importance for the history of civilization of this great system is coming to be recognized, certainly if slowly. The student of comparative law must now have a much wider horizon than that which lay round even Sir Henry Maine. The present articles will go far to extend that horizon and to raise new possibilities of comparison.

Fifth come a number of rubrics which can be classed roughly as belonging to anthropology and folk-lore. The special article on Jewish anthropology is short and disappointing, but it is to be supplemented by many articles which will perhaps cover its nakedness. Of the importance of the subject there can be no question; the character and permanence of the Jewish racial type is a standing anthropological problem. Folk-lore is more richly represented in the present volume. Among the articles on it may be mentioned Abracadabra, Æsop, Ahikar, Amulets, Ancestor-worship, Anecdotes. All are readable and interesting, but none goes very deep; their limits are those of the popular and not the scientific encyclopædia.

Finally may be mentioned a few unclassifiable articles, including some of the best. High among them stands Lidzbarsky on the Alphabet—an excellent piece of work. There is a good treatment of the Hebrew accentual system by Margolis and a fair account of Apocalyptic literature. Dr. Gaster writes too shortly upon Alchemy.

The chief value of this book, then, is to be found in its biographies, its descriptions of the present state of Jews throughout the world, and in its elucidations of Talmudic law. On all these points it gives first-hand information of a kind and to an extent not accessible elsewhere. The rest is pretty much leather and prunella, introduced to make up a handbook of general information for the Jewish home. Whether it would not be better for Jewish homes to seek their instruction in non-national encyclopædias may remain a moot question. The people of Israel have done and suffered at least as much as any other race; their record is graven deep on the history of the world; they are amply justified in desiring a great book to the glory of their faith and their history. But unpleasing parallels might be drawn between some aspects of this work and some books of the baser sort in laudation of our own recent military glory.

The get-up of the book is good, in printing, paper, and illustrations. The publishers are to be congratulated on the skill with which they have engineered its appearance. With a backing of over 6,000 patron-subscribers—list carefully printed at the end with an open letter to them from Dr. Singer, the projector and managing editor—the success of the undertaking would seem to be assured. The price, therefore, of seven dollars per volume stirs some wonder in us. It is three times that of the much better bound, equally well printed, very much more fully illustrated, and nearly twice as large volumes of Meyer's 'Konversations-Lexikon.' In English, the volumes of Chambers's 'Encyclopædia' are quite as well bound, printed, and illustrated, are considerably larger, and are probably much less than half the price. If it be objected that this book consists of absolutely new matter, so does the 'Encyclopædia Biblica.' Each of its volumes contains about twice as much matter and costs two dollars less; and the public to which the present book appeals is at least as large. Is this difference due to European pauper labor, to our beneficent duties on books, or to some *tertium quid?*

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

The French Revolution: A Sketch. By Shailer Mathews, A.M. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901.

Le Conventionnel Philippeaux. Par Paul Mautouchet. Paris: Georges Bellais. 1900. (Bibliothèque d'Histoire Moderne et Contemporaine.)

It is only for the sake of convenience and of a broad contrast that we bring together these two books on the French Revolution. M. Mautouchet writes a longer volume about Philippeaux, an associate of Danton, and a man of limited fame, than Professor Mathews devotes to the whole course of the Revolution from its causes to the end of the National Convention. Neither work comes into comparison with the other, but the difference between them in point of scope serves to illustrate one striking fact. With us and with the English the study of the Revolution is a sport or an accomplishment. With the French it is a separate and recognized profession.

Professor Mathews's book belongs, both by virtue of space and treatment, to the category of the "general sketch." It is short, it does not assume that the reader has already studied the period, and it is written in a popular style. The two things about it which impress one most are the prominence which is given to the causes of the movement, and the exclusion of the Directory from the author's survey. We are not denying that a strong case can be made out for the scheme which has been followed, but the arrangement of space at once catches the attention. One hundred and ten pages, or about two-fifths of the total contents, are taken up with matters which precede the meeting of the States-General. Professor Mathews, however, is prepared for such criticism as may be based upon his conception of the Revolution, for he says in his preface:

"It is this need of studying the spirit of the French people quite as much as their deeds, that has led to what may appear, in a book of this size, a somewhat disproportionately extended treatment of the pre-revolutionary condition of France. But the change of temper which made the old régime unendurable and compelled Louis to summon the State [*sic*] General, was by far the most important element of the Revolution. . . . To understand the conditions which were outgrown, and the origin and growth

of the revolutionary spirit, seems, therefore, quite as necessary as to trace the history of the destruction of abuse and the struggle for liberty and rights."

After this statement we cannot tax Professor Mathews with having worked out his first part too diffusely. We are brought in contact with a point of view and an avowed purpose. But to the omission of the Directory period we do not so easily agree. While the restoration of order after Vendémiaire may furnish the historian with a just ground for hastening to a close, he should, in an elementary manual, explain how the Consulate was established. Professor Mathews concludes with a few sentences about Napoleon, connecting him with the army and with the Revolution. What he says in his two closing paragraphs is very true, and we only regret that it should be so meagre. On the whole, we cannot call his notice of the relation which exists between the Revolution and Napoleon adequate to the importance of the subject.

Professor Mathews may be called a conservative admirer of the Revolution. He starts out by condemning the old régime so heartily that the carnage which accompanied its overthrow seems a slight matter. "The Terrorists were seekers after order, not after anarchy, and while it lasted the Terror was a genuine experiment in politics —crude, hideous, and never to be confounded with the work of the generous idealists of the Constituent Assembly, but, in a politically ignorant and morally weak nation like France, possessing not a single man of first-rate ability among its legislators, probably inevitable." The atrocities are not passed over or explained away, but the abolition of feudal despotism is held to be worth the price. Professor Mathews puts his view of the case clearly when he is describing the state of society in '93:

"Indeed, for any one except a possible 'suspect,' life was probably no worse under the absolutism of the Committee of Public Safety than under that of Louis XVI. One might almost say that the masses of France were actually terrorized into happiness. Criminals dared no longer show themselves. Men no longer feared the *lettre de cachet;* all were equal before the law; provisions were no longer in the hands of monopolies; military promotion was open to the peasant and artisan; lands could be bought by the poorest; education was free to all."

Regarding the leaders of the Revolution, Professor Mathews does not develop any very new opinions. His chapter on the old régime shows traces of Taine's influence, and when he comes to the politicians of the Constituent, the Legislative, and the Convention, he accepts Taine's verdict of their inefficiency, although his sympathy with the aims of the Revolution prevents him from shafting his criticisms with bitterness. He thinks the Constituent unpractical and its work doomed to failure by the undue generosity which it showed. "If ever a strong government is needed, it is when a country is just experiencing the intoxication of new liberties; but this, as we have seen, was the one thing the Assembly was unable, even unwilling, to give France. In this as in other particulars it accurately represented the philosophical, idealistic temper of the class of society from which it was elected. But, like all idealists, it could not see that it was confronted by facts and not theories; by Frenchmen and not natural men." Similarly the Terror dragged on because France suffered from a dearth of political capacity. "Had the Committee of Public Safety come under the influence of a really great man, France, during 1794, would almost certainly have gradually returned to a normal condition." In Professor Mathews's eyes, Danton and Carnot alone were eminent enough to have mastered the situation, and fate led each of them into another path.

The effect of the Revolution upon Europe is not one of Professor Mathews's main topics. He keeps closely to the affairs of France; and, where his space is so limited, he is right in doing so. His book draws its materials from the best sources, and will form a valuable addition to the manuals which deal with great historical eras.

In his long monograph on Philippeaux, M. Mautouchet is carrying forward the endless task of distinguishing between the virtuous politicians of the Revolution and the vicious; between the true patriots and the scoundrels who exploited the public excitement to their own advantage. Whenever a member of the Convention reaches the rank, we will not say of an orator or a member of the Great Committee, but of a representative on mission, the information about him becomes enormous, and it is always conflicting. Regarding Philippeaux, opinion has traversed a wide range. Leaving contemporary writers out of account, he has been assailed by Hauréau, Buchez and Roux, Louis Blanc and Ernest Hamel; he has been defended by Michelet, Jules Claretie, and Aulard. M. Mautouchet is, if we may judge from his dedication and the minuteness of his researches, a disciple of M. Aulard, and, like his master, he has warm words of praise for Philippeaux. But, what is more important, he bases his favorable verdict on a closer investigation of fact and motive than has before been undertaken.

Outside of France, Philippeaux owes his widest celebrity to the accident which made him a fellow-victim with Danton, Desmoulins, Westermann, Hérault-Séchelles, and Fabre d'Églantine. His solid reputation, however, rests upon his determined stand in La Vendée, when acting there as the representative of the Convention; upon his courage in attacking the Committee of Public Safety; and upon his solicitude for the well-being of the troops. When one speaks of what he did in La Vendée, it is not implied that he played the despot or the butcher. Besides taking resolute steps to cope with the disturbance, he uncloaked, without shrinking, the worst details of republican corruption and bestiality. Mr. Jephson, whose name is synonymous with hatred of the Revolution, is glad to quote Philippeaux's reports from the field.

M. Mautouchet's monograph is divided between two sets of interests. It is a biographical study, and yet it presents aspects of the Revolution which are wider than the career of any individual. Philippeaux was born at Ferrières, in the diocese of Beauvais, and became a lawyer practising in the province of Maine. Through the opening years of the Revolution he lived at Le Mans, and it was not until he entered the Convention that he rose to national importance. What we have called the wider aspect of this volume is concerned with the attitude of the provinces towards the Revolution in the days before the Flight to Vincennes and the September Massacres. M. Mautouchet avoids basing a general statement on what occurred at Le Mans, but one of his chief results (to us, indeed, his most interesting result) is the proof of a disposition in the provinces to go as far forward on the path of change as the capital itself would go. It is hard to make out the exact nature of the rôle which Paris took in the Revolution. Her initiative is quickly seen. The question which one asks is whether she hurried France into the Republic without the consent of the majority.

M. Mautouchet answers this question, at least partly, by an appeal to the experience of Philippeaux, who, in the *Défenseur de la Vérité,* stated his position thus: "Ce n'est pas la Révolution qui m'a rendu patriote; les maximes sacrées de la liberté et de l'égalité enflammaient mon cœur longtemps avant qu'on entrevît sa possibilité." According to the opinion of M. Mautouchet, the provinces were just as much in earnest about the overthrow of the old system as Paris, though they were also moderate in attacking the nobles and clergy. When the Constituent had established the departments, the districts, and the municipalities, a change in the personnel of administration naturally began. The names of roturiers appear among those of the clergy, the nobles, and the richer merchants on the official lists. The presence of the new element is felt to be an intrusion, but it is at first accepted. Then the "aristocracy" of the gentle and the rich scorn their colleagues, and abdicate functions which bring them into contact with the populace. M. Mautouchet recalls the willingness of the masses at the outset to respect rank, though depriving it of legal status. The subsequent troubles he traces to the pride and aloofness of those who thought themselves dispossessed. "Sans ce dépit jaloux des anciennes classes dirigeantes, qui ne purent se résigner à l'égalité, la Révolution n'aurait pas eu le caractère violent qu'elle devait présenter plus tard." So broad a proposition can hardly be proved from a single chapter of local history. Still, M. Mautouchet shows that the people of Le Mans embarked upon the Revolution in a spirit of seriousness.

The original friendliness of Philippeaux towards the Girondists changing into opposition, his antagonism towards the Hébertists, the nature of his public services and the cause of Robespierre's hatred are among the subjects to which M. Mautouchet directs attention after bringing Philippeaux from Le Mans to Paris. We have selected for notice the earlier part of the book because it may affect opinion about one of the most significant problems of the Revolution. This is a work of learning, and lends powerful support to the belief in Philippeaux's probity.

Portraits et Souvenirs. Par Camille Saint-Saëns. Paris: Société d'Édition Artistique.

Camille Saint-Saëns is the most intellectual and intelligent of all French composers, and, perhaps, the most original. His works, by no means sufficiently known or appreciated at present, are likely to endure longer than those of any of his predecessors. He is an excellent pianist, and, as an organist, has no superior among living musicians. His skill in reading at sight complicated orchestral scores astonished even Wagner. As a musical critic he is less entertaining

than the picturesque and romantic Berlioz, but also less erratic and more suggestive and helpful; more appreciative of the past, and more just to contemporaries. Some years ago he published a book entitled 'Harmonie et Mélodie,' one of the objects of which was to make known to the public the important fact, so often ignored, that harmony is not only the latest, but also the highest product of musical evolution. In the preface to his new volume of essays, for which he has chosen the apt title of 'Portraits et Souvenirs,' he remarks that one might think a century had elapsed since the earlier book was written. At that time melody was supposed to mean "inspiration," and harmony meant "science." To-day the amateurs despise the once idolized melody, worship the most obscure and incomprehensible harmonies, and are displeased if the orchestral instruments "do not dart about in all directions like poisoned rats!" The general public, luckily, goes its own way, and to it Saint-Saëns addresses his new book, containing "anecdotes, reminiscences of some great musicians I knew, and a little criticism on general musical topics. As for real memoirs," he adds, "I shall never write any"—which is to be regretted, for the author is an interesting personage, and the reminiscences contained in the present volume whet the appetite for more of the same kind.

Gounod, though older, was, perhaps, the most intimate musical friend of Saint-Saëns, and to him is devoted a most interesting chapter of sixty-three pages. "When Gounod," writes the author, "was already in full possession of his talent, he did not disdain to make me, a mere pupil still, the confidant of his most intimate artistic thoughts, and to give my ignorant mind the benefit of his knowledge. He discussed with me as with an equal, and it was thus that I became, if not his pupil, yet his disciple." When Gounod composed his "Mireille," a work which, the author thinks, has not had justice done to it, he sang and played each number to his friend as soon as it was done; and when the whole was finished, Gounod sang and Bizet and Saint-Saëns sat at the piano and the harmonium to replace the orchestra. This was some time before the performance of "Romeo," which marked the highest triumph of Gounod—the time when all the world sang his melodies, and all the young composers imitated him. "Romeo" was well received at once, whereas "Faust" was at first almost a failure. The critics said there was no melody in it, and that it would not be given more than fifteen times. Regarding its ballet, Saint-Saëns gives a queer detail. When about to begin writing the music for it, Gounod was seized with religious scruples, and sent a messenger to Saint-Saëns begging him to write it for him. His friend declared himself willing to oblige him, if necessary, but strongly urged him not to mar the unity of his score by introducing another writer's style into it; so the matter was dropped, and Gounod wrote his own ballet music, a "chef-d'œuvre du génie."

Like Liszt, Gounod was a curious mixture of Christian and pagan, of religious devotion and worldliness, in his music as well as in his life. To the world at large, and especially to his own countrymen, he is known chiefly as a composer of two very popular operas. But in the opinion of Saint-Saëns, when, in some distant time, Gounod's operas shall have been put away on the dusty shelves of libraries, where only students will know about them, his "Messe de Sainte-Cécile," his "Rédemption," and his "Mors et Vita" will remain alive "to teach future generations how great a musician gave lustre to France in the nineteenth century." When they first appeared, they were too novel to be appreciated at their true value. "It was apparent that a new genius was approaching, and, as everybody knows, such an arrival is generally not well received. Intellectually, strange to say, man is an animal that loves the night, or at least the dusk; light frightens him, he must be accustomed to it gradually." It is to be hoped that Saint-Saëns's sympathetic analyses of Gounod's oratorios will lead to their being more frequently sung in this country, as well as in France. They are in several respects superior to those of Handel and Mendelssohn, besides being less hackneyed.

Berlioz is another eminent French composer whom Saint-Saëns knew well, and whose portrait he paints vividly. "Un paradox fait homme, tel fut Berlioz." The world looked on him as vain, hateful, and wicked. To Saint-Saëns he seemed kind, "bon jusqu' à la faiblesse"; but he carefully ignores all the historic facts which prove Berlioz to have been exceptionally jealous and spiteful in regard to his rivals. As a composer he was, no doubt, absolutely original, though not fertile of ideas, and in the line of orchestral coloring he influenced all his generation; here he was a scientific experimenter as well as an artist. Saint-Saëns considers him "the first musical critic of his period, notwithstanding the frequently inexplicable singularity of his judgments. . . . The pages he wrote on the symphonies of Beethoven, on the operas of Gluck, are incomparable; one must always return to them when one wants to refresh one's imagination, purify one's taste, and wash off the dust with which every-day life and the ordinary musical experiences cover our artistic souls, which have so much to suffer in this world." His fault as a critic was that he judged works solely from one point of view—whether they bored him or pleased him personally. The ancient masters did not exist for him; Bach he looked on as a dry pedant, till Saint-Saëns one day made him acquainted with one of his choruses. Berlioz was astounded, delighted; he had not conceived it possible that Bach could write such a thing. "The plain truth was, he did not know him."

In his ability to appreciate all the great masters of the past as well as of his own time, Saint-Saëns presents a pleasing contrast to Berlioz. He deserves especial praise for his championship of Liszt, whose compositions have been as completely neglected in France as Schumann's once were for several decades. In a short and pithy essay, which cannot be commended too highly to the attention of intelligent musicians, he dwells on most of the main phases of Liszt's activity as a composer; his epoch-making symphonic poems, built upon the ruined mould of the antique symphony and the venerable overture; his delightful rhapsodies; his unjustly sneered-at operatic transcriptions, "in the least of which the hand of a composer is visible"; his transformation of the piano; his improvements in notation; the wonderful use he, a pianist, made of the voice as well as the orchestra; his rich melodic vein; his remarkable boldness and originality in the realm of harmony, in which he went even beyond Wagner, etc. Especial attention should be called to the remarks on two phases of Liszt's genius which are least known to professionals as well as to the public: his sacred works, "in which the incomparable splendor of cathedrals is reflected," and his compositions for the organ, in which, Saint-Saëns tells us as a specialist, Liszt seemed to foresee intuitively the latest improvements in that instrument. And while the professional critics have so long been ignorantly decrying Liszt as a virtuoso and a seeker after sensational effects, Saint-Saëns, with a deeper insight, finds that Liszt, on the contrary, made expression the aim and end of music. In only one point does the French composer misconceive the Hungarian. Liszt did not, as Saint-Saëns fancies, try to impose his novel works on the world too soon. On the contrary, he was altogether too modest and lacking in "push," refraining from giving his own compositions the benefit of that interpretative genius which had done more than anything else to make popular the works of the great masters from Bach, Beethoven, and Schubert to Chopin and Wagner.

Enough has been said to show what a rich source of information and suggestion the new volume of Saint-Saëns is. For the rest of the contents we must limit ourselves to indicating the titles of the chapters: Victor Massé, Antoine Rubinstein, Une Traversée en Bretagne, Un Engagement d'Artiste, Georges Bizet, Louis Gallet; Docteur à Cambridge, "Orphée," "Don Giovanni," La Défense de l'Opéra Comique, Drame Lyrique et Drame Musical, Le Théâtre au Concert, L'Illusion Wagnérienne, Le Mouvement Musical, Lettre de Las Palmas. It may be added that 'Portraits et Souvenirs' has in a short time reached its third edition.

Wall and Water Gardens. By Gertrude Jekyll. Pp. vii, 177, 132 ills. London: Hudson & Kearns; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

A new book by Gertrude Jekyll is a delight to garden lovers. Whether they care about garden design as do those who can see little good except in the formal garden, or whether they are among those for whom the natural method is the only right one, they cannot fail to find much that deeply interests them in any book by Miss Jekyll. Her catholicity of taste is remarkable. She has an eye for the best in every style, and a happy faculty of pointing out just what it is that makes for real excellence in any example. Indeed, it is this catholicity, this lack of partisanship, that makes her books so acceptable to people of such opposite convictions. Your old-fashioned landscape gardener, for whom a straight line is an abomination, finds as much to delight him in her books as does the most enthusiastic devotee of the architectural manner, for whom the T-square and the clippers are the only necessary garden tools. But, design aside, it is the class that cares about the growing of flowers for their own sake that finds the deepest satisfaction in Miss Jekyll's books. Especially is this true of such a book as 'Wall and Water Gardens.' In this she has had an unusually good chance to bring into play the inti-

mate knowledge of plants that characterizes all she writes. Her love for flowers is strong and direct, but well controlled, so that while it always makes itself felt, it never becomes obtrusive, least of all does it fall into sentimentality. This love of growing things is no idle passion. It makes her minute observation of the ways of plants, their habits of growth, their various characters, of very much deeper meaning than would mere scientific study. But even beyond her love of plants and her thorough knowledge of them, there stands out from all Miss Jekyll's work the fact that she is an artist, knowing the true relation of plants to each other and to their surroundings, and taking the keenest delight in so disposing all the material at her command as to produce garden compositions of the greatest beauty.

Miss Jekyll's earlier books, 'Wood and Garden' and 'House and Garden,' were devoted to the lessons she had learned from years of work in her own beautiful garden in Surrey. In 'Wall and Water Gardens' she opens a wider field, confining herself by no means to her own home, but seeking information, experience, and examples wherever they may best be found. The book is a practical one. It goes directly to the point. How shall we build our rough walls so that the plants may best find foothold? With what shall we back them so that in long dry spells the roots may find moisture? Where shall we place them, in shade or sun? Such questions are answered before any thought is given to the plants themselves. Then comes the rock wall in the sun, and the things that thrive upon it. Next its shady side, with ferns and saxifrages. Then terrace and garden walls, with such wealth of examples as may readily be found in England. The stream garden and marsh pools form a digression, and then our author turns to the rock garden proper, with its Alpine plants. Then follows the treatment of lakes and large ponds, of small ponds and pools, of formal basins and of water margins.

Such a list of the chief subjects covered by the book gives some idea of its scope, but none whatever of its charm, and, indeed, this charm is subtle and difficult to convey. It springs from well-trained observation, from clearness of statement, from directness of purpose, from a fine sense of appropriateness, from well-developed artistic faculties. Miss Jekyll teaches not only by her words, but by the pictures with which she makes her meaning doubly clear. The illustrations of 'Wall and Water Gardens,' beautiful though they are, are not selected merely because they are beautiful, but rather because they bring home the writer's idea more forcibly and vividly than even her words. Many of them give us charming glimpses into old English gardens, across broad stretches of lawn, by lily pools to stately houses, or over still waters to a castle whose moat now serves only as a water garden. Many of them show us spray-like masses of tiny blossoms tumbling down over old bank walls, strange tufted things, looking half like sea anemones clinging to the chinks of the stone work, or scattered groups of hart's tongues crouching at the wall-foot. Others, again, show us how things from over sea or from the mountain tops take kindly to their new abode: Xerophyllum, our old friend the turkey-beard of the New Jersey pine barrens, raising its plumy blossoms in the south of England; Anemone Apennina and Erinus Alpinus, much at home in a shady wall not many feet above the level of the sea.

Although the treatment of streams, pools, and marshy places is handled with Miss Jekyll's unfailing artistic discernment, one feels that she is not in as close personal touch with water plants as with rock plants. This is more evident, perhaps, in the chapter on water lilies than elsewhere, for here her indebtedness to sources of information other than her own experience and observation shows pretty clearly. Miss Jekyll rarely trusts herself to give us anything not entirely her own, and in this she is wise. Most readers are so little skilled in the art of seeing that they can see more through her eyes than through their own, and for that reason they prefer to read about things that have come directly under her own observation.

Le Marché Financier en 1900-1901. Par Arthur Raffalovich, Correspondant de l'Institut. Paris: Librairie Guillaumin & Cie. 1901.

As a critic of contemporary movements in finance, M. Raffalovich has the double advantage of occupying a post in the Russian financial service, which gives him an insight into the most secret currents of the markets, and of residing in Paris, where, for various reasons, the most unbiassed view of financial world-movements may be obtained. Like his previous annual volumes beginning with 1891, the new 'Marché Financier' contains separate articles reviewing in great detail the year's financial history in England, Germany, Russia, Austria, Spain, Belgium, Italy, Switzerland, Portugal, Rumania, and the United States. Some of these papers are written by M. Raffalovich himself, some by well-known experts in the countries in question.

As might be supposed, the review of Russian finance—a subject rarely treated by a sure and practised hand—possesses particular interest; but we have space only to notice M. Raffalovich's contention that the violent fluctuations of the Imperial finances, between heavy annual surplus and heavy deficit, result inevitably from the Government's operation of railways, and from its monopoly in the manufacture of spirits. It is easy to see how fluctuations of trade in a country such as Russia—dependent chiefly on agriculture, and alternating between crops of enormous magnitude, as in 1893, and ruinous harvest failures, as in 1891 and 1897—must drive the Imperial revenues from one extreme to the other. With this in mind, there is no reason for surprise at the budget surplus of 167,000,000 rubles in 1893, only two years after a deficit of 177,000,000 in 1891. But to explain is not to approve a system which thus complicates the proper functions of Government, and which makes of the national exchequer a chronic and often unsuccessful applicant at every great money market in the world.

For the reasons already stated, we have found the greater interest in M. Raffalovich's review of the general financial situation. A summary, by so well-qualified and favorably situated an observer, of the exciting events on the markets of the past twelvemonth, ought to be singularly valuable, and M. Raffalovich does not disappoint us. The year 1899 he marks out as the culmination of Europe's movement of speculative expansion. During four years prior to that time, the investing public had been steadily parting with its fixed investments, and intrusting its money to the ventures common in a period of trade expansion. Then, as in all similar periods of the past,

"Great conversions of capital preceded epochs of feverish activity, which led directly to financial crises and embarrassments. These resultant disturbances sometimes arise from accidents quite independent of the will of the parties most concerned—from a war, a harvest failure, a political or social commotion; events which instantly check the progress of affairs, cut down available resources, and cause sudden retreat of speculative capital to a place of safety. But the reaction may also proceed from the very excesses of speculation itself, and both influences may be at work simultaneously. This is exactly what occurred in 1900."

M. Raffalovich here speaks of Europe; had he said 1901, his words would have described with the closest accuracy the course of events in the United States.

On the American situation, M. Raffalovich, writing, it would appear by the context, before Wall Street's débâcle of last May, makes some interesting observations. Having reviewed the familiar reasons for this country's sudden rise in financial prestige, he proceeds:

"These, then, are the conditions which explain North America's momentary supremacy. But great care must be taken to avoid exaggerated optimism. The industrial and financial situation is very strong, but too large inferences may easily be drawn from it. The huge and rapidly developed export movement through which that situation was attained, was a consequence of peculiar circumstances which may not permanently be reproduced. One is tempted to ask if New Yorkers are not indulging in premature triumph over the decadence of London. New York has gained great amounts of capital in diverse ways; the most lucrative being railway reorganizations, which sacrificed, without right or reason, European holders of the stocks and bonds in question. Several American harvests, thanks to the Russian shortages and the Indian famines, have been sold abroad under the best conditions. . . . But the question of the final classification of the United States among the financial Powers still remain open. The States have invested capital in Europe, they have bought back their own securities. But, with all this abundance of resources, they have even now not disdained to apply for loans at the European banks."

The significance of the last phenomenon pointed out by M. Raffalovich has been strikingly demonstrated by the events of the last few weeks.

Deafness and Cheerfulness. By A. W. Jackson, A.M., author of 'James Martineau: A Biography and Study.' Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1901.

Mr. Jackson's object in writing this little book is to induce a habit of cheerfulness in those who are suffering from the infirmity which has pressed so heavily on his own life. His deafness dates from the civil war, and was caused, we have been told, by a cannon-ball which whizzed so near his head that he considered himself at the time to have had a fortunate escape. Deafness did not at once ensue. It is, we suppose, his own story that he details on the eleventh page. Starting from this example, he writes first of unconscious deafness; and, having been told by a good aurist that 60 per cent. of the community are deaf in some degree, he advises those who suspect no trouble to undergo examina-

tion, if haply they may be made wise in time. Nothing in the book is more pathetic than the account of his first losses—the clock-tick, the robin's song, the ripple of a loved stream, the drip-drop of the rain upon the roof. To many who enjoy approximately perfect hearing, this account of the sorrows of deafness from a sensitive and imaginative sufferer will be a startling revelation, and will open for them new avenues of sympathy. A chapter on its social afflictions will awaken responsive echoes in ears much better than Mr. Jackson's but not what they were once. We are obliged, however, to regard his suffering as uncommonly severe, involving not only the defect of hearing, but those dreadful noises in the head which frequently accompany deafness, while these things and all the concomitant social disabilities had for their victim a man of acute, if not quite morbid, sensibility. The subjective emphasis is revealed by contrast when he tells us of a friend deafer than himself, who testifies that in twenty-five years he has never been unpleasantly reminded of his deafness by his friends. Mr. Jackson may be hypersensitive, but this man or his friends must be quite out of the common.

A chapter on "Business Embarrassments" gives us a new sense of the tremendous handicap that deafness is to a man's business usefulness and success. Next follows "The Pathos of Deafness," but we had had so much of this already that the chapter comes near to being an anti-climax, especially as some of the humors of deafness are first recounted. Mr. Jackson's private contribution is a grace at table in concert with the deacon of his church. So far we have had more to aggravate the consciousness of deafness than to allay its smart. There is excuse for this in the appeal that is thus made to those who associate with deaf people. Mr. Jackson's book has quite as much admonition for these as for the deaf.

The chapter which most justifies the title of the book is the seventh, "Helps and Consolations of Deafness." We have compared this with Harriet Martineau's 'Letter to the Deaf,' which did good service in its day, and have found much general agreement with some difference. Both plead against false shame and for the trumpet when, instead of hearing, we are getting an uncertain sound. Miss Martineau's anticipation of lip-reading is very interesting. On this Mr. Jackson lays much stress, and more than Miss Martineau on the consolations of literature and science. Her more social disposition speaks in her insistence that society must not be given up. Mr. Jackson quotes her and demurs: one must discharge his duties to society, but if the effort to bear a part in social functions is wearisome and irritating, inducing nervous exhaustion and mental depression, the deaf should spare themselves. The book can safely be commended to the deaf and their impatient friends.

The Teachings of Dante. By Charles Allen Dinsmore. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

In his 'Convito' Dante wrote: "Know every one that nothing harmonized by a musical bond can be transmuted from its own speech to another without breaking all its sweetness and harmony." This has sometimes been the text of those who would decry all study of poetry in translation. But, if we mistake not, Mr. Dinsmore has composed his volume upon Dante's thought without an intimate knowledge of the Italian tongue, and his work is so admirable that it is a stumbling-block for one who would apply Dante's dictum strictly. Mr. Dinsmore has not concerned himself chiefly with the final flavor of the Dantesque style; he has not attempted, as other writers have, to convey to his own page something of the power of "that magical word too few." Nor has he attempted to impart in pedestrian prose any conception of the beauty of Dante's canorous lines. But he has produced a sane and sincere exposition of the poet's religious thought, and this is surely a work eminently worth while in an age with a growing tendency to value Dante most highly for certain subordinate phases of his poetic power, for his minute realism of observation, or his marvellous gift of lighting his page by a vivid glare or slow, pervasive glow. But Mr. Dinsmore has been at the pains of grasping the poem as a whole. If, as Parsons said, "time and toil, fasting and solitude" are necessary to the translator of Dante, the expositor of the poet's perplexities will find the strictest meditation no less needful. Mr. Dinsmore's book gives evidence of close and careful thought, and bears no marks of *la fretta che l'onestade ad ogni atto dismaga.*

The preliminary chapters upon Dante's outer and inner life are well informed and well considered. It does not, however, seem wise at this late day to doubt that the beatific lady of the 'Vita Nuova' and the 'Commedia' was Dante's neighbor, Beatrice Portinari, who married Simone de' Bardi. Despite an occasional iconoclastic authority, it certainly does not seem "more probable that she was some maiden to whom Dante gave the name of Beatrice, the blessed one, *to hide her identity.*" Indeed, Mr. Dinsmore is not consistent in his doubt, for just over the page he says: "With the death of Beatrice in his [Dante's] twenty-fifth year the first great sorrow came into his life." Now it was Beatrice de' Bardi who died in 1290, when Dante was exactly twenty-five. Nor can we quite agree with the implication of a sentence which follows: "Many go so far as to assert that he yielded to sensual lusts." Every one knows that, at the death of Beatrice, Dante's quest of his ideal wavered: Miss Rossetti and others have half believed that he became for the time something of the Epicurean, contracting an earthly marriage with Gemma dei Donati, and tasting some of the "settled sweets" of life. But whatever the truth may be, "sensual lusts" is not the perfect phrase.

But all this is preparatory and incidental. Mr. Dinsmore has aimed not to produce a literary study of Dante and his poem, but to expound what he believes to be the central spiritual truths of that epic of the inner life. He rightly conceives the scene of the 'Commedia' to be not the future existence, but the spiritual world which eternally is, with its three great subdivisions of sin, trial, and beatitude. The account of the "Inferno" as an experience of sin is conducted with great sincerity and with a lurid intensity caught from Dante himself, but as unusual as salutary in easy-going days. The characterization of Lucifer, at the bottom of the pit, as the complete type of the real nature of sin, will admit of quotation:

"Huge, bloody, loathsome, grotesque, self-absorbed; not dead, nor yet alive; having three faces, one fiery red, one between white and yellow, one black—indicating the threefold character of sin as malignant, impotent, and ignorant; every moment sending forth chilling death, making others woful in his own woes; punishing his followers with frightful torture, and thus undoing himself; the tears of the world flowing back to him as to their source and becoming his torment; the movement of his wings, by which he seeks to extricate himself, freezing the rivers, and thus imprisoning him—what more fitting personification could this seer have devised to show evil in its real deformity and folly?"

In passing from the murky "Inferno" to the "Purgatorio," where the "darkness is quieted by hope," Mr. Dinsmore comes to a theme common in present-day psychology. His discussion of "The Quest of Liberty" is excellent; and not the least fructifying section of the book is his chapter upon "Purgatory in Literature," in which the similarity of motive in the "Purgatorio," 'The Scarlet Letter,' and Tennyson's "Guinevere" is strikingly developed. It is interesting to note that, in spite of Mr. Dinsmore's all but worshipful attitude toward Dante, and in spite of his general theological purpose, he affirms that, in his conception of the means of sanctification, Dante is human and reasonable rather than distinctively Christian—in holding, that is, that virtue and inner peace are to be attained by ethical, not by supernatural, means. The final emphasis of the volume is rightfully, but somewhat unusually, laid upon the "Paradiso." The chapters describing and expounding the celestial spheres are perhaps the best in the book. They should lead even the reader unfamiliar with Dante at first hand to feel the truth of Dean Plumptre's sentence: "Post Dantis Paradisum nihil restat nisi visio Dei."

Enough has been said to show the peculiar merit of Mr. Dinsmore's book. It is written with a distinct theological preoccupation, but it is not overblown, to the reader's discomfort, by the dust of creeds. It lacks the sympathetic subtlety often found in Miss Rossetti's 'Shadow of Dante'; it fails, likewise, to attain the breadth of view and catholicity seen in such essays as those by Lowell, and Church, and Norton; it does not pretend to the minute Dantean scholarship of Oscar Kuhns, not to mention others than writers in English; but it is an honest piece of work, seriously to be reckoned with by the earnest student of Dante's thought.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, G. B., and Stephens, H. M. Select Documents of English Constitutional History. Macmillan. $2.25.
Adams, W. I. L. Woodland and Meadow. The Baker & Taylor Co. $2.50.
Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin. (Pocket Classics.) Macmillan. 25 cents.
Baker, R. S. Seen in Germany. McClure, Phillips & Co. $2.
Balfour, Graham. The Life of Robert Louis Stevenson. 2 vols. Scribners. $4.
Bonehill, Ralph. Boys of the Fort. The Mershon Co. $1.25.
Booth, Maud B. Lights of Childland. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.35.
Bowker, R. R. Of Politics. (The Art of Life.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Brine, Mary D. Mother and Baby. R. H. Russell.
Britton, N. L. Manual of the Flora of the Northern States and Canada. H. Holt & Co. $2.25.
Brown, Helen D. Her Sixteenth Year. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.

Chenery, Susan. As the Twig is Bent. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Chesnutt, C. W. The Marrow of Tradition. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Dunbar, P. L. Candle-Lightin' Time. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
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Foster, Mary H., and Cummings, Mabel H. Asgard Stories. Silver, Burdett & Co. 36 cents.
Friedman, I. K. By Bread Alone. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.
Giddings, F. H. Inductive Sociology. Macmillan. $1.10.
Grahame, R. B. C. A Vanished Arcadia. Macmillan. $2.50.
Graydon, W. M. The Princess of the Purple Palace. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.10.
Habberton, John. Caleb Wright. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. $1.50.
Halévy, Daniel. Essais sur le Mouvement Ouvrier en France. Paris: George Bellais. 3 fr. 50c.
Harrison, Frederic. George Washington, and Other American Addresses. Macmillan. $1.75.
James, Martha. My Friend Jim. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Johnson, Clifton. The Isle of the Shamrock. Macmillan. $2.
Kellogg, V. L. Elementary Zoölogy. H. Holt & Co. $1.20.
Kingsley, Charles. The Heroes; or, Greek Fairy Tales for My Children. R. H. Russell.
Lang, Andrew. The Mystery of Mary Stuart. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
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Markham, Edwin. Lincoln, and Other Poems. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.
Martin, W. A. P. The Lore of Cathay. Fleming H. Revell Co.
Merrick, Caroline E. Old Times in Dixie Land. The Grafton Press.
Newspaper Rate Book. Chicago: Nelson Chesman & Co. $5.
Peary, Josephine D. The Snow Baby. Frederick A. Stokes. $1.30.
Phelps, Elizabeth Stuart. Within the Gates. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Quick, Herbert. In the Fairyland of America. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.30.
Remsen, Ira. A College Text-Book of Chemistry. H. Holt & Co. $2.
Saintsbury, George. Balzac's Comédie Humaine. (Temple Edition.) 40 vols. Macmillan.
Savage, M. J. The Passing and the Permanent in Religion. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.35.
Seaman, Owen. Horace at Cambridge. John Lane. $1.25.
Seton-Thompson, Ernest. Lives of the Hunted. Scribners. $1.75.
Stephen, Leslie. Letters of John Richard Green. Macmillan. $4.
Téllez, F. G. Don Gil de las Calzas Verdes. H. Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Triggs, H. I., and Tanner, Henry, jr. Some Architectural Works of Inigo Jones. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: John Lane.
Upton, Bertha and Florence K. The Golliwog's "Auto-go-cart." Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Walter, J. E. The Principles of Knowledge. West Newton (Pa.): Johnston & Penney. $2.
Waples, Rufus. A Handbook of Parliamentary Practice. New ed. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 7, 1901.

The Week.

Tuesday's triumph at the polls in this city could not well have been more complete or more heartening. Tammany was smitten hip and thigh. In the face of enormous odds, the decent people of New York have elected their Mayor, Comptroller, President of the Board of Aldermen, and three out of five Borough Presidents. With peculiar emphasis of delight in political courage, they have, by an extra majority, put in the District Attorney's office for the next four years the fearless Jerome, undaunted antagonist of crime and of bosses. Never was a fusion ticket more skilfully constructed or more loyally supported. City offices for the city's good was the sufficient watchword of the campaign; and honest men all through the city and throughout the country are to-day thanking God and taking courage at the magnificent and inspiring results. First among these we reckon the disappearance—the final disappearance, we believe—of some of the hoary delusions which have lain upon New York like a nightmare. That Tammany was invulnerable; that the city did not really desire honest government; that universal suffrage was a failure; that the boss was a necessity in a vast democracy; that bribery and corruption were too powerful for decency—these are but a few of the bogeys with which despondent spirits have been frightening themselves and terrifying their fellows these many years. But one day's fall of the ballots ends all that. Tammany had the offices; it had the police; it had the prestige of four years of absolute control; it had the bank accounts of the corporations to draw upon; every political art and trick in its repertory it brought into play—but what did it all avail against the single-minded determination of the reputable classes to sweep away its misrule?

What cuts the Tammany chiefs to the heart, and what should mightily cheer on those who give themselves to the work of reform with a passionate faith in democracy, is the fact that Tammany was repudiated in its own strongholds. Those "dangerous classes" on the East Side, those foreign-born voters who could never be got to do anything but regard the suffrage as a marketable commodity, and into whose heads it was absurd to expect the notion of civic pride or good government ever to enter—they are the electors who most wonderfully responded to the moral appeals of the canvass. Take the Eighth Assembly District as an instance. This is Martin Engel's hunting-ground. It was there that the "red-light" iniquity most abounded; there that vice flaunted itself most securely, and that crime was boldest; there, too, that the police were most used in defence of criminals and to the thwarting of justice. But it was also in this district that the University Settlement lifts its beacon; there that the Citizens' Union and the Woman's League sent workers. What do the returns from this Gibraltar of Tammany disclose? A bare majority for Shepard of 61 votes, where the figures used to run into the hundreds! We see, then, that even the East Side knows when government becomes too oppressive and too rotten longer to be borne. Those homes of poverty understand, as well as the families of the rich, when the safety of their children is attacked; and know how to resent the insolence and the rapacity of Croker and his vile agents, who boast of being able to buy them like cattle. To our mind, the returns from the East Side are more eloquent of promise for the future of democracy than was the attitude of those highly educated gentlemen who saw so clearly that Tammany could not be defeated, that they chose the moment of its impending ruin to ally their fortunes with the unclean thing.

The shipping-subsidy lobby at Washington is again filled with horror at the arrival of Western Congressmen who actually want the subsidized vessels to carry freight. This is really a disgusting form of opposition to the plans of the subsidy schemers. Opponents who object to a subsidy on principle, they can meet in the open, but this insidious attack upon their pet measure by men who say they favor subsidies, but desire to see them bestowed on "freight-carriers," is hard to bear quietly. Those representatives from Wisconsin and Washington, with the Boston exporters who on Thursday called upon the President to say that they were against subsidized "ocean greyhounds," but should like mighty well to see a bill passed that would help the farmer get his freight to foreign markets—what are they but so many snakes in the grass? Why lug in freight? That is one of the last things the subsidy beggars think of. Legislation to secure "freight-carriers" is not in the least what they want. Subsidy-carriers are what they are aiming at, and they have a fine assortment of vessels ready to moor alongside the Treasury, and to be laden with subsidy until the hatches lift.

Secretary Gage's announcement, on Thursday, that he would renew the special offer for redemption of Government bonds, was a natural consequence of the previous week's increase in surplus revenue. It will be recalled that the recent offer to redeem in cash other Government bonds than those already covered by the standing policy of the Treasury, was made on September 10 and suspended October 2. The order was issued when the money market was much deranged by the news of the attack on President McKinley, and it was not revoked until $20,000,000 had been redeemed under its terms, and the money market had shown signs of undoubted ease. Some surprise has been expressed at the renewal of the order now, when there is no disturbance in the money market. This questioning Secretary Gage has answered by referring to the October revenue figures, which again show an extremely heavy surplus. The reason why the special offer was withdrawn and then renewed again is that, for several weeks, the Treasury figures seemed to indicate that the increase in the daily surplus, as compared with 1900, had pretty nearly ceased. Those indications have turned out deceptive. The Government finances during October moved exactly as they had done in the three preceding months. The $4,000,000 deficit of July, 1900, disappeared wholly in the same month this year. In August, a deficit of $811,000 for 1900 was replaced this year by a surplus of $6,000,000. September yielded a $6,100,000 surplus in 1900, which was increased this year to $12,123,000. Similarly, last month produced a surplus of $9,186,000, as against an excess of only $3,633,000 in October a year ago. It will thus appear that the Government's surplus is averaging six million dollars per month above that of the preceding fiscal year. That year's total surplus was $75,000,000; at this season's rate of increase, the fiscal year 1902 would yield a surplus not far below $150,000,000. The obvious moral of the whole situation is that Congress should take in hand, at once and with definite purpose, the question of revenue reduction. Both Secretary Gage and President Roosevelt have positive ideas on this subject, which will soon be heard from.

The figures just published by the Bureau of Statistics throw some light upon the general movement of the commerce of the leading countries of the world, and show that in twenty out of thirty selected countries imports exceed exports. The countries which have a balance in their favor, or, as the protectionist might put it, "produce more than they consume," are chiefly the South American republics and the United States. On the Continent, only Austria and European Russia occupy a similar position, all the other countries import-

ing more than they export. Among the importing countries must also be reckoned England. The showing thus made is, of course, exactly what might have been expected in view of what has been going on during the past few months, and, no doubt, will be taken by the Europeans who have been talking about the "American peril" as a striking corroboration of their fears. It is true that the growth of American manufacturing and of our exports of capital has been coincident with more sedulous exclusion of European goods by higher duties on our side of the ocean, but the main reason for the "unfavorable" conditions on the Continent must be found in the general depression in manufacturing which has prevailed there, and in the growth of industrial combinations in tariff-protected countries. How these Trusts, by their attempt to raise prices, have really opened the market for increased imports of American goods may be seen in the case of coal and manufactures of iron and steel. The remedy for their industrial evils lies in freer conditions of trade, and not in the higher duties recommended as a remedy.

The export of nearly $3,000,000 in gold, last Thursday, from New York to Paris, was remarkable chiefly because of the season of the year when it occurred. It does not mean that America's imports of merchandise from France, or from Europe as a whole, have greatly exceeded exports. As a matter of fact, we have been buying from France of late more than she has bought from us; that country and Switzerland being almost the only European ones of which such a statement could be made. But the excess against us, in the case of France, is slight—six million dollars for the nine past months; and in the case of all the European states combined our export balance for the period, as reported by the Treasury, has been no less than $447,000,000. This is the largest excess ever reported. It greatly exceeds the export balance on our European trade, even in the same nine months of 1898, which were followed by heavy shipments of gold from England and France to us. No better proof than the present situation could be had to show that merchandise trade is not the sole governing force in the movement of international exchange and the international flow of gold. As we have often had occasion to point out, our very large credit balance on merchandise account has been quite offset by the purchase from Europe both of our own and of European securities, and by our bankers' borrowings in Europe to help through last winter's costly "deals" in the New York market.

The German Emperor's alleged threat to "smash things" if commercial treaties were not concluded, has roused Senator Cullom to declare that William cannot "frighten" the United States, and that if he wants a tariff war, we will give him as good as he sends. But, bless you, Senator, the Emperor was not speaking of the proposed treaty with the United States, even if he said what is reported. It is Austria and Italy and Russia that he has in mind when he thinks of Germany's most pressing questions of reciprocal trade. Aside from that, what a queer attitude it is for a country seeking trade, anxious to extend its exports, and searching the world over for customers, to be so quick to put the chip on its shoulder and indulge in tall talk about retaliation. It is business that we want, Senator, not a quarrel.

The brutal murder of two non-union workmen at Columbia, S. C., by a mob of former strikers will be a shock to Southerners who have cherished an inherited pride in the freedom from labor controversies enjoyed by the South. The men in question belonged to a party which had come from the North to take the places of certain men, employed by the Southern Railway, who had struck work. The apparent quiet of the past few weeks deceived the new men into supposing that the heat of the contest was over, and they had therefore abandoned all precautions against violence. This murder recalls attention to the change that is in progress in the South as a result of the expansion in manufacturing. Labor organizations are rapidly establishing themselves in many places, and are making efforts to secure shorter hours and more favorable conditions of work. If this were all, the Southern trades-union movement would not differ from that in progress in the Northern States. Recent experience, however, makes it apparent that trades-unionism in the South has some unique characteristics. Labor contests often degenerate, as in the instance at Columbia, into a sort of combination of strike and feud, in which differences are carried much further than elsewhere, and revenge is visited upon individuals rather than upon groups of men. The strikes that have occurred during the past year in the North have given rise to much violence, and Northern trades-unionists are still certainly far ahead of Southerners in the aggregate amount of disturbance which they have caused. It is not the number, but the peculiar character of these assaults, which resemble nothing else so much as a lynching, that makes the labor situation in the South noteworthy.

The Municipal Art League of Chicago is about to put the public spirit of that enterprising city to the test. Nothing less ambitious is proposed than a membership of 500,000 and an annual income of $1,000,000. Assuming that this sum would be wisely spent, the embellishment of the city by mural paintings in the public buildings, by sculpture in the parks and open places, by improvement of the ordinary street fittings, would show a marked advance, year by year; and, with anything like the hearty co-operation of the municipal authorities, Chicago within our time might become notable among beautiful cities. Of course, this is on the theory that the plan is practicable. Those who have watched the recruiting of our own two or three art societies of a popular character, and who know the difficulties of the task, will envy a civic pride which permits a membership of half a million for an art society to be thought of, even as a dream.

In a discussion of the Philippine problem in the *Journal of the Military Service Institution*, Major E. J. McClernand, Military Governor of the District of Cebu, declares that armed resistance to the Americans is sure to appear again in some of the provinces in which it has been suppressed. "It seems," he says, "too much to expect that outbreaks will not occur for years to come in different parts of the archipelago. It will doubtless be, as it is now, a guerrilla warfare, but experience has demonstrated that this is the most difficult of all wars to terminate. . . . Our people should not permit themselves to grow tired of the Philippine problem, thinking to lay it aside as solved and completed." None the less, Major McClernand believes that in the end mutual benefits will accrue both to the United States and to the Philippines. He finds it necessary to make an earnest appeal for justice, rightly believing that no such rule as ours in the Philippines can possibly succeed unless based upon equity, and he admits the likelihood of arbitrary and cruel acts when an army is scattered, as is ours, in detachments under inexperienced young officers or non-commissioned officers. What Major McClernand fails to see is that a policy primarily founded on injustice cannot make itself truly popular with or grateful to the Filipinos until the original wrong is righted. The only way to do this is to turn the islands over to their rightful owners.

France seems resolved on pursuing the collection of her claims against Turkey *à outrance*, and both English and Italian squadrons are witnessing the arrival of a French fleet in the Ægean Sea. The event is significant chiefly because it marks the complete downfall of the traditional British, and one might say European, theory of dealing with the Porte. It was Disraeli who established the theory that the Ottoman Empire must be maintained at all hazards, and his political legatees have stood by

his teachings, at fearful cost to the moral feeling of England. To-day the aggressive policy of France rouses no protest, and apparently evokes no fear, while the peaceful annexation of Crete to Greece—a most natural consummation, which yet, some five years ago, terrified the Powers in Concert—is being accomplished almost without comment. Nor is this changed attitude of Europe due merely to the fact that the British are following the trail of De Wet and Botha too desperately to attend to a less urgent concern. It is certain that the legitimate heir of Beaconsfield has forgotten the paternal doctrine, and that Salisbury would never interfere in the near East except for the defence of Egypt and of the Suez Canal. It is doubtful, too, if the Concerted Powers would again stop Russia short of Constantinople. It is high time that this old superstition should be shaken, for one can already see that the time for *laisser-faire* is passing. Conditions in Northern Turkey will soon call for bold and sagacious direction. In the agitation of the Macedonian Committee, in the outrages of unpaid Turkish garrisons, in the consistent campaign of the Albanians against intrusive nationalities, one cannot as yet recognize any genuinely national movement. One cannot, however, fail to see that the ferment is working, that the concrete disorders have got beyond the power of the Sultan to control, and that the situation must inevitably tend to the erecting of a second line of buffer states or to the intervention of the great Powers.

The debates in the French Chamber concerning the best means of overcoming the deficit of 50,000,000 francs continue to raise many important questions of state policy. Disregarding the practical plans proposed by M. Caillaux, the Finance Minister, for raising the funds needed, the Budget Commission has put forward several impossible measures, any one of which, if adopted, would plunge the nation into either foreign complications or domestic embarrassments. Among the expedients recommended were the suppression of the embassy at the Vatican, the abolition of the Ministry of Public Worship, and the state ownership and operation of the business of refining petroleum. It is needless to say that neither of the first two of these plans, with their far-reaching implications, will be adopted. The really dangerous scheme is the suggested seizure of the petroleum industry. The proposal apparently grows out of one of the measures recommended by M. Caillaux, who advocated the increase of the excise duty on petroleum. This suggestion was at once taken up and transformed into a plan for placing petroleum on the same footing with tobacco as a Government monopoly. The enormous initial outlay and the elaborate organization which the scheme would necessitate seem to have been wholly ignored by the Budget Commission. Of course, such a measure would require considerable time to become effective, even under the most favorable circumstances, and to recommend it as a means of immediate relief is absurd.

No pains have been spared to give the return of the Duke of York to England an imperial significance. As his tour of the world was primarily a compliment to colonial loyalty, so the colonial representatives were most prominent at his reception. Home English and Colonials alike have good reason for congratulation on the completion of the heir apparent's enterprise. To repeat his father's triumph of a generation ago would have been impossible. Albert Edward Prince of Wales represented Great Britain at the height of her political influence—the arbitress of Europe. The loyal welcome which the present Duke of York has everywhere received has inevitably been clouded by the uncertainty of the conflict in South Africa, while in the very midst of the rejoicing in the metropolis came news of the misfortune to Col. Benson's isolated column, fallen upon by a wily and formidable foe, with casualties one-fifth as many as those of Buller's whole army at the time of his attempt to cross the Tugela, and such a disproportionate loss of officers as recalls the early battles of the war. Even the cold comfort of the reported recovery of two guns lost in this fierce encounter has proved illusory,

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If the Peace Congress at Glasgow this fall attracted little attention at a time when the wars in the Philippines and South Africa refuse to be ended, the courage of its members in meeting in the land of which Chamberlain is now high priest cannot be gainsaid. That there were many reasons for discouragement is, of course, true. Many delegates, for instance, must have shared Baron d'Estournelles de Constant's disappointment at the treatment which the International Court of Arbitration has received from several nations. This French authority believes that they see in it a body which may possibly in time grow so as to deprive them of some of their own powers, and thinks that they are deliberately planning to make it innocuous. At the same time, the members of the Congress were able to cite some favorable signs, and one or two significant events have occurred since their meeting. When in Milan recently, the King of Italy sent for the head of the local peace society, who is likewise the editor of one of the city's best newspapers. To him the young King expressed his abhorrence of war and of all that war meant, and his hope that international action, as best illustrated in the case of Crete, would more and more tend to terminate peacefully international disputes. In Belgium many women have sent a petition to the Chamber of Deputies protesting against an armed peace and the resultant taxation which rests so heavily upon the poor. They protested also against the drunkenness and vice which result from life in barracks. Their example is one which might well be followed by women, the world over.

To be holier than the Pope is usually to be ridiculous, and many will feel that the German censorship, in suppressing on religious grounds a work which the Greek Church allows to circulate in Russia, has shown an excess of zeal. Of course, censorship is not compatible with a fully developed sense of humor, but it would seem that, when the church which excommunicated Tolstoy allows his apologia, 'The Meaning of My Life,' to pass unhindered, the devout Roman Catholics of Germany might practise a similar tolerance. Perhaps they would if the book were submitted to them directly, and the censor's solicitude may merely show that curious exacerbation of the olfactory sense which sniffs an offence where none is intended.

Certain little-known features of Papal finance are discussed in a recent number of that excellent Milanese journal *La Perseveranza*. It appears that, at a time when the old Papal nobility were deeply involved in the real-estate speculations which ruined half the princely families, the Vatican was a frequent lender upon the security of real estate. By foreclosure it became a large property-owner in the part of the city beyond the Tiber, which, according to Papal theory, was still a possession of the Church. Gradually this banking function of the Vatican became more extended. The consolidation of the debts of one embarrassed family required a loan of six million lire ($1,200,000, roughly). Operations of this extent soon led to complications with the Italian Government, which the Vatican has never consented to recognize. In order to liquidate his affairs, a prince of a family which has supplied several Popes, sold his valuable art collections to the state, directing the transfer of the money to the Vatican. For some time the payment was held up, because the Vatican could receive no funds from, or even conduct negotiations of any kind with, the *de facto* Government. The intervention of a trust company made the transfer possible. Just what the effect of this policy upon the finances has been, no one but the Papal authorities could say. In any case, these incidents cast an interesting side-light upon certain conditions of the maintenance of a Papal party in the enemy's country.

THE MUNICIPAL CAMPAIGN.

In the revision of New York's Constitution by the Convention of 1894, it was provided that thereafter local contests should come in the odd-numbered years, when neither President nor Congressmen are chosen, and when no State officials are chosen except members of the lower branch of the Legislature. The end aimed at was thus expressed in the address to the people which the Republican majority of the Convention issued after the completion of their work:

"We seek to separate in the larger cities municipal elections from State and National elections, to the end that the business affairs of our great municipal corporations may be managed upon their own merits, uncontrolled by National and State politics, and to the end, also, that the great issues of National and State politics may be determined upon their merits, free from the disturbing and often demoralizing effect of local contests."

This reform has been fully vindicated during the last few weeks. The recent campaign in this city was a campaign on municipal issues solely. All that the people have thought about has been the conduct of their local affairs. All that campaign speakers have been able to get a hearing for has been talk about the city. Questions of State or National politics have cut no figure whatever. Any attempt—and such attempts have been made—to persuade voters that they should cast their ballots with reference to the government at Albany or the Presidential contest of 1904, has fallen perfectly flat. How New York city shall be administered during 1902 and 1903 has been the only thing that people would consider. This is an immense and a permanent gain.

If any one doubts that a compelling moral issue has been the life of this city campaign, let him mark the voices which came on Sunday from the pulpit of Greater New York. Such unanimity and high earnestness denoted something other than an impending election. They signified the approach of a moral crisis in the city's life. These ministers of religion, under our system of voluntary support, would never think of "preaching politics" when it was a mere question of public policy about which their hearers might be divided politically. They feel themselves called upon to speak out, as messengers of God, on the eve of an election, only when they see the devil's messengers arrayed against the welfare of the city and the moral safety of its men and women. To these clergymen, as to all men whose hearts and consciences are not seared, the issue of this municipal struggle was an issue of life or death.

Two personalities in this campaign have been living illustrations of the truth that a moral question in a great public debate will not down. In spite of Mr. Shepard's high character and great powers of political advocacy, he has not been able to keep men from asking, "Are you for vice, or against it? Do you defend thieves in office? Are you for protecting crime, or for punishing it?" And the progress of Mr. Shepard's own campaign has shown that the fearful handicap under which he has labored has been a moral one. He has been compelled to be silent about rascally candidates for office, or else to speak of them as his "coadjutors." He has had to go about like a Roman convict chained to a corpse; and there was almost a recognition, in his last appeal to voters, of the body of death from which he had to pray to be delivered. In a really pathetic way he asked for votes in spite of the degrading companionship in which he had placed himself. It was a striking exhibition of the power of evil to pull down a good man who consents temporarily to work through it for what he believes to be useful ends.

As Mr. Shepard has shown that being on the wrong side of a moral issue fatally weakens even a man panoplied in a good repute and in all the arts of a skilful advocate, so have we seen in the person of Mr. Jerome that a just cause is better than eloquence, and a fearless stand upon fundamental morals more effective than all the skill of the cleverest politician. Mr. Jerome has done what no candidate for office in New York has done within recent years. He has aroused moral enthusiasm in high and low; stirred cynical and despondent men of the wealthier classes as nothing political ever moved them before; and made himself a sort of figure of hope, a champion at last raised up for the oppressed poor. And how has he done it? By simple truthfulness of speech. He has not spoken of thieves as if they were honest men. To him crime has been crime, even when committed by a politician, and the Ten Commandments have not budged even for the sake of a rich corruptionist. He has thrust his Ithuriel's spear at sinister figures among his own supporters when occasion called for it. His very rashness, his hasty blows, have made friends for him; people still like a man who "ain't afeared." And the result has been that, far and wide, all through the country as well as in this city and State, Mr. Jerome has come to be regarded as the man who has done most to lift the campaign out of the insincerity of ordinary political contests, with the managers smirking compliments at each other, and very likely striking hands in the dark, and to place it just where it should be—on the level of plain morals. Surely his moral fervor, his intrepidity, his fighting the thing through and faltering not, will remain an inspiring memory and example to young men in New York long after the close of his great controversy.

These are some of the manifestations which confirm the hopeful view for the future of non-partisan administration of city affairs indulged in by Mr. Shepard in the article on the "Political Inauguration of the Greater New York" which he contributed to the *Atlantic Monthly* for January, 1898. In that interesting and philosophical study of conditions and tendencies in the metropolis the late Tammany candidate for Mayor pointed out certain things which must work for the coming of the day when "we shall no longer fear Tammany victories." Having shown how the heterogeneous elements of our population and its shifting character had made New York resemble a mining camp, he asserted that "the conditions for good politics have at last begun to mend," and he sustained the contention by arguments which time has only strengthened. For one thing, he urged that the population is steadily becoming more homogeneous, through the relatively smaller proportion of foreign immigrants and the Americanization of the children and grandchildren of earlier immigrants; that the American politics of the Irish voters are less dependent upon the wrongs of their native land than formerly; and that a settled neighborhood feeling has begun to develop in many districts. The increasing jealousy of interference in our city government from Albany seemed to Mr. Shepard, four years ago, to be rendering such interference more difficult, and the growth of the home-rule idea in the interval has been even more rapid than he apparently anticipated. Finally, there was this fundamental consideration, that "public sentiment, irregular, imperfect, sometimes unreasonable, as it is and always will be, grows steadier and more intelligent."

It is upon this increasing steadiness and intelligence of public sentiment that the non-partisan principle of municipal government is building, and our present situation fully justifies the sanguine view which Mr. Shepard took directly after its defeat in the election of 1897. That election had proved, in his opinion, "the most signal demonstration ever known in the history of the metropolis of the growth of rational voting." But every candid observer of the recent campaign finds evidence of still further growth in the rational manner of considering municipal contests. For example, Mr. Shepard declared four years ago that "machine politics in the United States has not received a more serious blow than the treatment accorded the Platt candidate for Mayor, although he was a man of the highest character, of distinguished ability, and of long and valuable service—but for his alliance, worthy of the Mayoralty." It is a still more serious blow, however, which machine politics has received this year, when a man of precisely the same type, who was nominated by Croker, has won to his support only a few Democrats of standing and influence outside Tammany Hall, as against the large number of Republicans of the same class who were ready to support Tracy in 1897.

It is interesting also to note how fully Mr. Shepard's prevision regarding the representative of non-partisanship in the contest of 1897 has been justified by the canvass of 1901. Having asserted that there had never been a more creditable campaign than that of the Citizens' Union then, and that it "rendered a lasting service to American politics," he went on:

"Ordinarily, the defeated head of a ticket has lost his 'availability'; but to-day Seth Low, it is agreeable to see, occupies a more enviable position than he has ever held, or than is held by any other American now active in politics. He has the deserved good fortune to stand before the country for a cause which, to the average American, is largely embodied in his person. What was believed before his nomination was confirmed at the election; he was plainly the strongest candidate who could have been chosen to represent his cause. He polled 40,000 votes more than his ticket; that is to say, there were that number of citizens to whom the cause meant Seth Low, and no one else, or who were willing to leave the tickets of their respective machines only on the Mayoralty, that they might cast their votes for him. He has come out of the campaign far stronger than he entered it."

This year we not only have had the same candidate for Mayor as four years ago, with his added personal strength, but we have had the Republican organization supporting him upon the same non-partisan platform upon which he stood in 1897, and more than one Democratic organization equally earnest for his election upon his pledges that his administration, in case of his election, would recognize no obligation to any political body. Meanwhile, only an insignificant proportion of intelligent men appeared blinded by the appeal to partisanship which was ingeniously made by the able advocate whom Croker picked out as the Tammany candidate for Mayor. In all this there is great warrant for hopefulness on the part of good citizens.

THE WAR DEPARTMENT AND THE STATE TROOPS.

In view of the many rumors as to the recommendations which Secretary Root will make in his forthcoming report in regard to the State troops, an official announcement of his attitude is eagerly awaited by all concerned. It has been stated, for instance, that the War Department will bend all its energies to the creation of a body of State troops which shall stand between the regular army and the present militia organizations as a new national reserve, capable of taking the field in support of the Federal troops whenever the necessity arises. Some have believed that Mr. Root will confine himself to recommending practical methods of bringing the existing State and Federal troops into closer relations, by means of joint manœuvres at Forts Leavenworth and Riley, or at some other army posts, and in still other ways. Finally, it is reported that the Secretary may recommend the creation of a paper force of reserves, which shall consist of men who have been honorably discharged from the regular army, and of officers who have proved their fitness for commissions in a volunteer army by passing suitable examination boards.

It is altogether likely that the latter surmises will prove to be the correct ones. The events of the last few years have clearly proved, we believe, that the mass of the American people no more desire a large standing army now than at other critical periods in the history of the country. So we believe they would not favor the creation of a new body of so-called State troops to be really under the control of the National Government. The establishment of such a force would not only be contrary to the spirit of our American institutions, but would seriously conflict with State rights and prerogatives. Moreover, every sensible National Guard soldier knows to-day that the building up of a new National reserve would practically be a death-blow to the present State organization. It is difficult enough now to keep the militia in any one State recruited to its maximum strength. Should they have to compete with a new force drawing from the same recruiting fields, and profiting both by the prestige of Federal assistance and by the promise of immediate employment in the event of war, the task of maintaining the existing State regiments would be impossible.

With these facts before him, it is altogether likely that the Secretary of War will not attempt to found a new branch of the military service, but will primarily confine himself to strengthening the ties between the two bodies which have, by virtue of tradition and an existence of over a hundred years, become a permanent part of the body politic. Even superficial study of the question would convince Mr. Root that the various States need their State military police for the suppression of riots and disorder. An attempt to bring these armed forces under Federal control not only would be regarded as an infringement of State rights, but would deprive the individual commonwealths of the services of many men quite capable of doing duty within the boundaries of a State, but unfitted, because of minor physical defects and social ties, to serve the United States in the furthermost corners of the republic or beyond the seas.

Mr. Root has already publicly stated his desire to bring about joint manœuvres of the State and National troops at convenient military reservations, and there are various other ways in which he can use his influence to improve the militia, either directly or indirectly, and generally at slight expense. He may be able to induce Congress to repeal the existing and long obsolete militia law which requires that every militia officer shall have a "spontoon and a hanger," and every private his powder-horn, and to pass one which shall have some reference to existing conditions. He may induce Congress to arm the National Guard with the rifle now used by the United States troops, and to increase the annual appropriation for the State troops. He can detail regular officers to the militia, as has been done in the past, and can insist upon their accomplishing something—which has by no means been the rule hitherto. He can throw open the post lyceums and the post-graduate service schools at Forts Monroe, Riley, and Leavenworth to ambitious militia officers, and even let them study at the War Colleges if properly prepared.

This is but a partial list of the things that a broad-minded Secretary of War might accomplish by giving some thought and attention to the matter, and by working through the heads of the State troops. The war with Spain revealed the amateurishness of the militia so strikingly that State officials are more ready than ever before to coöperate with the Federal authorities, provided that the latter's advances are plainly in the direction of assistance, and not actuated by a desire to control or absorb. In an increasing number of States trained soldiers will be found at the head of military affairs, just as in New York State Major-Gen. Roe is in control. Almost everywhere will be found a desire to approach the regular army standards. In Montana, for instance, the passing of a physical test similar to that of the regular army is now a prerequisite to enlistment.

As to the creation of a paper reserve, this is altogether a matter for the War Department, and particularly for the new War College and the "general staff" to be evolved therefrom. It will require little legislation and but slight expense beyond an annual fee to be paid to privates for reporting once a year to some officer. The work of keeping track of discharged soldiers will require little more than a card-catalogue system and the labor of a few clerks. The list of officers might comprise the following: (1) Those who have resigned from the service for honorable reasons; (2) those who showed capacity and received training with the volunteers during the war with Spain or in the Philippines; (3) men in civil life or in the militia who have proved their fitness for the various grades in the line or the staff before a board of regular officers. In the event of war the men on such a list could be commissioned at once and before the "sons of fathers" and of Senators could use their "pulls" to obtain places. The making of such a list is part of the preparation for war which is properly the duty of the War Department. The absence of such a list in 1898 was one of the indictments for negligence which lay against the Alger régime.

ART EDUCATION THROUGH THE LIBRARIES.

Recent significant attempts to train the larger public in the appreciation of art have brought out certain principles which any such work must observe. First, it has become apparent that training in art appreciation is best undertaken by institutions which are already frequented by the people. The exhibitions of the societies and of dealers reach a very limited class and one already of considerable training. Free lectures and museum talks—excellent, both, in their way—reach only those whose interest or curiosity has been already aroused. Painting and sculpture in public buildings may and should be most efficacious in creating a civic taste for art, but the difficulty is that, to avoid deplorable error and to secure decoration of a high order, all concerned must already have some instinct for the beautiful and the fitting.

That this preliminary training should have very generally fallen to the great public libraries and to the more popular industrial schools was but natural, for these institutions reach first of all practically every class of the people, and, being usually owned by the people, do not arouse the suspicion which falls upon professedly philanthropic enterprises. It is because of the wise use of such an initial advantage that the art departments of the Public Library, the Cooper Union, the Brooklyn Institute, of this city; the Boston Public Library, that of Worcester, Mass., and the Congressional Library at Washington—to mention only typical instances—are doing a most valuable work, which is capable of wider development.

The method used in all cases is practically the same. A carefully chosen collection of photographic and other reproductions of great works of art is assembled under the care of a responsible curator. In a small room, readily accessible to the casual visitor, exhibitions are presented from time to time through the entire year. Some libraries, like the Congressional and our own Public Library, are fortunate enough to be able to show originals from their valuable collections of prints and engravings. Exhibitions like that of Japanese color printing, recently held at the Lenox Library, or that now on, of Rembrandt's etchings, are of the highest educative value; but in the main the art curator must depend upon photographs. The perfection of modern photography makes it possible to represent sculpture, architecture, and certain kinds of painting admirably, and all forms of art adequately. The most effective use of such a collection, however, will tax the curator's tact and ingenuity, and here due regard must be had to local conditions.

In the city of Worcester there has been for years a society which studies art systematically. The art curator of the Public Library very properly follows the course of this society's studies in making up the exhibitions. In Boston, similarly, the curator takes advantage of literary anniversaries or current discussion in order to give his exhibitions a certain timeliness; and so the conditions vary in different places. It should be said, however, that in the exhibitions of the year several of the great schools of art, ancient and modern, should always find a place, while for obvious reasons American art should claim one or more exhibitions. The selection of the best pictures would be difficult enough, but the selection of the best pictures to show to a general public, without "showing down" to an untrained taste, requires a finer discrimination. No one who has not undertaken this task can imagine its difficulties. For this reason, and to avoid needless repetition of labor, it is desirable that certain standard exhibits, like the Venetian or the Florentine, the Dutch, German, or Spanish schools, should be substantially framed and exhibited from year to year. This method also opens a further field of usefulness, for such exhibits may be circulated, like the "travelling libraries" which our State Librarian has so successfully introduced. This plan of circulating exhibitions was, we believe, first tried in Chicago, and more recently has proved successful in Massachusetts. It is obvious that, by the coöperation of a group of libraries in the exchange of exhibitions, the cost of the art department would be greatly reduced to each.

It will be seen also that this function of popular education does not interfere with the proper ongoing of a reference library of art. In the Boston Public Library the two needs are harmoniously adjusted. An inner room shows students poring over dusty volumes, and rummaging in portfolios of reproductions which are of great importance to the specialist, but of absolutely no consequence to the average art lover. Outside in the little gallery there is a passing crowd which, as it enjoys the exhibition of great works especially chosen for its needs, is learning the lesson of seemliness and beauty which our rough-and-ready civilization must, sooner or later, heed.

There could be no better field for private liberality than the supplying of art departments to the smaller libraries of the land. The expense would be very moderate, and in fact the only thing really difficult to attain is the skill to make such a department effective. And yet there are few cities in which the services of a person of taste and discrimination could not be secured for small pay, or, often, for the mere "joy of the doing." Particularly we hope that, when the New York Public Library is formally installed in its new building, its print-room will be in a position to offer to the student of art all of the material which his most recondite study could require, and to all its frequenters an introduction to that finer vision of this world of ours which is art.

AZOREAN ECONOMICS AND THE PEASANTRY.

To the passengers on one of the great German or Italian steamers bound from New York to Naples, the sight of the Azores (or Western Islands, as the British sailors still prefer to call them) offers a delightful prospect in favorable weather. Bold rocky shores, falling steep to the blue water, run up into the mountains behind by stages of exquisite verdure; villages of white houses, with brown or red roofs, trail out at picturesque lengths over the windings of a coast-road, or cluster thick under the protection of a hill; while the vast acreage of elaborate cultivation seems to indicate a distribution of comfort, even of prosperity. That this impression does not always vanish on nearer inspection is shown in the pages of many a traveller's book on the Azores, and in the columns of more than one "special correspondent."

There are excellent reasons why the majority of visitors should persist in this rose-colored view of the conditions of life on the islands. During a stay of a few weeks in a tolerably clean town, with an occasional flitting to the lovely Furnas valley, in St. Michael's, or the *Caldeira* of Fayal, it is hardly possible to find time for even glancing at the life of those whose toil is in large measure the source of so much beauty. Besides this, it is obvious that those who, without working themselves, subsist on this labor, will show no great eagerness to reveal the true state of affairs to an outsider—particularly if suspected of the remotest connection with the press. As for foreign residents, official or private, their comfort—nay, their very existence—in the islands depends on discretion, from which they never depart. The extreme compression of social life into so small an insular area renders frankness impossible. But beyond this, and the added difficulty of communicating directly with peasants who speak and understand nothing but a debased mother tongue, there exists a singular obstacle which I have never met elsewhere—the apparently absolute indifference of the intelligent Portuguese islander to the projects, the ideas, or the views of his foreign interlocutor. The collecting of simple facts is attended, for this reason, with much loss of time and frequent failure. Statistics are almost out of the question. The Portuguese Government publishes no official returns of general commercial interest or agricultural importance; and the attempts to discover the "statistical clerk" result in showing that his invariable elusiveness comes from his also occupying a situation in private life. In the eight hundred or more pages of the 'Bibliotheca Açoriana,' an undigested bibliographical compilation, of which the contents are not classified but alphabetically catalogued, the bewildered inquirer seeks in vain for works bearing on vital economic questions. The following impressions are therefore subject to reserve and correction.

It is hardly necessary to insist that in regard to climate and soil the Azores have been exceptionally favored. As on the slopes of Vesuvius or Etna, so here the

erosion of volcanic hills covers the small plains and valleys with a deposit of extreme fertility, which, with the combined forces of warmth and moisture, produces a wonderful variety and luxuriance of vegetation. Flower and vegetable gardens in the neighborhood of the larger towns are the just pride of their owners. When one penetrates into the interior of the country, a glance from a commanding hill-top proves that the first impressions from the ship's deck were rightly founded; a vast stretch of various harvests is spread out before one in a superb setting of sea, sky, and mountains; midway, on the uplands of the latter, are scattered sheep and cattle in abundance, pasturing the year round on the rich and never-failing supply. And yet the peasantry are miserably, abjectly poor.

Before attempting to explain the chief existing causes of this condition, it is desirable to note the elimination of factors of some importance in times past. To begin with, religious orders no longer exist here, any more than in the Continental domains of the kingdom of Portugal; but the table of contents of any of the older ecclesiastical histories will reveal the enormous extent of estates once held in mortmain. Thus: Chap. i., Foundation of the village of "Holy Grace"; chap. ii., Foundation of the Church of the Trinity; chap. iii., Foundation of the house of the *cura;* chap. iv., Foundation of the Monastery of the Order of the Blessed Rood; chap. v., Foundation of the Convent of the Sisters of Santa Engracia; chap. vi., Foundation of the Chapel of S. Pedro of Alcantara; and so on through a dozen chapters—all these establishments, too, in less than fifty years, for a single small village. The above is no exaggeration; the island coasts are at many points fairly studded with the ruins of what were once flourishing religious houses, in which (to judge from the remains) the inhabitants must have sought to vie with their Continental brethren or sisters, as described by "Vathek" Beckford in his account of Alcobaça and Batalha. Of immediate remaining signs of this occupation, perhaps the only one is the almost obsequious fashion in which the peasant of the less-visited districts greets the passing stranger; in all countries under strict clerical rule this social survival is noticeable. It was so in French Canada till within a very few years. Let it be understood, however, that clerical influence is still socially and politically strong. One example will suffice: on the arrival of the royal party at Ponta-Delgada, during the recent visit of their Portuguese Majesties to the islands, the bishop of the diocese, with the whole chapter, suddenly issued from the Church of the Matriz (where it had been arranged that they should remain) and planted themselves in two lines, directly in front of the ladies of the town, who were waiting to strew the way with flowers. After a brief excited colloquy, the clerical gown triumphed over the secular; but the incident called for no serious comment from the local press on the unwisdom of disappointing the Church's stanchest supporters.

Since the separation of the internal civil administration of the Azores from that of the kingdom of Portugal, it cannot be said that local conditions have been seriously affected by Continental affairs, for the financial connection is on a tolerably stable footing, and leads to a contribution, mostly indirect, of the islands to the general revenue amounting to about a million dollars a year—a more than creditable showing for a population of much less than three hundred thousand souls, most of them peasants. Consequently, whatever burdens the poorer classes have to bear must be traced to their real origin within the islands themselves.

Prima inter pares, illiteracy. So far as I could ascertain, the ratio of totally illiterate adults in the islands is even higher than in Portugal itself, where it is commonly given as between eighty and eighty-five in a hundred. Definite signs of this appear everywhere. The school-house, so conspicuous in the village of New England, is a rare feature in the Azorean hamlet. Then, too, it is the exception to see the peasant reading even a newspaper, at his cottage door after his day's work is done; though one must admit that the typical *feuille de chou* issued in the nearest town could supply him with neither facts nor ideas of supreme importance. But the absence of the schoolmaster is no matter for astonishment in a country which considers its *lycée* professor adequately paid with seventy-five francs a month (in depreciated island money), a sum which may, in bad years, sink to little more than sixty francs. After getting visible proof of this, one has no difficulty in crediting the story that in a remote inland hamlet a rural schoolmaster was, not long ago appointed at a salary of thirty-five francs a year—even at that rate an expensive investment, for the occupant of the post was already fully employed as the servant of a wealthy proprietor, and was intellectually akin to his prospective pupils in being able neither to read nor to write.

It is precisely this widespread ignorance that renders constitutional government a farce in such countries as this; the only means of information open to the peasant being through the local political agent, who is chosen and directed by the chief owners of property in the district. Ignorance, fostered in former times for the purpose of retaining ecclesiastical supremacy, is equally welcome to-day for the least acceptable of political reasons. How is it possible, under such conditions, that members of the local Juntas should be truly representative of their constituencies? This also helps to explain sweeping legislative acts in favor of the holders of power; such a one, for instance, as the extremely light character of direct land taxation, so that a productive estate of more than twenty-two hundred acres of farm and rich pasture-land may pay directly nothing more than some twenty-five dollars annually to the island revenue. Or again, the travelling stranger who seeks to enter one of the islands with his faithful dog to bear him company may discover the existence of a six-months' quarantine regulation, which, as an illustration of particularism, can hardly be paralleled, for it was passed in the interest of one resident dog who was to be protected from the chances of rabies. Dangerous dogs are nevertheless by no means a scarcity in the islands, as the adventurous solitary pedestrian soon discovers to his cost.

The arbitrary nature of the exaction of customs duties in southern Latin countries is so proverbial that it seems superfluous to dwell on the question here. The Azores are in this respect subject to the general customs laws of the kingdom of Portugal; and although the passing traveller meets with nothing but civility and good sense from the officials, it often fares differently with the resident importing for his own use. In one case, a young employee was taxed for an incoming bicycle, not on the cost at the centre of production as shown in the bill of lading, but on the retail price in the town where the machine was to be used; that is, an obvious inclusion of both duty and local dealer's profit. A rigid metal bar for gymnastic purposes was similarly estimated at twice its original shop value. I make no mention of the *tracasseries* which form the inevitable running accompaniment of such transactions. It is, therefore, no ground for wonder that the Azorean peasant (actuated, too, by the incurable spirit of conservative ignorance) still continues to shun modern farming implements, and to do all his work on the soil with the peculiar Azorean hoe, which serves him for plough, spade, rake, and harrow; his versatile skill with this clumsy tool it is simply fascinating to watch—for the Azorean peasant, in the small, humble sphere of his toil, is as deft as he is laborious, and for the most part cheerful in spite of all. Although the distribution of dwellings along the seacoast compels him to walk weary miles to his work, he has generally a pleasant word for the stranger, and may be seen early and late in friendly chat with his fellows. What a useful, peaceable immigrant he may be is shown in several colonies in our own country, as well as in Bermuda, where his competing power, born of labor and thrift, is not altogether relished by the less practically minded negro. A noteworthy proof of his saving disposition lies in the fact that in the island of Fayal, which has for generations been in close touch with the United States, American gold is not only highly prized, but procurable with no very great difficulty, because of the pocketful of eagles and double eagles which the home-returning emigrant likes to deposit in the local banks as the solid mark of his possessions. Yet, with this fondness for gain, general honesty is said to be so secure that the banking agent of a small village or town may safely leave his office-door unlocked on going out to his midday meal, though uncounted money is lying on his desk; indeed, the key on the *outside* of the door is the sign that the owner is away.

The patience and laboriousness of these people are all the more remarkable that they are, almost without exception, underfed. In such a climate meat is, perhaps, not a necessity; but the average diet of the peasants—fish, corn-bread, cabbage, potatoes—is admittedly insufficient in kind and amount for the work that they have to do. It is an easy matter to dispose of this point by saying, with many of the well-to-do islanders, that the peasantry are a contented lot; so much the better for their social superiors. To any one who has visited their cottages and seen the food they eat, it is obvious that for a strong man's day's work the vast majority cannot afford the strong man's food; this, too, in the midst of plenty. Starved-looking faces and stunted growth are unmistakable in their significance. Exceptions may, of course, be found, as, for example, in the island of Pico, which has long been renowned for the robustness of

its peasant type, notwithstanding the disaster that fell upon the place several years ago in the blighting of its once famous vineyards. The corresponding damage done to the St. Michael's orange trade, through disease of the trees and outside competition in foreign markets, has been in some measure remedied by the establishment of corn-spirit distilleries and the cultivation of the pineapple; but it is in this fertile island that peasant pauperism is most glaring. Nor is it surprising that the peasants should suffer, when one learns that in several districts the primitive system still subsists of paying the farm laborer according to the state of the labor market and not according to a fixed rate of wages for the whole year. This wage may therefore fall as low as a *serilha* per day—less than twenty cents—in bad times. However cheap provisions may be (and they are not strikingly so in the islands), to describe this as a living wage—*c'est se moquer du pauvre monde.* Servants in private families can obtain as much as $3 a month in good places. In a large tobacco factory, girls rolling 3,000 cigarettes a day can actually rise to a little below twenty-five cents; the chief bookkeeper (also a woman) gets a trifle more; the care of the driving engine, intrusted to a woman describable as a skilled worker, procures her the magnificent return of a little less than forty cents. Nearly 600 women (unmarried girls or widows only) are employed in the place. In view of the amount of smoking throughout the country, the balance-sheet of this establishment must be a financial curiosity. And yet, strange to say, none of the cigarette-makers here follow the habits of their Sevillian fellow-toilers; the tobacco factory of Ponta-Delgada has not yet developed a Carmen.

Now, given the conditions above outlined, to what social quarter shall we look for the fundamental causes that chiefly contribute to produce this state of affairs? Surely, no one will doubt that most of the responsibility rests here upon what the French call *les classes dirigeantes.* Substitute individuals for classes, and the problem is solved—for the land in the Azores is, in a large majority of cases, the property of great owners, who exploit it through the labor not of tenant-farmers, but of people little removed from a condition of serfdom. The analogue of the peasant-proprietor, the New England farmer or the yeoman, can hardly be said to exist in any of the islands. Naturally, it often happens that the occupant of one of the myriad lava-built thatched cottages has succeeded, by dint of industry and saving, in buying a little patch on which to grow a small harvest of vegetables for his own use; but he cannot live on it. Exception being made in favor of the island of Fayal, where something resembling the condition of small independent proprietorship may here and there be found, the most casual observation of economic distribution demonstrates the impossibility for the average peasant of ever attaining to a position from which he can in some measure command his own existence. His ambition, like that of the equally thrifty Italian, is to possess as his own just enough of land to keep him decently alive; and it is for this reason that so many Portuguese seek in a foreign country the opportunities denied them at home. Stringent emigration laws have again and again been evaded. The severity of these laws is often explained by reference to the necessity for conscription, which emigrants naturally seek to escape, seeing that the soldier's daily pay amounts to about eight cents, subject to deduction for the cost of the uniform, thus settled for in two years out of a total three in the service. At least as potent is the conviction that the returned emigrant, along with the abstract baggage of ideas picked up in a freer country, may bring with him savings sufficient to purchase acreage for himself and his family. On the same principle the land in the neighborhood of large towns, where it can best be applied to market gardening, is kept up by combination to an exorbitant price—from one hundred dollars an acre upward.

That the comparatively few persons who thus control the chief economic positions have ideas of their own concerning the administration of public funds and the principles of taxation, certain alleged facts would conclusively show. Shortly before my own visit to the Azores, the constables in one of the principal towns (so I was assured on trustworthy authority), having received no pay for three months, disbanded for more remunerative situations in the fields. Luckily, the inhabitants are law-abiding, for during some little time no legal arrests could have been effected. Again, there has for some years been much talk concerning the building of a new hotel designed to attract tourist traffic; the capital to be subscribed abroad. But, in the event of the erection, the islanders would expect to share in the profits by the simple imposition of a tax on the passenger lift, as well as on every one making use of it.

Reluctance to utilize the abundant capitalized resources seems to be a marked feature of commercial and economic life in the Azores. The large pineries are, it is true, almost exclusively in native hands and under home management; yet the greater profits of good sales on the London market chiefly revert to the enterprising foreigners who answer for the transshipment. Even this trade also has ceased to be payingly remunerative to the grower since the crowding in of numbers allured by the hope of a speedy return. There is certainly no lack of capital concentrated in a comparatively small number of large fortunes, to which the beautiful villas, gardens, and *quintas* bear abundant testimony. One is consequently driven to the conclusion that the surplus, instead of being directed to the furtherance of local enterprise or industry, must be housed in safe, conservative securities abroad. If there is no wealth, how shall one account for the unmistakable signs of it in town and country? If there is wealth, why, on the proposal to construct a local ten-mile railway, does there immediately follow a clamor for assistance from outside capital?

It thus appears that these "Islands of the Blest," as they were lately described by an enthusiast, present a less Elysian impression to any one interested in the life of toil. The student who has been led to visit them through articles and prospectuses representing them as the home of a vast and interesting folklore, the repository "of countless treasures of art," may, when these pretty illusions have vanished like the purple-gray mists that hang about the island shores, nevertheless discover in the fortunes of a misgoverned but deserving people the human social conditions which render any existence worthy of serious examination.

P. T. L.

A CRETAN POMPEII.

SMITH COLLEGE, October 22, 1901.

Your readers were made aware last month that on the northern shore of the Isthmus of Hierapetra in Crete there has been discovered a Mycenæan town which, with its finds, will throw new light on many vexed questions of prehistoric civilization. This isthmus is the narrowest portion of Crete, and must always have served as a road of communication between the southern and northern seas. It was, therefore, reasonable to suppose that the Mycenæans, who were a seafaring, trading people, had utilized the natural advantages of this region. And yet, with the exception of a few gems (a class of objects which have little value in marking a site because they are so easily carried from place to place), no Mycenæan finds had been made there; and Lucio Mariani, in his notes upon this district, confines himself to rather vague mention of two places, as possibly prehistoric.

In his quest of early seal-stones, Mr. Arthur Evans, in the summer of 1899, came upon a tomb of the Geometric period in the mountains that wall the isthmus to the east. Following up a clue given us by him, Miss Patten of Boston and I, in May and June, 1900, worked on the heights above Kavousi, excavating houses and tombs of Geometric times. The results of these excavations were reported to the Archæological Institute of America, at its annual meeting in Philadelphia, December 22, 1900, and have been published in the last number of the Journal of the Institute. They excited some interest, as any light on this obscure epoch was welcome, but no one was tempted to pursue inquiries in this field; Cretan Geometric finds being held in light esteem in comparison with the relics of the island's greater days, when Minos ruled the sea and built the rich palace that is being uncovered by Mr. Evans at Knossos.

Early in May, Miss B. E. Wheeler of Concord and I took out Government permission to excavate for the American Exploration Society of Philadelphia in the neighborhood of Kavousi. Our hope for a successful campaign was based on a few fragments of Mycenæan pottery found in Kavousi plain during the first day's digging last year, before work on the hills had begun. In the immediate vicinity of the place where they were found, diligent search during two successive seasons has failed to reveal any other trace of prehistoric habitation. Nevertheless, these fragments led indirectly to our finding "the most perfect example yet discovered of a small Mycenæan town." This town lies on a hill called Gournia, within the deme of Kavousi, but four miles distant from the village of that name. The site crosses a much-travelled road that leads from Heracleion to Sitia. Covered with stones and overgrown with wild carob trees, the low hill, although in form and in proximity to the sea an exact type of a Mycenæan acropolis, had escaped the notice of travelling archæologists; and to the peasants of Basilike, a neighboring village, is due the honor of first observing traces of old walls

and fragments of ancient pottery. Trial pits were dug on May 20, and six weeks' work with a force of about one hundred laborers revealed a town which has been aptly called by visiting scholars a Mycenæan Pompeii.

From the sea a paved road leads to the foot of the hill, a distance of about a quarter of a mile, and there divides into the east and west roads, which, climbing the slope, conduct the traveller to the palace of the Prince. Right and left open side streets and houses. The roads are about five feet wide, furnished with terracotta gutters, and well paved with stones, which are worn by the tread of generations that vanished from the earth three thousand years ago. In the steeper parts of the hill the roads form flights of steps, and one or two houses are provided with private stairways leading to them. The houses are built with rubble foundations and upper walls of brick; in the more important parts of the palace, ashlar masonry takes the place of rubble. Several of the houses have walls standing to a height of six or eight feet. Plaster is used extensively for the facing of walls and door jambs. There are many proofs of the existence of a second story, which, in certain cases determined by the formation of the hill, is entered from an upper road. Twelve houses have been excavated, the majority of which have eight rooms or more. Of the palace fourteen rooms, mostly magazines of the Knossos type, have been uncovered, as well as a terrace, court, and column base and aula evidently belonging to a portal. In the centre of the town, and approached by a road of its own, lies a shrine, not imposing as a piece of architecture, but of unique importance as being the first Mycenæan shrine discovered intact. It is a small quadrangular building, which, lying near the top of the hill, has suffered much from the forces of nature. A wild carob tree growing within its bounds had partly destroyed and partly saved its contents. Of these the most noteworthy are a low terracotta table with three legs, which possibly served as an altar; cultus vases with symbols of Mycenæan worship; the disc, "consecrated horns of the altar," and double-headed axe of Zeus; and a terracotta idol of the "glaukopis Athene" type, with snakes as attribute.

The life of the people is revealed not only in the palace, shrine, and houses, but in the objects of pottery, stone, and bronze which the site has yielded. Of these may be mentioned: stone basins, perhaps used as tables of offering, and stone vases delicately carved; pottery, remarkable for the variety of design and of decoration, which includes all the well-known Mycenæan motives of sea plants and sea animals, together with many unfamiliar types; stone and bronze tools of every description, as well as bronze spear points, swords, daggers, knives, and ornaments. A bronze saw, 45 cm. long, has attracted much attention among scholars. On five vases we find painted the axe of Ζεὺς Λαβράνδιος—a confirmation, if such were needed, of Mr. Evans's opinion as to the sanctity of this symbol. The double axe is also carved on one of the blocks of the palace, as at Knossos and Phæstos. No trace of Mr. Evans's linear or pictographic script has been found at Gournia, but we have Mycenæan gems of exquisite workmanship, and ancient seal impressions in clay from beautiful originals not yet discovered. The types represented are the octopus, water-fowl, lion, etc. From the absence of fortifications we infer that the people of Gournia were peaceful, and from abundant evidence that cannot be given here, we know them to have been engaged in fishing, trading, and other industries. The place appears to have been sacked and burned, possibly by the very mountaineers whose homes were investigated by us last year.

Such are the satisfactory results of this year's work. The importance of the excavations at Gournia has been already recognized by archæologists of other lands, as will be seen by reference to Mr. D. G. Hogarth's article in the London *Times* of August 10. The work was made possible by the generosity of Mr. Calvin Wells of Pittsburgh and Mr. Charles H. Cramp of Philadelphia. There is abundant opportunity to learn more of Mycenæan provincial life by continuing the excavations at Gournia and at other promising points on the isthmus noted during this year's campaign.

HARRIET A. BOYD.

THE MARQUIS DE LA ROUËRIE.

PARIS, October 23, 1901.

M. Lenotre is an indefatigable worker who has already published many volumes, full of interest, on the period of the French Revolution, I would call attention to-day to his 'Marquis de la Rouërie et la Conjuration Bretonne,' which has attained a second edition. The Marquis de la Rouërie was an agent of the Bourbons during the Revolution, and M. Lenotre reveals to us many inedited documents concerning him. As M. Lenotre justly says:

"No man was ever more devoted to a cause; his life was one of agitation and adventure; he knew the pride of authority and the fumes of popularity; he counted by thousands followers who remained faithful to him unto death; he treated with the Princes and fought for liberty. The circumstances even of his tragical end were of such a nature as to assure him the only recompense which he ever desired, celebrity; in dying, he probably thought that he had done enough to have his name, at least, known to posterity, . . . and his name remained unknown; his dream of glory was vain."

The Marquis de la Rouërie was the first organizer of the popular movement of the Chouans; he first understood what could be expected of the peasants of Brittany, among whom he lived; he was the soul of the resistance against the Revolution, against the Convention. Chateaubriand tells us that, in 1793, finding himself in London in the antechamber of one of the *émigrés* engaged in recruiting defenders for the Bourbons (adventurers coming from all countries), he noticed a man sitting on a bench. On asking who he was, he was told, "He is merely a peasant of La Vendée bringing a letter from his chief." Chateaubriand makes a fine comparison between this unknown peasant and the noisy royalists who were seen all day in Piccadilly.

Charles-Armand Tuffin de la Rouërie was born on the 13th of April, 1750. He entered the army at the age of seventeen, in the regiment of the Gardes Françaises, which was quartered in Paris. He lived there near his uncle M. de la Belinaye, who was the protector of a charming actress, Mlle. Beaumesnil, and he naturally fell in love with her. He became under such influences a perfect *mauvais sujet;* he had many adventures, fought a duel with the Count of Bourbon-Busset, nearly killed him, was obliged to flee to Geneva, and sent in his resignation. He took service again at the time of the American war, and arrived in America at the end of April, 1777, even before Lafayette had left France. We read in the valuable Journal of M. de Chastellux that he had occasion to dine at M. de la Luzerne's with Col. Armand (the name which La Rouërie had adopted), "the man celebrated in France for his passion for Mlle. Beaumesnil, and likewise in America for his courage and his capacity." M. Lenotre gives in his book certificates signed by Lafayette and by Gen. Washington, which prove that La Rouërie played a distinguished part in the War of Independence. On his return to France, he married; but his wife died and he remained alone in his château. The Revolution soon disturbed him in his solitude, and he took at once a very energetic part in the discussions of the States of Brittany, which preceded the assembling of the States-General.

Chateaubriand gives us the portrait of La Rouërie at that period:

"I met at Fougères the Marquis de la Rouërie, who had distinguished himself in the War of American Independence. A rival of Lafayette and of Lauzun, a forerunner of Larochejacquelin, the Marquis had more *esprit* than they had; he had fought more than the first; he had, like the second, enjoyed the favor of actresses of the Opéra; he would have been the companion-in-arms of the third. He lived in the woods in Brittany with an American major. . . . The law students of Rennes liked him for his boldness and the freedom of his ideas; he was elegant in size and manners, brave, of a charming countenance, and he resembled the young seigneurs of the League."

When the Revolution broke out, the nobles of Brittany did not emigrate. They refused to send deputies to the States-General, and remained isolated. They wished to preserve intact the old privileges of Brittany. They were hostile to the idea of emigration, but they found themselves disposed to form in their provinces a sort of association. Their resistance was helped by the measures taken against the Church. The "Civil Constitution of the Clergy" was a spark in a cask of gunpowder. It was the great mistake of the Revolution, as it enlisted against its work the peasantry of Brittany; the religious sentiment, which was very deep in this province, was profoundly wounded. The people fought for years for their faith. The Marquis de la Rouërie went to Coblentz, which was the centre of the emigration, and obtained a commission which allowed him to organize in Brittany the forces of the Counter-Revolution. He did this with the greatest zeal and activity, nor had he any lack of lieutenants and auxiliaries; what he wanted most was money. He was soon at the head of a real army composed chiefly of peasants, with a general staff which comprised the best names of the Breton nobility. The Château De la Rouërie was not a safe place for the Marquis, and he concealed himself at the house of a friend for three months; he there made the acquaintance of a *faux saunier* (such was the name given to those who trafficked in salt secretly, salt being then a state monopoly), named Jean Cottereau, who became famous under the name of Jean Chouan, and gave the name

to the Chouannerie, though La Rouërie was its real father.

The rising in Brittany was to coincide with the movements of the army of the Princes. The famous manifesto of Brunswick (which was written by a Frenchman, Geoffroy de Limon) was the signal. La Rouërie was expecting it impatiently in his concealment. At that very moment, his projects were revealed to Danton by a man called Chévetel, in whom the Marquis had the greatest confidence. Chévetel told the details of the whole plan to Danton, who was Minister of Justice at the time, and whom he found with Camille Desmoulins and Fabre d'Églantine. Chévetel returned to Brittany, with instructions from Danton; he sought to persuade La Rouërie that Danton was preparing to betray the Revolutionary cause. La Rouërie was completely deceived by his friend, whom he would not suspect of treachery, and dispatched him on a mission to Saint Malo, to receive guns sent from England.

The imagination of the novelist, says M. Lenotre, could not imagine more hideous types than Chévetel and an accomplice of his, named Lalligand. They greatly resemble the types of the detectives whose actions are described in Balzac's famous novels, 'Les Chouans' and 'Une Ténébreuse Affaire.' I shall not follow these two agents of the Convention in all their intrigues. A date was chosen for the rising of Brittany, and M. Lenotre tells us with minute details all the incidents of the war between the Chouans and the troops of the Convention, a war which was a succession, not of pitched battles, but of local dramas. M. Lenotre has thus divided the second part of his book: "The Drama of La Guyomarais"; "La Fosse-Hingant"; "Lalligand-Morillon"; "Le Procès."

La Rouërie had to take refuge, in the month of December, in the castle of La Guyomarais, which belonged to a friend of his. He arrived with two companions. He had been going from place to place, sleeping sometimes in the woods; he was ill, had a high fever, and was put to bed. M. de la Guyomarais was advised that a search was to be made of his château; he transported La Rouërie to the house of one of his farmers. The Marquis died in it, on the night of the 29th of December, and was interred in the forest. He was only forty-two years old. In a search made by the agents of the Convention, the body was discovered, already in a state of complete decomposition; they had the infamy to cut off the head and throw it at the feet of Madame de la Guyomarais. All the inhabitants of the old castle were arrested and sent to prison. Soon afterwards the inhabitants of La Fosse-Hingant, friends of La Rouërie, were arrested in their turn. The double traitors Chévetel and Lalligand, had over them, in their infamous work, an agent of the Convention named Sicard; for the Convention had the habit of shadowing its spies, to use a graphic modern expression.

The history of these proceedings is very painful, and possesses interest only in the minuteness of the details. Let us come at once to the end, to the trial of the persons who were arrested in Brittany and sent to Paris. To be tried, at that time, was to be condemned. M. and Madame de la Guyomarais and ten other persons were condemned to be guillotined; among these ten were two ladies, Thérèse de Moëlien, who was a constant companion and, it was said, a mistress of La Rouërie, and a certain Madame de la Jonchacs, a young woman who had young children, and who had simply refused to give the name of a person who had sent, through her hands, a letter to La Rouërie. The execution took place on the Place de la Révolution, now the Place de la Concorde. The Bretons showed the greatest courage; they kissed each other before mounting the scaffold, one after the other. The execution lasted only thirteen minutes; the victims formed a large heap at the foot of the guillotine. It was the first time that so many people had been executed in one day; the people of Paris were not yet accustomed to the wholesale executions of the Terror.

Correspondence.

WHEN TRANSLATORS DISAGREE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Does the Russian language present such hard problems to the translator that it is impossible to render the writings of a Russian into English without destroying the author's style, and without making the most patent blunders? Or is it true that our translators differ from the Germans, the French, or others in the matter of thoroughness and fidelity?

The much-heralded 'Foma Gordyeeff' (Gordeyev) of the abundantly advertised Russian Gorky has now appeared in two translations. A few passages taken at random will illustrate the difficulties of the reader.

Miss Hapgood	Mr. Bernstein.
My heart is high as a blade of grass (p. 218).	Like a blade of grass my heart has withered (p. 217).
Carouse away, without regard to anything. . . . But if you mix your heart up with it—the porridge gets spilled and the bowl is smashed on the floor (p. 285).	Enjoy yourself without looking back at anything. And then, when the gruel is eaten up, smash the bowl on the ground (p. 281).
The itching curiosity of Eve will be your undoing (p. 293).	How the itching curiosity of Eve gives you no rest! (p. 289).
. . . shouted Foma, bursting into a hearty laugh (p. 326).	. . . exclaimed Foma, longing to hear it (p. 320).
. . . something is said about tears (p. 344).	There is something there about dreams (p. 337)
No, I cannot endure it any longer. You are the first I ever had (p. 411).	No, I can't bear it any longer. I am nervous (p. 401).
His collar covered his teeth (p. 439).	. . . and the collar covered his lips (p. 427).
Neither in fire nor in boiling mire shall you be roasted (p. 436).	Not in fire, but in boiling mud you shall be scorched (p. 424).
Rendered helpless by the disgrace of his conquest (p. 437).	Exhausted by the disgrace of his defeat (p. 425).

Not being able to read Russian, I am unable to say which version is correct, and to decide I shall probably have to refer to the French or German translation.

Eugene Limedorfer.

New York, October 2-, 1901.

Notes.

Doubleday, Page & Co. will shortly have ready 'Memoirs of William Byrd, 1674-1744,' edited by John Spencer Bassett, and 'The True Story of Captain John Smith,' by Katharine Pearson Woods.

Fresh announcements from Macmillan Co. are 'Early Christian Art and Archæology,' by Walter Lowrie, D.D.; 'What Is Shakspere? An Introduction to the Great Plays,' by Prof. L. A. Sherman; and 'The Care of Destitute, Neglected, and Delinquent Children,' by Homer Folks.

'Mahomet and Mahometanism,' by P. De Lacy Johnstone, and 'Origen and Greek Patristic Theology,' by the Rev. W. Fairweather, will be among Messrs. Scribner's additions to their "World's Epoch-Makers" series.

E. P. Dutton & Co. have nearly ready 'Chronicles of the House of Borgia,' by Frederic Baron Corvo, and Comenius's 'The Labyrinth of the World and the Paradise of the Heart,' translated by Count Lützow.

Herbert S. Stone & Co., Chicago, will revive the "Gift Book" of our fathers in 'The Christmas Garland: A Miscellany of Verses, Stories, and Essays,' by many well-known writers of the hour. They will also issue 'Aubrey Beardsley's Drawings to Illustrate the Works of Edgar Poe,' in a limited edition; 'The Book of One Hundred Houses'; 'Animals,' by Wallace Rice, with colored illustrations; and 'Ruskin's Principles of Art Criticism,' by Ida M. Street.

In addition to his illustrations for 'Alice in Wonderland,' Mr. Peter Newell has rendered a like service to John Kendrick Bangs's 'Mr. Munchausen' and Carolyn Wells's 'Mother Goose's Menagerie.' These two books are to be brought out by Noyes, Platt & Co., Boston.

Lee & Shepard will publish the 'American Boys' Life of William McKinley,' by Edward Stratemeyer.

The first volume in the "Oxford History of Music" is to be 'The Polyphonic Period, Part I.: Method of Musical Art, 330-1330,' by Prof. H. E. Wooldridge. Five others will complete the series, and bear the imprint of the Clarendon Press (H. Frowde).

The unfathered twenty-volume edition of Shakspere's works published in London by Archibald Constable & Co., in Philadelphia by Lippincott, may be quickly characterized. The shape is what we should call a small quarto; the volumes light to the hand, bound in a ribbed crimson cloth; the type generous for all eyes; the lines numbered; the title-page and the scattered illustrations in color, not remarkable as designs. The apparatus consists solely in a brief statistical introduction, giving the dates of composition and of publication of each play, and the number of acts, scenes, and lines; a few notes of variant readings, and a glossary. Oddly enough, in the first volume, which opens with the "Comedy of Errors," a general index to Shakspere's characters is intercalated between the play and its proper glossary. Volume 20 is given up to the poetry, and here we detect slips which cast a doubt on the proof-reading of the series. Thus, in Sonnet 116: "Love is not love Which alters when *its* alteration finds"; and disregard of the niceties of punctuation is hardly less serious in No. 29: "When in disgrace with fortune and men's eyes," (a comma being indispensable after *when* if one is inserted after *eyes*), and in No. 33: "with all triumphant splendor" for all-triumphant.

'Chatterton: A Biography' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is Professor Masson's well-known and highly esteemed essay, revised, somewhat enlarged, and published in a volume by itself. Every lover of letters will be glad to have

the paper in this form, and readers who now make their acquaintance with it for the first time will not be likely to lay the book down till they have finished it. It is a strange story, and loses none of its strangeness as one recurs to it. The preposterous discussion of the authenticity of the Rowley poems is dead and buried—the present generation can scarcely believe that it ever was alive; but the problem of Chatterton himself is as baffling as ever. Yet Dr. Masson makes him very real, refusing to scrutinize him as a mere curiosity, or to subordinate the human interest of his life and character to the impulse to dissect and investigate. It is this which gives its chief value to the essay —the charitable and sympathetic spirit of the writer, combined with his knowledge of the times and his talent for illustrating a subject from his stores of collateral information. In literary criticism the book is not so strong, but, after all, it is "the marvellous boy" that interests us nowadays, not the "tragycal enterlude or discoorseynge tragedie" of "Ælla" or "The Balade of Charitie, as wroten bie the gode prieste Thomas Rowleie." No one reads Chatterton, but everybody is glad to read about him; and who has written so well of him as Professor Masson?

Prof. E. G. Bourne's 'Essays in Historical Criticism' (Scribners) is one of the bicentennial publications issued by Yale. Were it not that these papers have already been printed as articles or delivered as addresses, they would deserve much longer notice than we are now able to give them. Almost all have appeared in the *American Historical Review* or in the Transactions of the American Historical Association, and are thus known to a wide range of readers. "The Legend of Marcus Whitman," which fills more than a third of the volume, has recently caused a good deal of discussion, and is in several respects the most important of the thirteen essays. Prof. Bourne gives an entertaining account of the legend in its mature form, and then makes a skilful analysis of the evidence. His conclusion, which is amply warranted by the facts, removes Marcus Whitman from the pantheon of national benefactors and leaves him only an honorable place among missionaries. Other notable studies deal with the *Federalist*, Prince Henry the Navigator, the Demarcation Line of Pope Alexander VI., and the Proposed Absorption of Mexico in 1847-48. There are also short estimates of Ranke, Parkman, and Froude. In all respects this volume justifies the exacting claims of its title, for among the chief instruments of criticism are learning and logic. Professor Bourne here shows himself to be a thorough scholar and a subtle dialectician.

Few persons of middle and later life have not regretted the negligence of their failing to secure from parents and grandparents family traditions and tales of every-day life recalling generations that are past. Such records, however simple, become of greater value to the historian and antiquary with each passing year. Every small scrap of information gleaned from town documents, every half-obliterated epitaph and date from decaying gravestones, especially recollections of some "oldest inhabitant," may, perhaps, afford just the color and old-time flavor which the historian needs to make his story a living picture. All such collections in permanent form of facts that might otherwise be irretrievably lost are well worth attempting. In 'Early Days in the Connecticut Valley' Mrs. Walker (Amherst, Mass.) has gathered from many sources such scattering facts, and put them together in a most interesting narrative, told in a style unusually picturesque. All the Puritan settlers were farmers, and so vividly does she bring out their daily life that, on laying down the little book, it requires an effort to shut out the seventeenth century and return to the twentieth. Her 'Story of a New England Country Church' is another word-picture of the early struggles of the Puritans in their new settlement; of their grim determination to erect a meeting-house, pay a minister, have schools for their children, and worship God as conscience dictated, even if the church had no fire and its temperature was at zero. A daughter of Professor Genung has meritoriously decorated the covers of these books.

Mr. W. I. Lincoln Adams's new illustrated out-door volume, 'Woodland and Meadow' (Baker & Taylor Co.), is a rhapsody on the delights of farming in New England —more particularly, in New Hampshire. The sugar camp, the hay-field, the corn harvesting, various hours of the day, views abroad riding or walking, are some of the themes of a text which pleasingly reflects the author's refined and gentle spirit. The photographic plates to which he writes are almost as numerous as the pages, and are mostly of a high quality; some of them of Mr. Adams's own making. The book is well suited as a gift to New Englanders, to whom it will call up scenes endeared by association, or to foreigners who want to know what New England is like.

"Hamlet" with *Hamlet* omitted is our feeling on examining Messrs. Harper's edition of 'Alice in Wonderland,' with an introduction by E. S. Martin and illustrations by Peter Newell. Alice is not there—not merely the high-bred Alice of Tenniel's pencil, but she who exhales from the whole story. She is transformed more lucklessly than by the small cake, "beautifully marked in currants," that made her "open out like the largest telescope that ever was." She becomes one of Mr. Newell's simple little country maidens frightened by the "wild" flowers or shaking the polka-dots out of her dress. From her would come no such manners or wit as Lewis Carroll charged her with. This is a great pity, for the defect vitiates designs in which the other *dramatis personæ* are well conceived and cleverly and humorously delineated, like the caucus race (least of all here), Alice and the caterpillar, the March hare dipping the watch in his tea, etc. Mr. Newell could not avoid sometimes competing directly with Tenniel, or ever being judged by Tenniel's standards, like the latter-day illustrators of Dickens in comparison with Phiz and Cruikshank. His humor is truest in his animals, and if Tenniel had not gone before, adult critics would freely commend the new illustrations to the rising generation. The book is in other respects beautifully made, the text being bordered with pale-tinted grotesque animal borders, and the cover a vellum-like white paper, very effective. Lewis Carroll's portrait fits his own verse —"And faintly strove that weary one To put the subject by."

A fairly readable, if somewhat crude, collection of tales will be found in 'Lady Lee, and Other Animal Stories' (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.), by the late Hermon Lee Ensign. It is evident that the author was a keen lover of animals, and that his writing was actuated by a desire to help them to a greater immunity from abuse than they enjoy at present. Certainly the marvellous returns which his dumb heroes give for a small amount of human kindness emphasize his moral, but it seems a pity that, in the process, he should have deemed it necessary to bring such a large percentage of excellent creatures to an untimely end. A number of indifferent illustrations accompany the stories.

'A Widow and her Friends' is the sixth book of drawings by Charles Dana Gibson, published by R. H. Russell. It shows all, or more than all, of Mr. Gibson's accustomed ability as a draughtsman, with, as it seems to us, some falling off in humor and ingenuity of idea.

'Plant and Floral Studies,' by W. G. Paulson Townsend (John Lane), contains a number of cleanly executed outline drawings of various plants and flowers, intended for the use of designers, art students, and craftsmen, together with a minimum of text. There is no attempt at conventionalization or at suggestions for design; the drawings being rather intended to supply the place of such preliminary studies from nature as every designer is supposed to make for himself, but may not, in a given case or at a given time, have leisure or facilities for. The plates are intelligently executed for their purpose, and the book should prove serviceable.

The second volume of the series entitled "Handbooks of Practical Gardening," edited by Harry Roberts (John Lane), is called the 'Book of the Greenhouse,' and is from the pen of J. C. Tallack, the head gardener at Shipley Hall. In a thin volume of about a hundred pages, the author discusses concisely the construction of the greenhouse and the care and treatment of the most important plants to put into it. Several chapters are devoted to the most valuable kinds of hardwood plants, climbers, bulb-bearers, and foliage plants. Among other valuable chapters is one giving advice to those wishing to have a "little town greenhouse."

The latest number of the Cambridge Natural Science Manuals, in the Biological Series, is 'Zoölogy; An Elementary Textbook,' by A. E. Shipley and E. W. MacBride (Macmillan). The authors have attempted to prepare a treatise which should readily be understood by students having no previous knowledge of the subject. The work in the main deals with the normal structure of the adult forms of recent animals, beginning with the Protozoa and working up to the Vertebrates. This structure is exhibited as the outcome of function and habit, with the end of impressing the student with the feeling that zoölogy deals with living and developing animals rather than their mere dead or fossil remains. Everywhere the editors strive to make it clear that the ultimate end of the science is the discovery of the laws binding together and systematizing the facts. As the work appears in both an American and a British edition, and is the product of a British and a Canadian author, illustrations are drawn in the main from the British and North American faunas. The authors expressly disclaim having constructed their work with an eye to its serv-

ing as a vehicle of cram for the subjects of the examination boards so numerous in the mother country. The work is well illustrated, conservative, and clearly written, representing fairly the present state of British opinion on zoölogy, based on the "Cœlom theory." Whether any system of classification is logical or natural which puts on an equal level such groups as the Polyzoa and Vertebrata, with the result of having at last four wandering phyla for which no appropriate niche can be suggested, is another story. For this our authors are not responsible. They are simply following the procession, and, for a current manual for schools, no more can be expected or, indeed, justified. The book, while devoid of any special originality, will doubtless serve a useful purpose in the manner intended.

'With Bobs and Kruger,' by Frederick William Unger (Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co.), is a gossipy record of the shifts and devices, the privations and hardships, to which the purveyor of war information for the readers of daily newspapers is driven ere he can supply the requisite moving tales of danger and daring. Mr. Unger was a disappointed gold-seeker returning from Alaska when the idea of being a war correspondent in South Africa sent him across the sea to land at Cape Town with a capital of seven dollars and a photographic camera. By a mixture of persuasion and impudence he received permission from the press censor to join the London *Times* staff as a subordinate. Thereafter the way was clear to rise to independent responsibility as a correspondent of London and New York papers, and to obtain the privileges of witnessing battles upon the front line and interviewing and photographing leaders upon both sides which are the recognized prerogatives of members of the "fourth estate." The activities of Mr. Unger's camera are shown in numerous photographs of notable men upon both sides, and interesting episodes of the battle line, although the smallness of the pictures often gives unsatisfactory definition of faces and scenery.

The compiler, Mary E. Southworth, of '101 Sandwiches' (San Francisco: D. P. Elder & Morgan Shepard), might have made it 1001 as easily as she has accomplished the smaller odd number. Within this conservative limit she gives us fish, egg, salad, meat, sweet, nut, and cheese sandwiches combined of varied ingredients. Of the merits of this little paper-covered brochure—it is worthy of a more durable binding—we can speak in unqualified praise. The amateur has presented to him in a condensed form and in lucidly expressed terms a series of delightful preparations suitable for luncheons or *al-fresco* entertainments. There is not a single one of the recipes which does not meet the requirements of either one or both of these functions.

The surveys of the nineteenth century made by the Dutch, apart from newspaper enterprises more or less ambitious, take form in two works that are well worth the scholar's attention. Dr. F. J. L. Kramer, professor in Utrecht University, sends forth a series of learned monographs in a 'Historisch Gedenkboek (De Negentiende Eeuw),' an octavo of over four hundred pages (Amsterdam: J. Funke). He writes, as a keen and critical historian, of Napoleon, the Holy Alliance, Liberalism, the Second Empire, the Armed Peace, Colonial Politics; touching luminously almost every episode and phase of European history, not only on the Continent, but in distant "spheres of influence." He gathers up the threads in a chapter, "The Close of the Century," glancing at events down to the rescue of the legations in Pekin. Besides a full index, there is a table of princely houses in Europe. The other book, 'De Negentiende Eeuw in Woord en Beeld' (The Nineteenth Century in Word and Picture), in three large volumes, much more expensive, popular in cast and contents, is by Prof. H. C. Rogge and W. W. van der Meulen of Leyden. Each volume, a superbly illustrated square octavo of half a thousand pages, not only deals with the various countries historically, but treats of the literature, art, invention, industry, music, religion, and general progress of the world. Naturally the authors give most attention to Europe, but devote a generous space to the United States and America. On Netherlandish art and literature, the work is unusually full (Leyden: A. W. Sijthoff).

The scientific results of the Antarctic voyage of the *Belgica*, as given by Mr. H. Arctowski in the *Geographical Journal* for October, are the discovery that the glacial conditions in the southern hemisphere have been greater than they are now, important observations in regard to the south polar ice-cap, and facts suggesting that the Antarctic region is an area of depression, and that the Andes are continued in Graham Land. In describing their winter life of imprisonment in the ship, the writer says that, owing to the "detestable climate," storms, fog, and snowdrift, rendering excursions impossible, "the disastrous effects of the polar night are far more marked than in the north. There is a general lowering of the system, and the heart acts feebly." Another difference between the two regions is that there is no summer thaw in the Antarctic, and it was necessary to saw a channel through the pack, explosives having proved useless. Among the other contents of the *Journal* are the address of Dr. H. R. Mill before the British Association, in which, referring to the small geographic value of the Census Report from the failure to use the cartographic method, he says: "It is a striking contrast to turn to the splendid volumes of the United States Census Reports, . . . thickly illustrated with maps, showing at a glance the distribution of every condition which is dealt with, and enabling one to follow decade by decade the progressive development of the country, and to study for each census the relations between the various conditions." The suggestive paper read on the same occasion by Mr. G. G. Chisholm shows how geographical conditions affect trade. It was practically a protest against the prevalent pessimistic belief that the threatened loss of British supremacy in trade is due to the diminished efficiency of workmen and the want of initiative and enterprise on the part of employers. On the contrary, it is largely owing to improved land communications in Europe and on this continent.

The principal contents of *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number nine, relate to the geology of Hayti and the variations of the level of the Aral Sea. During 1871-80 the Sea's area was diminished 133 square miles, but in the succeeding eighteen years the waters rose ten feet. Whether this change is periodic is not yet determined, but observations of rainfall and temperature for the past sixty-two years at Barnaul in the Altai highlands make a cycle of fifty-five years not improbable. The schedules of the course of instruction in geography in the German universities and high schools for the coming winter term show the high esteem in which this branch of education, especially in commercial and colonial geography, is held in that country.

The new "General Catalogue" of the Chicago Art Institute shows a growth in the range as well as in the number of its acquisitions in the twenty-two years of its existence, of which its trustees and friends may well be proud. What the Institute needs now, as do the other rapidly growing museums of the country, is a corps of trained specialists as heads of departments, who can speak with authority concerning the collections under their charge, and thus make their institutions educational in the highest sense. Boston has made a beginning in this direction, but it has not yet gone as far as it should. We have already expressed the hope that, with its present unrivalled opportunity, the Metropolitan Museum of this city may follow this example; and that Chicago has need of the same kind of assistance is made evident by an occasional statement in the present catalogue.

—The *Atlantic* for November contains the final instalment of Henry Austin Clapp's "Reminiscences of a Dramatic Critic." In it is a good account of Salvini's acting. Mr. Clapp's conclusion is an appeal for a privately-endowed theatre, a *théâtre libre* in the sense of being "absolutely divorced from slavery to its patrons and the box-office." The endowment would furnish a fund to insure the management against the necessity of making it pay by lowering its standard, and would correspond to the subventions given to the stage in European countries by the Government. It would not be a "kindergarten" for infants who "still suck their sustenance from a 'vaudeville' bottle," but a high-school or university of acting, "dedicated to the higher culture" of that great "humanity," the histrionic art. For such a house would be engaged the best managers and actors, and on its stage would be produced the best plays of all time. The theatre once open, let the public come or not, as it pleases; let the experiment be tried for three years. This is a modest demand, and we should like to see it met, but, obviously, the Mæcenas who is to do it must first be found. He must certainly be a multi-millionaire, but he must also be a multi-millionaire who in these degenerate days likes good plays and good acting. He must also understand how to select his manager, who must in turn be filled with the same ambition and guided by the same tastes. If such a philanthropist and such a manager can be found, then the promoters of the suggested theatre will have reason to rejoice. Most existing managers, of course, much prefer the existing system, and most existing multi-millionaires care little for the elevation of the stage. The root of the difficulty is in the decline of the public taste, for nothing is more apparent in the pages of Mr. Clapp's reminiscences than that, not so very long ago, we had a better stage than we have now,

and that without the aid of any other than ordinary profit-seeking management. The leading article, called "Europe and America," is by Sydney Brooks, who says that he writes as an Englishman who has learned to know and like America, but has no "conscious tendency toward Jingoism." His account of the way in which Europe regards America, or rather the United States, is not encouraging. "They look upon Americans, to adopt a happy simile which I wish I could claim as my own, much as a New York mugwump looks upon a Tammany alderman." This, considering the uniform willingness of the wretched snobs to have their sons marry Americans, is probably overdrawn. One of the queer things that Mr. Brooks brings out is that a widespread belief exists in Europe that the Monroe Doctrine is what is ailing it. We, by means of the Doctrine, prevent the southern half of the hemisphere from being partitioned among the European Powers, who would like to add in this way to their "exclusive" trade. The paper is not as deep as some of Mr. Brooks Adams's popular essays on kindred subjects, but gives a nice, light sketch of some current delusions, as reflected in an evidently sympathetic mind.

—*Scribner's* opens with an article by Nelson Lloyd called "Among the Dunkers," a theme which, though far from novel, contrives to be interesting. *Dunker* is dipper, and between the Mennonite and Dunker there is a serious difference as to the rite of baptism. "To the latter threefold immersion is all important, while to the former it is sufficient to kneel in the stream and receive the water on the head from the hand of the elder, though in many congregations simple affusion is enough." Otherwise, they are almost in accord. Both strive painfully to follow the letter of the Scripture, to keep apart from the world, and to be simple in living. Both practise feet-washing, both are opposed to infant baptism, to the bearing of arms, and to litigation, except as a last resort; both are found in Pennsylvania, where the unusual principles of humanity and non-resistance early found a foothold, these sects are evidently a survival from the times when the Bible constituted pretty much the only literature of the humbler classes. An odd and, to the rest of us, objectionable custom is that of not changing plates at table. To insist upon a clean plate is regarded as an indication of pride. Gen. F. V. Greene's third paper on the army, filled with illustrations by Frederic Remington, R. F. Zogbaum, F. C. Yohn, and others, brings the subject down to the present time. Few people, we venture to think, have any but a vague idea of the actual size of the army. Gen. Greene puts it at 77,000, or three times what it was down to 1898. It is augmentable, however (at the option of the President), to 100,000 men. How much of a danger to liberty is it? Military men say none at all, for, by the rule of three, if an army of 25,000 is not a danger to the liberty of 30,000,000, an army of 77,000 can hardly be feared by a community of, say, 90,000,000, as it will shortly be. If this reasoning is correct, a population of 150,000,000 need not fear 125,000 men of all arms. The question is whether this fs a safe method of reasoning. Gen. Greene declares that the army is now "better adapted to our needs than it has been at any previous period of our history." His papers are curious and interesting as illustrating the expansion of our military system *pari passu* with the growth of the central Federal power. But we have not reached the great-standing-army stage yet, and may never do so.

—*Harper's* leading article, on "Strolling Mountebanks," is by André Castaigne, one of the most popular of magazine draughtsmen. The article serves to remind the reader how little of the old *plein-air*, gypsy, wandering mountebank life survives in America. The man with the bear, the ground and lofty tumbler, Punch and Judy, the man who swallows swords, and the man who eats fire, the juggler, the clown, are all found now in "Midway Pleasaunces," or Coney Islands, or variety theatres, or fairs; but they are no longer independent artists. They all have managers, perhaps are employed by mountebank Trusts; at any rate, they are no longer at large, individual and ubiquitous as they once were. Concentration and economy in production is the gospel of our generation, and it applies to mountebanks as it does to Steel. "Confessions of a Caricaturist," by Harry Furniss (illustrated from sketches by the author), contains an anecdote exemplifying Disraeli's extraordinary powers of memory, for the accuracy of which, unfortunately, Mr. Furniss is unable to vouch, as he cannot remember who his informant was, nor, among all his friends, find "any one who actually witnessed the incident." This makes it either a good anecdote, or at the worst a good joke at the expense of the reader; it is, in its own nature, of a somewhat incredible order. "The Bottom of the Sea," by Charles Cleveland Nutting, Professor of Zoölogy in the University of Iowa, is an interesting scientific account of regions which are to a greater degree beyond the bounds of our ordinary experience than those near the pole. It seems that the high coloring of the creatures brought up from extreme marine depths argues the existence of a great deal of light at the bottom of the sea. This can be furnished only by phosphorescence, either animal or vegetable, and we infer that in all probability considerable submarine areas are carpeted by phosphorescent vegetable growth (gorgonians, sea-pens, hydroids, etc.). Most curious of all, animals develop phosphorescent appliances—one species of fish being provided with a dorsal fishing-pole, at the end of which, over its mouth, is suspended a luminous bait, by means of which its prey is attracted.

—Eliot Gregory's "Our Foolish Virgins," in the *Century*, is a satirico-descriptive article on the American girl of the period. It is not as well done as Mr. Gregory's best, but contains some good observation. He analyzes the feminine "golf champion" with malicious enjoyment, and gives an account of the doings of one at a country-house at which they happened to be at the same time. She arrives (Mr. Gregory fails to note an interesting point, that she is frequently billeted by the committee on some family to whom she is a perfect stranger) accompanied by her English trainer, or masseuse, and, incidentally, by her mamma, who enjoys the doubtful honor of being pointed out to everybody as "the mother of the champion." During the next few days she is douched, rubbed, and curried like a prize-fighter, snap-shotted by "representatives of the press," and kept up to her work by libations of strong "tea," to be brought home at the end of the match, collapsed, but victorious. A nice beginning, says Mr. Gregory, for womanhood—a queer way of fitting girls for their after career. And who is to blame? Certainly not the poor champion, who knows nothing of what is in store for her as the probable consequences of her excesses, and has been taught nothing by those who do know. The criminals in the case are the parents, the foolish mamma who allows it all to help the girl on in "society," and the lax papa who leaves it all to mamma. There is to be a "Year of American Humor" in the *Century*. This is appropriately ushered in by "A Retrospect of American Humor," by Prof. W. P. Trent, richly illustrated by portraits. Mr. Trent's paper must have been difficult to write, for he marches in review before us a long line of worthies, from Benjamin Franklin to "Bill Nye," who have nothing in common except that they have all written something provocative of mirth. We have heard much in praise of humor, and are apt to forget that it is a very broad term, and that, for purposes of criticism, we need some classification. To call Charles Lamb and "A. Ward" and Lowell all humorists does not, as Professor Trent perceives, add much to our knowledge of them. He advances a theory of humor somewhat akin to Taine's theory of literature—that as new incongruities in life and society make their appearance new phases of humor are evolved. But, after all, this is little more than saying that the stuff of which humor is made consists of these very incongruities, which was known before.

—'Owen Glyndwr,' by Mr. A. G. Bradley (Putnams), has claims to attention which few volumes in the "Heroes of the Nations" series can pretend to share. Julius Cæsar, Nelson, Napoleon, and Lincoln have furnished an excuse for so much writing that a new book about any of them is just one more title in a vast list. With Owen Glyndwr the case is different, for few readers would profess to know much about him, while the little they think they know is mostly wrong. Shakspere's treatment of him in Henry IV. is a bad perversion, and though Mr. Wylie has published an exhaustive history of that period, his work circulates only among historical scholars. Furthermore, the subject agrees well with the standard size of volume in this series. The materials for a biography of Glyndwr are, relatively speaking, slight, and Mr. Bradley has been able not only to gather up, but to record, the chief facts which can be called authentic. Even after taking all the space that he requires for the delineation of his hero, he has a good many pages left, and these he uses judiciously in giving the life of Glyndwr its proper historical setting. Beyond doubt, the national hero of the Welsh to the present day is their leader in the last struggle, rather than Llewelyn and Dafydd, the chieftains who fought against Edward I. Mr. Bradley associates Glyndwr with the final war of independence, but, besides doing so, he manages to supply a connected sketch of Welsh history until the fifteenth century, and he also comments upon the state of the principality since that date. Altogether the book is a valuable survey

of Welsh history, so arranged as to centre around its chief incident and its chief character. After fact and legend have both been pressed to the utmost, Glyndwr continues to remain a somewhat dim personage, yet the nature of his position as a leader can be clearly made out. Mr. Bradley has written an excellent and most serviceable volume, which is rendered even better worth having by its numerous and attractive illustrations.

—A little over a century ago, Russia and Great Britain combined together, though uninvited, to deliver the Dutch from their French masters, and in September, 1799, 10,000 English and 13,000 Russian troops landed at the Helder in North Holland. Losing their way in dune and marsh, and being separated, they were separately defeated by the French —the Russians at Bergen, with horrible slaughter, and the English at Castricum. Unmarked by any evidence of appreciation, the bones of the Russian soldiers lay forgotten in the soil, until recently, by the persistent activity of Lieut.-Col. De Muller (member of one of many Dutch-Russian families founded in the seventeenth century, and military attaché to the embassy of Russia at The Hague and in Brussels), the Russian Government resolved to mark the place of the slain. Most of the officers and many of the rank and file were buried in the churchyard of the village, but "the Russian Kerkhof," part of the Van Reenen estate, was the place of chief burial. At the visit of De Muller on the centennial of the battle, the family of the burgomaster Van Reenen presented to the Russian Government a plot of about 1,200 square yards, and on Monday, the 30th of September, 1901, in the presence of French, Russian, Dutch, and British officers, civil and military, with escort of a Dutch regiment and military band, a monument was dedicated with religious ceremonies by the head of the national Russian synod, the highest dignitary of the Greek Catholic Church. The inscribed monument consists of a truncated pyramidal monolith of grayish-red Swedish granite, set upon a pedestal. From the top of the monolith rises a lofty cross of white marble, fashioned in the style of the Greek Church; the whole standing within an enclosure which, with heavy bronze chains and four upright stones, resembles the ordinary grave lot. This enclosure is but a few feet away from the trenches in which most of the slain were placed. On the face of the monolith in Russian characters is an inscription which reads: "In everlasting remembrance of the Russian soldiers who fell in the battle of Bergen on the 8th (19th) of September, 1799," and on the reverse, "Erected in the year 1901." Various Russian regiments that still maintain their historic organization had sent wreaths in remembrance of their former comrades, three of those specially noted being from the regiments of King Frederick III., of Tobolsk, and of the Cossack Guards, etc. With palms, flowers, evergreens, and ribbons inscribed with gold, the grassy part of the mound was covered.

—Wilhelm Beck, who died at his home (Örslev parsonage), near Copenhagen, on September 30, was undoubtedly the most remarkable personality of his time in the Danish Lutheran Church. The word personality is used advisedly in connection with Beck, for he was not a great theologian, like Mynster and Martensen. It is as a preacher and a leader of men that Beck stands out from among his contemporaries. Indeed, his theological reasoning is said by others than his opponents to be far from convincing, and he made no single notable contribution to the golden science. But as a pulpit orator, in the truest sense of that much-abused phrase, he has, perhaps, never had a superior in Denmark, the home of pulpit oratory. His personal influence outside of the pulpit is shown by his identification with "The Union for Inner Missions in Denmark," the most important movement in Danish religious life since the time of Grundtvig. In some of its aspects the Inner Mission, as it is popularly called, may be regarded as a revival of the pietism of the eighteenth century, a sort of Danish wave of Puritanism, in protest against what was regarded as the indifference and materialism of the state church, with which latter, however, it retains its connection. In his insistence upon the necessity of conversion Beck suggests Wesley. In spite of his severe views, Beck was a man of an unusually sanguine temperament. He has been accused of lack of tact and an indifference to the feelings of others, but of his deep sincerity and devotion to what he regarded as the vital interests of Danish religious life there can be no doubt. The life story of Wilhelm Beck is quickly told. He was born December 30, 1829, in the parsonage of Örslev, where he died. In 1853 he completed his theological studies, and two years later became his father's assistant. During the ten years spent in this position his religious views underwent the change that resulted in the establishment, in 1861, of the Inner Mission, to which his chief energies were henceforth devoted. In 1874 he was appointed to his father's old charge, in which he spent the rest of his life. A few months before his death Beck published his 'Reminiscences.'

BOOKS ON PAINTING.

The Study and Criticism of Italian Art. By Bernhard Berenson. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1901.

Francesco Raibolini, Called Francia. (Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture.) By George C. Williamson, Litt.D. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1901.

Dante Gabriel Rossetti: An Illustrated Memorial of his Art and Life. By H. C. Marillier. Second edition, abridged and revised. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1901.

Hubert von Herkomer, R.A.: A Study and a Biography. By A. L. Baldry. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1901.

Chefs d'Oeuvre of the Exposition Universelle. Parts 8 to 15. By Walton, Saglio and Champier. Philadelphia: George Barrie & Son.

There are two men in Mr. Berenson: the ingenious promulgator of certain broad views of art based upon psychology, the inventor of "tactile values" and "space-composition"; and the modern connoisseur, the follower of Morelli, the readjuster of attributions. In the present republication of scattered papers from various periodicals it is principally the Morellian that is to the fore, but Mr. Berenson wears his Morellism with a difference, and, in his interesting preface, the critic of broader views peeps out and shows a refreshing skepticism as to the intrinsic value of attribution-mongering. The special mark of Mr. Berenson's Morellism, in which, apparently, he differs less from Morelli himself than from his present-day followers, is in his insisting on the importance of that feeling for artistic quality upon which artists are wont to rely almost altogether in their judgments, and in the absence of which mere connoisseurship seems to them of no worth whatever.

"Quantitative analysis," says Mr. Berenson, "such as, *if you are foolish enough to take him at his word,* Morelli seemed to advocate as all-sufficing, is within the capacity of any serious student armed with patience and good habits of observation; but the sense of quality must first exist as God's gift, whereupon, to become effective, it should be submitted to many years of arduous training. Only the person thus gifted and trained may approach the inner shrine of the Muses, and not be overtaken by a fate worse than of Midas."

This is an admirable criticism of much modern writing on art. But even when the sense of quality is added to the analysis of quantity, when an "impeccable connoisseurship" has been as nearly as possible realized, it remains to ask what is the real value of the result. One may doubt whether it will ever be possible to write the history of art "as independently of all documents" as one might that of "the world's fauna or the world's flora"; but if one could? Mr. Berenson has no illusions as to the importance of the matter. The skeptical view could hardly be stated more strongly than he states it himself. He speaks of "the sterile prosings of the so-called connoisseurs," and says: "I see now how fruitless an interest is the history of art, and how worthless an undertaking is that of determining who painted, or carved, or built whatsoever it be." It may be added that the undertaking is the more worthless in that the works of art about which there is any doubt are nearly always either the inferior works of great men, or the works of inferior artists about whom no one need care much; and that, after it is once stated that a given picture is, say, either a poor Titian or an imitation of Titian by a bad painter, it need matter little to any one which it is. The real reason of Mr. Berenson's continued interest in connoisseurship we take it, is to be found in his incidental statement: "Method interests me more than results; the functioning of the mind much more than the ephemeral object of functioning." It is because he finds the work itself fascinating that we have these essays at proving "who painted what."

Do they really prove it? Important or unimportant as the matter of attributions may be, does modern criticism really settle that matter? Even if one were foolish enough to claim for himself anything like Mr. Berenson's knowledge of Italian art, it would be impossible to form an independent opinion upon his attributions without opportunity for careful study of the pictures in question; but one may notice how constantly the modern connoisseurs contradict each other, and how rapidly Mr. Berenson contradicts himself. He has a fashion, perhaps from impatience of the repetition of phrases like "I think" or "in my opinion," of giving to his statements the air of positiveness and finality that he probably would not seriously claim for

them. He says: "Another so-called Titian . . . is by Girolamo Santacroce," "Four are by . . . Polidoro Lanzani," etc., etc. Yet the apparently settled conclusions of 1895 are all unsettled in 1901, and we have conflicts between text and note like these:

(Text): "Before we can properly know Giambono, we must be able to differentiate him from his contemporaries, . . . from Jacopo Bellini in such a picture as the 'St. Crisogono' . . . (sometimes attributed to Giambono)."
(Note): "I feel confident now that this is by Giambono."
(Text): "The part Squarcione himself played . . . was probably no greater than that played by M. Julian in the Parisian ateliers of to-day."
(Note): "Squarcione himself now seems to me to have been a painter of some merit, . . . a man who, in a way, was a real master."

It is a stupid man that never changes his mind, but he who has changed his mind once may do so again, and we are therefore justified in thinking all these confident attributions of third-rate works of art to this or that third-rate artist still as problematical as they are confessedly unimportant.

Perhaps the most wonderful feat of the new criticism—certainly one of the most remarkable attempts at the study of art-history "independently of all documents"—is Mr. Berenson's creation, out of odds and ends of the school of Filippo Lippi, of a brand-new artist with a brand-new name. There exist a number of pictures in various galleries that have been attributed to Filippo himself, to Botticelli, to Filippino, and even to Ghirlandajo. This last attribution may be set aside at once, and it may be admitted that the pictures in question are second-rate works, which have some affinity to Botticelli and issue from the same school. Mr. Berenson has convinced himself that they are all by the same hand, has established a chronology for them, has evolved his artist complete with a history and a gradual change of style, and has baptized him Amico di Sandro—the Friend of Botticelli. In this case we are enabled, as far as reproductions of the pictures can enable us, to examine the evidence, and we do not find it convincing. It seems to us far from certain that the pictures are by one hand, and we see no reason for the chronological order so confidently given. We agree that the pictures are most of them inferior productions, imitative rather than original, and that it is well to take them from the masters to whom they have been falsely attributed heretofore. Why not call them "school pieces" and be done with it? They *may* have been painted by one hand, and Amico di Sandro might be as good a name as another for that problematical painter; the speculation is amusing and would be harmless were it not for the way in which guesses rapidly get themselves treated as certainties, so that we expect Amico di Sandro to turn up in some forthcoming art history as an undoubted person supplied with a biography.

Dr. Williamson, the general editor of the "Great Masters" series, shows his predilections in art by the selection for his own treatment, after Luini and Perugino, of Francesco Francia, another smooth and workmanlike painter of over-sweet sentiment and without great original force. The book gives about all the information concerning the Bolognese artist that one need ask for, but is not without instances of confusion of thought and of statement to which Dr. Williamson seems to be somewhat subject. They do not, perhaps, invalidate the general soundness of the book, but they induce a feeling of caution in accepting its conclusions, and it may not be out of place to give a few instances at greater length than their intrinsic importance would justify.

On p. 28 there is an argument against the validity of the tradition that Francia was a pupil of Marco Zoppo, one of the points of which is that Francia began painting late in life, no picture of his bearing a date earlier than 1494 (he was born in 1450), while the latest dated work of Zoppo is of 1497. Again, on p. 33, the mature style of this earliest dated picture by Francia is commented on, and is endeavored to be accounted for by the statement that "his niello-work had prepared him so well for the use of the brush that he sprang fully equipped on to the field of action upon which he was to gain so great a victory." Both of these passages are entirely disposed of by Dr. Williamson's citation on p. 126 of an entry in "the original records of the Guilds" in which, in 1486, Francia is referred to as "Francesco Marco de Raibolino . . . detto il Pittore il Franza." This entry proves, conclusively, that eight years before the picture of 1494 Francia not merely was painting, but was a well-known painter; yet Dr. Williamson has apparently no notion of its bearing.

In describing Francia's medals of Julius II. on p. 7. it is stated that "the silver one" bears "an effigy of the Pontiff wearing a biretta and cope," while another is "almost exactly like it, save that it has the figure II on the obverse instead of the word SECUNDUS." The first of these medals is not illustrated, but the second is, and upon it the Pope is bareheaded. Has Dr. Williamson blundered in his description of the first medal, or in his statement that the two are "almost exactly" alike? There are several other descriptions of works of art that seem to be contradicted by the illustrations, and two that are clearly so. One of the "two holy women" of the Turin "Deposition" (p. 114) is surely St. John, and there is *no* vase in the hand of St. Paul in the Scappi Altar-piece, though the text describes it (p. 56)) as "closely resembling one yet to be seen in the sacristy of St. Petronius in Bologna." Finally, what are we to think of the reasoning (p. 122) that a given figure cannot represent St. Albert the Carmelite because "there is no sign of the dragon under his feet"—when the figure is seen only to the waist?

It would be difficult to conceive of any greater contrast in life or in art than that between the heroes of the two handsome illustrated volumes next on our list: the one a painter who scarcely ever exhibited, who gradually became more and more of a recluse and surrounded himself with an impenetrable mystery, a member of no recognized artistic body, whose work was for years seen only by his personal friends and a few patrons; the other, one of the best-advertised men in Europe, who is constantly before the public in a hundred capacities, who was awarded a medal of honor at the Paris Exposition of 1878, when he was barely twenty-nine years old, and gold medals pretty much everywhere ever since, who is covered with orders and decorations, and is a Royal Academician and member of seven or eight other British art societies, a "Foreign Associate of the Academy of Fine Arts in the Institute of France, a member of the Academy at Berlin, Professor of Fine Art at Munich, and an Honorary Member of the Antwerp Academy, the Belgian Society of Aquarellists, the Dutch Society of Aquarellists, the Swedish Academy, and the Vereinigung der Bildenden Künstler Oesterreichs at Vienna." Rossetti, in spite of a defective technical education and of affectations and mannerisms which grew upon him and gradually dominated his later work, was an artist to his finger-tips, and, at his best, an artist of a very rare and high quality—one of the dozen greatest artists of the nineteenth century; Professor Herkomer is little more than a clever illustrator, with a knack of pleasing his public. The result of the one book must be to increase the estimation among good judges of Rossetti as a painter; we do not see how the collection together of so much of Herkomer's work can result otherwise than in a lowering of his prestige. In the case of Rossetti one is surprised to find, after the elimination of feeble early work and mannered late work, how much real beauty of a high order he created in the middle period of his life. In the case of Herkomer one looks in vain, and with increasing amazement, for any beauty whatever, or for any evidence of an artistic motive of any sort in his production. A certain obvious sentiment one finds, and an approximate power of representation; but any artistic quality of a high order, whether in composition, color, line, light and shade, tone, or anything else, is to seek. Both books contain a sufficient amount of presumably accurate information, both are handsomely printed, and in both the pictures are well reproduced. The cover of the "Herkomer" is, to our taste, very ugly.

The last eight parts of the 'Chefs d'Oeuvre of the Exposition Universelle' deal with the art of Germany, Austria, the Eastern European Countries, Spain, Italy, etc., and of South America, with an even more depressing result than that of the earlier parts. Either the publishers have somehow—purposely or unavoidably—left out all the real art in the Exhibition, or there was very little there.

South Africa a Century Ago: Letters Written from the Cape of Good Hope (1797-1801) by the Lady Anne Barnard. Edited, with a memoir and brief notes, by W. H. Wilkins. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1901.

The war in South Africa has brought death and oblivion to countless human beings, but to one it has brought immortality. For had not the struggle aroused interest in South Africa, Lady Anne Barnard would perhaps never have become known to the world; by whom now, we do not hesitate to say, she will never be forgotten so long as letters are cherished. A century ago the British were in possession of the Cape of Good Hope, and Henry Dundas, Viscount Melville, was Secretary of State for War in Pitt's first administration. For Lady Anne's sake he made her husband, Andrew Barnard, Secretary of the Colony. The appointment was absolutely unjustifiable on any sound theory of government. Barnard was not known to have any qualifications for the office, and Dundas appointed him

because he could not resist Lady Anne's appeals for an office of some kind. The nature of her claims on Dundas we do not care to scrutinize. She was deeply attached to him and he had been devoted to her. His first wife left him for another man; he obtained a divorce, and for several years was often a guest at the house of Lady Anne Lindsay, as she then was, and her sister, Lady Margaret Fordyce. Pitt, Burke, Sheridan, Windham, and the Prince of Wales were also frequent visitors at this house; and there exists a letter from the Prince to Lady Anne, written after the death of her husband, which is kind enough to make us almost forget the delinquencies of the author.

Dundas, however, presently married Lady Jane Hope, and soon after Lady Anne accepted Mr. Barnard, who made her a good husband, and to whom she was a faithful wife. We have said that in theory his appointment could not be justified; practically, it was eminently successful. He discharged his duties satisfactorily, but his wife—Lady Macartney, the Governor's wife, remaining in England—became not only the first Lady but the most powerful influence in the colony. Had its government been committed to her, and her life been prolonged to the middle of the last century, there would have been no Great Trek, no hostile Boer republics, no Majuba Hill, no Jameson raid, no desolating war. The Dutch population would have been disarmed by gracious and intelligent regard for its welfare and even its prejudices. It would have been drawn with the cords of love, and charmed into submission and indeed into enthusiastic loyalty. It would have been unable and unwilling to resist the fascination of such goodness of heart, such tenderness of sentiment, such courteous consideration, such grace of manner, such keenness of wit, such knowledge of the world withal, as this woman displayed. She would deserve the epithet queenly, could queens be found who equalled her.

If this sounds extravagant to any one, let him read these letters. They were written a hundred years ago, but they are as fresh as anything called forth by the present war. Matthew Arnold, with the conceit of the age, praised Thucydides for his "modern" spirit. He wrote rationally, which Arnold assumed to be characteristic of our day. In this sense, Lady Anne's letters are thoroughly modern. Their style is very near the perfection of epistolary style. They were written for the eye of Dundas alone, and are absolutely unconstrained. In one sense, the style is not literary; there are no references to books or authors, and no literary allusions; on the other hand, these letters are literature, and deserve a permanent place among the classics. To read them is a liberal education; for they are not only sensible and generous in tone, but are also exquisite in the art with which a colonial society is portrayed. It is a great temptation to quote freely from them; but those who would appreciate the quotations should get the book for themselves. As we have maintained, the political lessons to be drawn from it are extremely impressive. It shows how an empire might be consolidated, if rulers would treat their subjects as human beings equal to themselves. But, long after the world has ceased to interest itself in South African politics, it will keep a place in its heart for Lady Anne Barnard. He who maintains intimate relations with the authors of good books will say of her, wherever he is placed:

"Dulce ridentem Lalagen amabo,
Dulce scribentem."

'Twixt Sirdar and Menelik: An Account of a Year's Expedition from Zeila to Cairo through Unknown Abyssinia. By the late Capt. M. S. Wellby. Illustrated. Harper & Bros. 1901. Pp. xxv, 409, 8vo.

Capt. Wellby was a fine type of the men who have built up the British Empire. During his short life of thirty-four years, he conducted three exploring expeditions in East Africa and a notable one in Central Asia; served in the Tirah campaign in India, and was one of the defenders of Ladysmith, being killed in a reconnaissance soon after its relief. He possessed in a remarkable degree both the commoner qualities of courage and endurance, and the rarer power of winning the confidence and affection of the natives with whom he came in contact. This was partly a natural endowment, but mainly the result of his fair and sympathetic treatment of them. It was only by the exercise of infinite patience and great tact that he was able again and again to establish friendly relations with savages whom a bitter experience had taught to regard every stranger as an enemy.

As the title of his volume indicates, his exploring work was in the imperfectly known region lying between the Egyptian Sudan under the rule of the Sirdar and Menelik's dominions. To reach it, he crossed southern Abyssinia, and the narrative of this part of his journey is perhaps the most valuable, though dealing only with familiar scenes and people. The strong prejudices against the Abyssinians which he cherished at the start, soon gave place to a hearty appreciation of their bravery, honesty, and intelligence. Their faults are largely due to their sudden emergence from a condition of complete isolation armed with European weapons. To raid the border tribes having only bows and spears was naturally their first use of them; devastating war being the inevitable result of supplying the semi-civilized or savage races with guns and ammunition. The King impressed him as a man intent on promoting the welfare of his country. When the people were in dire distress from the rinderpest some years ago, he says that Menelik with his own hands tilled the soil and gave the fruits of his labors to the needy, "an example that encouraged others to do likewise. I was told that for three years he ate no beef, for, he argued, 'Why should I enjoy plenty while my people are in want?'" At their farewell interview, Capt. Wellby thanked the King for his permission to travel through his country, and asked him whether he could not make some return for all his kindness. "'No,' he replied, 'only let me have copies of the maps you make.'" The favorable impression made upon the monarch by the young explorer is shown by his graceful letter of acceptance of the dedication of this work, a facsimile of which is given.

After he leaves Abyssinia, Capt. Wellby's narrative is chiefly taken up with the incidents of his march through the trackless wilderness, alternating forest, swamp, and parched desert, of the basin of the White Nile. His hardest work, however, was not in overcoming these natural obstacles, but in restraining his followers ("whose chief topic of thought and conversation was killing and raiding") from ill-treating the natives of the region, and in inducing these to act as guides and suppliers of food and water. It is a striking testimony to the power of the *Pax Britannica* that as soon as he entered the Sirdar's country, still 600 to 700 miles from Khartum, the natives came voluntarily into his camp, though belonging to a tribe which has "always been notorious for their intense shyness and anxiety to avoid all dealings with any Europeans who have come across them." With his arrival at Nasser on the Sobat, the southernmost Egyptian post, practically ended a journey which deserves to rank among the finest in African explorations, because it accomplished so much with so small a following. Unfortunately, Capt. Wellby's untimely death prevented his working up the scientific results of his expedition, and he gives little geographical or ethnological information relating to the region passed through. He refers to the vast extent of "magnificent land" in it, capable of supporting millions, but "given up to immense herds of antelope, elephants, rhino, and giraffes." With this big game he had numerous encounters, but few adventures—a true sportsman, killing only when food was needed. His most remarkable experience was among the Walamo, a tribe whom the Abyssinians believe "are capable of imparting a devil, or gin, into the bodies of strangers who come there, more especially if they are permitted to be present while the strangers partake of food." Two of his men had temporary attacks of insanity, and he himself, after purposely eating before the natives to dispel the fears of his followers, felt strangely unwell for the first and only time through the whole of his journey. The next year another traveller through this district ate before the natives without any ill results either to himself or his men. An interesting physical phenomenon was observed in the river Sobat, the passage of which was rendered extremely difficult by alligators and, especially, huge floating islands which "came sailing along, one after another, in quick succession."

Capt. Wellby is an unusually pleasant companion, writing easily and without any straining for effect. He makes a brief reference to a cut finger, for instance, but a friend tells us that for three months he was "in intense agony, holding a mortifying finger upright during the whole of the long and miserable march, concealing his pain, so that his followers should not lose heart." As a specimen of his style, we quote the description of the hair of a gigantic Turkana chief:

"It was as thick as a felt numnah [saddle-cloth], and hung in a thickly woven mass clean over the shoulders, right down to the waist, in the shape of an oval. As though not contented with this wonderful adornment of Nature, he had fastened a very thin stick, curled up like a tail, close in the end of the hair, and he always showed great care in its welfare and in seeing there was no chance of its coming to grief. The end of his hair was curled up, and in it he carried his little knickknacks."

The book is attractive in its appearance,

and is well illustrated from photographs taken by the author.

Parts of Speech: Essays on English. By Brander Matthews. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

The chief title of Professor Matthews's latest volume of essays is somewhat fantastically chosen. In 'Parts of Speech' we learn little of the divisions of vocables; rather, Professor Matthews's fundamental concern is with the progress and larger destiny of the English language. The first nine papers treat of "The Stock that Speaks the Language," "The English Language in the United States," "Americanisms," "The Function of Slang," "Questions of Usage," and other allied topics. In his preface the author expressly disclaims any pretence to technical linguistics, but it is evident that he has taken sound philological advice. The volume contains, however, opinions and judgments against which any person with a sensitive linguistic conscience must protest.

We shall say little of Professor Matthews's unqualified assertion that the future of the English language and literature is in the keeping of America; that, before the present century is out, the literary supremacy in the vernacular will have passed from London to New York, or to Chicago, as centuries ago it passed from Athens to Alexandria. This is a comfortable and not glaringly improbable belief. Still, we submit that the corner-stone of the argument is not without flaw. The fact that the number of writers is greater here, that the yearly output of printed pages increases with greater relative rapidity, is no firm ground for an assertion which should be ventured only with the utmost caution, after the most profound and minute study of the relation between the personal and political ideals of any nation and its language and literature.

But this is not so bad as certain remarks upon questions of usage. That any language is a living organism, thriving only when its growth is unchecked, no one will deny. We freely admit that the pedant who would cut off the liberties of a language is as dangerous a foe to its well-being as the *sans-culottes* who would claim for it unlimited license. But it seems deplorable when a professor of English in a great university assures us that "the subjunctive mood is going slowly into innocuous desuetude"; that when we shall be rid of it "the English language will have cleansed itself of a barnacle," or that "*quite* no longer implies *completely*, but is almost synonymous with *somewhat*." That there is such a tendency in most oral discourse, and in the work of the slapdash school of literature is obvious. If one like Professor Matthews could always express the refinements and subtleties of his thought by quoting from Bagehot or Lowell, there would, perhaps, be less occasion to object to this blunting of the language; but surely it is only by a nice attention to such grammatical details as the subjunctive construction, or the radical implication of an adverb like "quite," that some craftsmen can attain the delicate shading of speech, the pliant, felicitously veracious English, adequate to the expression of their mind. It is but fair to our essayist to state that his own stylistic practice rarely transgresses. The point is this: the language will progress and expand of its own native energy, but it is well that this progress and expansion should encounter a conservative, inhibitive, and directing force in academic tradition. When a volume put forth under quasi-academic auspices gives the implicit sanction of its authority to doctrinaire revolution, the natural balance of things is disturbed.

It may be that much of the violent emphasis of this volume is due to the fact that it is a piece of special pleading, in which the desire to strike often blinds the sober judgment. This is seen in many separate instances; for example, in the repeated depreciation of Dr. Johnson. That the Leviathan had his limitations we all know, but to speak of that full-blooded old humanist as "a narrow-minded scholar," and to affirm that "in all matters of taste" he was "an elephantine pachyderm," is to evince cleverness of phrase rather than catholicity of feeling or sobriety of judgment.

"An Inquiry as to Rhyme," which follows the nine essays above mentioned, is inconclusive. Professor Matthews's theory that the function of rhyme is to promote the "economy of attention" by alternately arousing and gratifying expectation, and that this can be done only by rhymes phonetically perfect, is likely to satisfy neither scholars nor poets. Sidney Lanier's 'Science of English Verse' is undoubtedly fallacious in certain of its postulates and deductions, but its theory of rhyme is much more to the point than this. As Lanier explains it, rhyme plays an important part in revealing to the ear the stanzaic arrangement of a poem, marking so the musical phrasing—that manipulation of the tunes of speech on which the essential melody of verse depends. Furthermore, in the hands of a master, so far from merely "gratifying expectation" by the perfection of the jingle, rhyme becomes an integral part of the subtle tone color of the poem. To understand this, one has but to consider a single example from Tennyson, in which the theoretically imperfect rhyme has a delightfully felicitous effect like that of an accidental flat in music:

> "Willows whiten, aspens quiver,
> Little breezes dusk and shiver
> Thro' the wave that runs for ever
> By the island in the river
> Flowing down to Camelot."

Following the discussion of rhyme is an entertaining essay "On the Poetry of Place Names." This, in turn, is followed by a spirited defence of spelling reform, which we do not feel called upon to discuss. The collection concludes with "Americanism—An Attempt at a Definition." This last is a platitudinous but timely paper; pronounced with lively emphasis by an able speaker, it might prove an effective composition. The volume as a whole is a readable piece of book-making, and, as literature now is, likely to arouse discussion and enjoy a considerable repute.

Short History of the Hebrews to the Roman Period. By R. L. Ottley. Macmillan. 1901.

It is evident that we have reached an advanced stage in the critical examination of the history of the Hebrews. For one thing, the time has arrived of the middlemen, these bookmakers, usually as innocent of Hebrew and German as they are of original investigation, who pass on the new things to their yet more innocent brethren. For another, the new things are being lopped and adapted to the theological taste of the English masses. And it is wonderful how decorous a theory may become in the hands of an English Churchman which seemed flippant enough as given forth by its German begetter. One of the best of these books is Mr. Ottley's 'Short History of the Hebrews.' He was probably a student under Driver, and is certainly of his school. His Hebrew is evidently scanty and, by preference, second-hand. With the Septuagint his relations are much closer. German, apparently, he does not read. In his "List of chief works consulted" only one is not in English, and it is Piepenbring's 'Histoire du peuple d'Israël.' His position may be fairly indicated by his admission that "the results of archæology cannot be fairly said to have corroborated the actual incidents recorded in Genesis and Exodus," and by his warning that "it is hard to say which is the greater mistake—to maintain . . . that the vivid narratives of the Pentateuch are literally, and in all their details, true to fact, or to assert that, if they are not in the strict sense historical, they are therefore destitute of moral and spiritual value."

His method is a simple one which might easily be misunderstood or misread. It consists in accepting and sketching the Hebrew tradition, miracles and all, for what it may be worth. From Moses on, Mr. Ottley evidently regards it as worth a great deal and as practically trustworthy, except in the details of the priestly code. The Stories of the Patriarchs are treated in the same way, as are also the early narratives of Genesis, but in their case there is appended to the ancient tradition some consideration of its value. The result is a rather ludicrous reversal of the old-fashioned apologetic method, as seen, for example, in Stackhouse's venerable 'History of the Bible.' There all manner of skeptical objections to each narrative used to be put first as the bane, to be followed by the antidote of a complete and crushing orthodox refutal. Nowadays, *nous avons changé tout cela*, and the bane seems to be getting the upper hand. As a detail, it may be worth mention that the recent criticism of the historicity of Ezra-Nehemiah does not seem to have reached Mr. Ottley. But his book, within its limits, is throughout sound and healthy. It has an atmosphere of common sense, and will undoubtedly be useful to many. There are seven very careful and beautiful maps. The details in them, however, are not always fully explained, and they do not entirely agree with the text. For example, Tarshish in the map is identified with Tarsus, but in the book itself with Tartessus in Spain.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbatt, William. The Battle of Pell's Point. New York: Published by the Author.
Bangs, John Kendrick. Over the Plum-Pudding. Harpers. $1.15.
Bennett, E. A. Fame and Fiction. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Black, Hugh. Culture and Restraint. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Boise, O. B. Music and its Masters. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Bourchier, John. The Chronicle of Froissart, Vol. III. London: David Nutt.
Brown, G. W., jr. Compilation of the General Ordinances of Greater New York. The Banks Law Pub. Co. $2.50.
Brush, Mary E. Q. Island Patty. American Tract Society. 25 cents.

Carroll, Lewis. Alice's Adventures in Wonderland. (Peter Newell Edition.) Harpers. $3.
Chatterbox. Boston: Dana Estes & Co. $1.25.
Church, P. W. Chinese Turkestan with Caravan and Rifle. London: Rivingtons. 10s.
Church, S. H. Beowulf. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $2.
Clark, J. B. The Control of Trusts. Macmillan. 60 cents.
Connor, Ralph. The Man from Glengarry. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Copeland, C. T., and Rideout, H. M. Freshman English and Theme-Correcting. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.
Corbin, Marie O., and Going, C. B. Urchins at the Pole. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.10.
Crawford, F. M. Marietta, a Maid of Venice. Macmillan.
Creswick, Paul. Under the Black Raven. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
D'Annunzio, Gabriele. Gioconda. R. H. Russell. $1.
De Vinne, T. L. Correct Composition: The Practice of Typography. Century Co. $2.
Dexter, F. B. The Literary Diary of Ezra Stiles. (Yale Bicentennial Publications.) 3 vols. Scribners.
Dickinson, Mary L. Over the Gate. American Tract Society. 25 cents.
Dilke, Lady. French Furniture and Decoration in the XVIIIth Century. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $10.
Dix, Morgan. Three Guardians of Supernatural Religion. Edwin S. Gorham. $1.
Donnell, Annie H. Joy's Endeavor. American Tract Society. 25 cents.
Elson, Arthur. A Critical History of Opera. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Ethel Barrymore in Captain Jinks. R. H. Russell.
Fairless, Michael. The Gathering of Brother Hilarius. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Fea, Allan. King Monmouth: Being a History of the Career of James Scott, "The Protestant Duke." John Lane. $6.
Fielding, H. The Hearts of Men. Macmillan. $3.
Fountain, Paul. The Great Deserts and Forests of North America. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.75.
Frick, A. C. History in Rhymes and Jingles. The Saalfield Pub. Co. $1.25.
Fuller, Emily G. The Prize Watch. The Saalfield Pub. Co. $1.
Garnett, Richard. Essays of an Ex-Librarian. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.75.
Gerard, Frances. Wagner, Bayreuth, and the Festival Plays. London: Jarrold & Sons; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Gibbon, J. M. Old King Cole. (The True Annals of Fairy Land.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Gilman, Bradley. Back to the Soil. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.25.
Gordon-Stables, Dr. Rob Roy MacGregor. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.
Gory, Maxime. Foma Gordeyev. J. S. Ogilvie Pub. Co. $1.
Gosse, Edmund. Gossip in a Library. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.35.
Gottschalck, O. H. von. Yankee Doodle Gander. R. H. Russell.
Greene, F. N. Legends of King Arthur and his Court. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Grenfell, B. P., and Hunt, A. S. The Amherst Papyri. Part II. Henry Frowde.
Gwynn, Stephen. The Old Knowledge. Macmillan. $1.50.
Hale, E. E., jr. Selections from Walter Pater. H. Holt & Co.
Hall, Maud R. English Church Needlework. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $4.
Halsey, F. W. American Authors and Their Homes. James Pott & Co.
Hartmann, Sadakichi. A History of American Art. 2 vols. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $4.
Harvard Studies in Classical Philology, Vol. xii. (Goodwin Volume.) Cambridge (Mass.): Harvard University.
Hayden, Eleanor G. Travels Round Our Village. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
Headland, I. T. The Chinese Boy and Girl. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.
Hearn, Lafcadio. A Japanese Miscellany. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Henderson, C. R. The Social Spirit in America. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co. $1.50.
Holt, Rosa Belle. Rugs, Oriental and Occidental, Antique and Modern. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Hoppin, J. M. Great Epochs in Art History. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75.
Keeler, D. B. Memoirs of Simple Simon. R. H. Russell.
Kennard, J. S. The Fallen God, and Other Essays in Literature and Art. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.
King, Basil. Let Not Man Put Asunder. Harpers. $1.50.
Lane, E. W. The Arabian Nights' Entertainment. 6 vols. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $9.
Lang, Andrew. Alfred Tennyson. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Mackie, Pauline B. The Washingtonians. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Maclaren, Ian. Young Barbarians. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.35.
MacNaughton, Eleanor Le S. A Little Loving Life. American Tract Society. 25 cents.
Magee, Knox. Mark Everard. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.50.
Ober, F. A. Tommy Foster's Adventures. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Co. $1.
Orr, James. Christian Study Manuals. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 60 cents.
Paine, A. B. The Little Lady—Her Book. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Co. $1.
Parker, Gilbert. The March of the White Guard. R. F. Fenno & Co. 50 cents.
Patterson, Howard. Illustrated Nautical Encyclopedia. Cleveland: The Marine Review Pub. Co.
Penn, W. A. The Soverane Herbe: A History of Tobacco. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Repplier, Agnes. The Fireside Sphinx. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Reynolds, J. B., Fisher, S. H., and Wright, H. B. Two Centuries of Christian Activity at Yale. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.40.
Seeley, H. G. Dragons of the Air. D. Appleton & Co.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 14, 1901.

The Week.

Senator Lodge's speech in favor of reciprocity before the Middlesex Club on Saturday has given the country a surprise—to us an agreeable one. It is not that Mr. Lodge has been heretofore hostile to reciprocity *per se*—he says at the beginning of his remarks that he has always been in favor of reciprocity as a policy; but he has not seemed to be in favor of it as a practice. At all events, he did not seem to be in favor of it in a practical way at the last session of Congress. Perhaps the erroneous impression as to his position was derived from looking too closely at the treaty with France, and too little at his action in other treaties. However that may have been, the most common belief, even in his own State, was that he would be an obstacle in the way of the ratification of any treaty with France, or with any other country which admitted goods at reduced rates of duty if any considerable interest, especially any Massachusetts interest, was opposed to it. In other words, it was generally assumed that he would construe all doubtful and debatable points against reciprocity. Yet the tone of his speech seems to be quite the contrary of this view. He alludes to the objections advanced by the knit-goods manufacturers and others in Massachusetts to the French treaty, and says that "they may be right or they may be wrong," and that Congress will, no doubt, give careful attention to the question whether the wages of workingmen in those trades will be unfavorably affected by the treaty. His argument in a general way runs in favor of ratification and in favor of freer trade with foreign countries. He says that he agrees fully with all that the late President McKinley said in his last speech at Buffalo on this subject. Probably the accession of Theodore Roosevelt as Mr. McKinley's successor in office has had even greater influence in determining Senator Lodge's course than any speeches of Mr. McKinley.

A new Daniel has appeared in the person of Representative Grosvenor of Ohio, who feels inspired by the Republican victory in his State to lay down the immutable tariff policy of the future. "There is no more chance," declares the ingenuous Grosvenor, "that the Republicans in Congress will attempt a revision of the tariff than that they will revise the Ten Commandments." Mr. Grosvenor points out that the Ohio campaign was conducted "squarely on the proposal to change the existing tariff law." The Democrats were defeated, the Ohio oracle has spoken, and "the lesson to be derived from the results is apparent." Certainly it would need a prophet or the son of a prophet to draw such conclusions from the Ohio election. The issue of the campaign was the question of endorsing or disapproving the McKinley tariff policy. Apparently Mr. Grosvenor thinks it was the Congressman of ten years ago that was vindicated, and not the President who could say at Buffalo: "The period of exclusiveness is past. Reciprocity treaties are in harmony with the spirit of the times. If, perchance, some of our tariffs are no longer needed for revenue or to encourage and protect our industries at home, why should they not be employed to extend and protect our markets abroad?" It was unfortunate, too, that the new interpretation of the Ohio election should have been sent out at the same time with an expression of opinion on the same subject from Senator Foster of Washington. While the latter was certain that there would be no "tariff tinkering," he was "not so sanguine" concerning reciprocity. Perhaps it was only by accident that he referred to a recent conversation with the President on tariff questions.

The latest shift of the "let-the-tariff-alone" faction in the Republican party is to suggest that all questions of revision of duties, with all reciprocity arrangements, be turned over to a Commission, which is to report to Congress in 1902 or 1903. If it never reports, so much the better in the thought of its promoters, since they undoubtedly intend their plan as a kind of slow murder for the whole matter. Royal commissions and Congressional committees have, in their time, done famous work as midnight stranglers of projects which Parliament and Congress did not really wish to take up, but which they dared not openly slaughter. At the same time, even a tariff commission has its dangers for the monopolists. It will have to grant hearings and to bring out facts. The result may be to kindle, instead of to smother, popular agitation, and even to convert the commission itself, as the Tariff Commission of 1882 was converted. That body was chosen as a band of trustworthy protectionists, yet was compelled by the testimony presented to it to recommend a reduction of the tariff by an average of 20 per cent. ad valorem.

A dastardly attack on the memory of President McKinley is made in the *Bulletin* of the American Iron and Steel Association. It deliberately asserts that he made his reciprocity policy "more radical than that of the Republican National Convention of 1900"; that he "conspicuously aided the free-traders"; that he "proposed a revision of the Dingley tariff," forgetting that protection "needed his continued help to strengthen it with the young men of the country, if not with their elders." It is all very well for the *Bulletin* to say that it is "painful" for it to have to expose Mr. McKinley's recreancy to protection, but the question is whether its talk is not essentially anarchistic. President Roosevelt has distinctly undertaken to carry out his predecessor's tariff policy, and is not an attack upon that an attack upon him? According to the doctrine laid down immediately after the President's assassination, the *Bulletin* should be suppressed and its editor put in jail. He merely provokes us to laughter, but how does he know that he is not provoking some protected ironmaster to murder?

The report just issued by Mr. Chamberlain, the Commissioner of Navigation, shows him an adept in the art of making a silk purse out of a sow's ear. Mr. Chamberlain points out that the past fiscal year has been "the third successive year of notable prosperity and growth in American shipping," and that even greater development may be expected. Our total tonnage is now practically equivalent to that registered in 1861. One would think that these facts ought to be conclusive proof that Government aid to an industry already prosperous is not necessary. The Commissioner, however, seems to think otherwise, for he regards a large part of the growth in shipbuilding as "presumably resting on anticipated legislation by Congress." American investors must have become suddenly trustful if they could interpret the attitude of Congress at its last session as justifying them in building ships with the expectation of a bounty. Mr. Chamberlain complains that the American fleet is still much smaller than that of many other nations, and he seems to regard it as a special source of regret that much of the increase in tonnage has taken place on the Great Lakes, rather than on the ocean. His figures, however, themselves furnish ample reply to his specious arguments. The absurdity of passing any subsidy bill was never more clearly demonstrated than by this report.

The annual report of the Commissioner of Pensions reveals anew a discreditable state of things which the Commissioner himself is powerless to remedy. The pension list has increased by 4,206 names to a total of 997,735, the greatest in the history of the Bureau. It is thirty-five years since the close of the civil

war, and yet last year 39,674 new civil-war pensions were granted. On account of the Mexican war, pensions are paid to 8,109 widows, and 7,568 "survivors" are on the pension list. With this latter figure it is interesting to compare the statement in the *Army and Navy Journal* for October 26 that "of the 110,000 American soldiers who participated in the Mexican war, only about 5,000 are now living." Under the present law, Commissioner Evans is almost powerless to prevent the wrongful granting of pensions. Such a minimum of reform as to make widows' pensions run from the date of application, not of the husband's death, and the right of disciplining rascally pension attorneys, Congress should grant him immediately. It is a standing disgrace to us that, as things now are, it is practically impossible to tell fair claims from fraudulent.

Senator Hanna, in an interview last Saturday, gave a very interesting moral diagnosis of the case of President Roosevelt. At first blush it might seem as though the difference in temperament between the two men was too great to permit of a mutual understanding. Simon Magus, who represented commercialism in religion, it will be remembered, once undertook to enlist St. Paul in the quest of the main chance, and got only the retort that his money and presumably his doctrine might perish with him. Evidently Mr. Hanna, whatever Mr. Roosevelt's personal inclination may have been, got a softer response to his effort to guide the President in the paths of Republican peace and profit. "He is doing the best any man could do," says the Senator. "He is honest, sincere, and determined to do that which will be for the greatest good of his country. He, *like myself*, places his country before anything or anybody." Mr. Roosevelt's patriotism, though enthusiastically recognized, has lacked this final eulogy and certification, that it is the same as Hanna's or "equally as good." It is painful, however, to observe that Senator Hanna did not leave his laudation of the President right there, but proceeded to retract somewhat. "It would not be fair," he felt, "to compare him to McKinley"—Mr. Hanna was unwilling to subject Mr. Roosevelt to that supreme test of conformity to the Hannaesque standard. This might have passed, but when Mr. Hanna admitted that there would probably be some disappointment over the President's "distribution of patronage," he shattered the comparison he himself had set up; for it is plain that if the President's patriotism is identical with Hanna's, its works will be very different from his.

President Roosevelt has served notice that Federal officials must observe the Civil-Service Law or suffer punishment by removing the Collector of Customs at El Paso, Texas. This official was charged with having received contributions for partisan purposes, and with having caused questions in an impending competitive examination to be supplied to favored applicants. The charges were investigated by the Civil-Service Commission and found to be substantiated. As soon as Mr. Roosevelt could give the matter attention, he took it up, and, having satisfied himself of the Collector's wrongdoing, applied the penalty by depriving him of his office. The action not only is important in itself, but also will serve as an impressive warning to other officials—and there are not a few of them—who have been "monkeying with the law."

The Democratic victory in Virginia, where Montague was elected Governor by about 25,000 majority, and his party will control both branches of the Legislature by an overwhelming vote, will put to rest some very troublesome doubts. The work of the Constitutional Convention has all along been hampered by the fear of what might happen in the November contest, and the reports of many committees have been held back pending the close of the campaign. Had the Republicans gained any ground, it might have been expected that they could at least have brought a moral pressure to bear in modifying the action of the Convention, but their utter rout leaves that body free to act its pleasure, and will probably be taken as justifying the proclamation of the Constitution, in place of its submission to the electorate. Of the two suffrage provisions now before the Convention, that supported by the majority of the Suffrage Committee gives far more latitude in excluding prospective voters than does the minority report, and it will beyond question be accepted. With this provision adopted by the Convention and the new Constitution proclaimed, the poor white may for the most part retain his ballot, but the negro will as a rule be disfranchised. That this result is expected may be gathered from the report that the negroes last week very generally refrained from voting. This inaction does not indicate, as some dispatches have it, a lack of interest in the outcome, but rather the knowledge that their vote was not likely to be counted. One good result of the Democratic victory will be the speedy termination of the work of the Constitutional Convention.

While it is to be regretted that Philadelphia could not have matched New York in a triumph over corrupt politics, neither the result in that city nor in the State should be discouraging to the reform forces. Both in the city and in the State the machine was evidently too strongly intrenched to be routed in the first assault, but there is encouraging evidence that it has been weakened. Throughout the State the Republican machine majorities have been greatly reduced, and there is reason to believe that in Philadelphia the majority for the machine candidate for District Attorney is the result of police-protected fraud at the polls, rather than the expression of the honest vote of the citizens. That city is the stronghold of the Quay machine, and to overthrow it there will be the first step towards its overthrow in the State. Good preliminary work to that end has been done.

That Tammany can not only be beaten, but kept beaten, is demonstrated by comparing the results of the elections four years ago and this year in the Twentieth Assembly District, which is a tenement-house district on the East Side, and used to be a Tammany stronghold:

		Anti-Tam'y.		
		Low.....	1,502	
		Tracy.....	1,147	
	Tammany.			Maj'ty
1897	Van Wyck..... 4,772	Total.....	2,649	2,123
1901	Shepard..... 4,451	Low.....	3,733	718

Here we have a district in which Tammany four years ago polled 2,123 more votes than Low and Tracy together, while this year, on a larger poll, the Tammany lead on the Mayoralty is reduced to only 718. Nor is this all, or the best. For District Attorney more than 200 Democrats who accepted Shepard repudiated Unger, and nearly all of them supported Jerome, who received 3,923 ballots, against 4,248 for the Tammany nominee, reducing the Tammany lead to 325; while Tammany was beaten for the office of Alderman, polling only 3,991 votes for the President of the present Board, running for reëlection, against 4,168 for the Fusion nominee.

The realization on the part of the press, of a number of clergymen, and of the most prominent social workers in the city that there must be a revision of the existing liquor laws and an abolition of the Raines-law hotels, is the most gratifying development since the election. We believe that many of the newly chosen Assemblymen from this city will also be found to favor a Sunday opening. All who have in any way looked into this question feel that no other achievement could do more to insure a decent police force and permanent good government than the taking of the saloon out of politics. As long as the present law remains on the books, the moral welfare of the community is doubly menaced, since to the Raines-law hotels must be laid a large part of the menacing growth of the social evil under Tammany rule. That there will be opposition from country legislators to any general Sunday-opening law is to be expected, and it may, indeed, be war-

ranted by social conditions in the rural communities of the State. But with a practically united press, and such men as Messrs. Charles Stewart Smith, J. P. Faure, W. H. Baldwin, jr., and Drs. Parkhurst and Rainsford ready to back Justice Jerome up in his efforts to bring about a change in the law, a local-option provision should not be beyond reach, under which New York city might vote on the question of opening the saloons on Sunday. The subject is one which demands a calm consideration of the issues involved, and particularly a proper regard for the convictions, and even prejudices, of all concerned. There are, however, some signs of heat in the local discussion of it.

The adoption of the Marconi system of wireless telegraphy by the London Lloyds can hardly fail to prove the beginning of a change which will eventually revolutionize seafaring conditions. Steamships may have as ready communication with shore stations and other ships within a radius of a hundred miles as though they were connected with an electric wire. Sailing vessels, while their power to communicate would be limited by their small supply of electricity, would, if fitted with the Marconi system, be able to report a disaster to all similarly equipped vessels within a like radius. The universal introduction of the wireless telegraph on ships—a consummation towards which the marine insurance companies, captains, and shippers will undoubtedly press urgently—should greatly reduce the number of casualties at sea. Even in the case of sudden and complete disaster, it would usually be possible for a sinking ship to report her latitude and longitude and the intended courses of her boats. The commercial possibilities which the general introduction of wireless telegraphy on ships opens up need not be dwelt upon. One need only imagine ship bound to ship on the ocean as town is to town on land by the telephone, to perceive the probable significance of this commercial experiment. In a more imaginative aspect, the idea of an ocean over which a thousand messages vibrate is not without its poetical suggestiveness.

An unexpected and gratifying result of American industrial competition in Europe is the French-American school of industry which the Socialist Minister of Commerce proposes to found in this country. M. Millerand, establishing a headquarters for the school at Philadelphia or Chicago, will seek the coöperation of our Government and of our great manufacturing companies. The movement is the highest kind of tribute, not only to the "audacity, inventive genius, and marvellous organization" of our great industries, but also, indirectly, to those technical schools which early realized that there was room for a distinct educational organization to mediate between pure science and rule-of-thumb. The plan is even more gratifying because it is in implied protest against the exaggerated proclamations of industrial war which amateur economists now particularly affect. The French Government evidently does not regard our skill and our recognized superiority in certain lines as a menace to its own industrial prosperity, but assumes that we are willing to share some of our special knowledge and accumulated advantages. Such an attitude shows a prevision of that future comity of nations which we have always held that a normal industrial competition should promote rather than imperil.

The prompt and complete settlement of the Franco-Turkish dispute has lent little comfort to the sensation-mongers. It has confirmed the confidence of those who believed that the naval demonstration of Admiral Caillard was made with the full knowledge and advisement of all the chancelleries. France comes out of the matter with full satisfaction of all her claims for damages, and, beyond the original stipulations, a general permission for the present schools, monastic establishments, and hospitals under the charge of France to make for five months such alterations and extensions as they desire—a facility which has formerly been granted only with the utmost reluctance and delay. The successful handling of the whole affair must inevitably reflect credit upon the Waldeck-Rousseau Ministry, for the call to arms is ever popular. The Ministry has won, besides, the more genuine prestige of finally shattering the superstition that the Ottoman Empire is exempt from the penalty of its chronic malfeasance. That this changed attitude of the Powers is fully recognized by the Porte, is indicated by the news that, hard upon the French settlement, long-standing Austrian claims against Turkey have been satisfactorily adjusted.

A new argument against the Continental sugar-bounties has been advanced by a Dutch writer. He complains bitterly that they are helping England pay the cost of the Boer war. This leaves France and Germany and Belgium and Holland, countries where the South African war is most vehemently denounced, in the lamentable position of taxing themselves to pay the interest on the British war debt. The reasoning is not without force. In 1890, for example, France and Germany paid on sugar exported to England bounties amounting to $18,000,000. That sum was then a clear present to the British consumer. As Professor Sumner used to put it, other nations had the sugar industry, but England had the sugar. Since the war tax on sugar was laid, however, a part of the bounty goes directly into the British exchequer. The British consumer is, of course, worse off by so much, but imagine the feelings of Continental England-haters when told that they are, in effect, taxing themselves to aid in putting down the Boers. They will think it a fresh evidence of Albion's perfidious slyness. What they ought to think is, of course, that it is a convincing proof of their own stupidity. It is possible that this new phase of the matter may open their eyes at last, and that the forthcoming Congress at Brussels to consider the abolition of sugar bounties may decide to end the whole system.

The death of Li Hung Chang emphasizes the uncertainties of the Chinese situation, while it does not essentially alter the present condition of things. For some years past he had been transferred from the pivotal province of Chi-li to a southern governorship, and was called in only to settle complications in the making of which he had had no part. It was thus that his influence was preponderant in the Japanese settlement and in the negotiations with the European Concert now recently completed. It was this mediatorial office which Li Hung Chang exercised from the first. During the time when his association with Gordon and Ward, in the Taiping rebellion, was raising him from a minor position in the civil service to a generalcy, he came to know the Western temperament, and to foresee that mixture of peril and of advantage for China which lay in her inevitable contact with Western civilization. It was his part to guard his people against aggression, and even more to guard them against the excessive indulgence of their own anti-foreign prejudices. He was naturally hampered in this effort, and frequently, when anti-foreign influences prevailed at the court, was in virtual disgrace. But every time there was a treaty to be negotiated with a foreign Power, Li Hung Chang was the only thinkable representative for his nation. His long ascendancy, which, curiously, never had full official recognition, was rather remarkable for his astuteness in keeping his nation out of trouble, and in mending the mistakes of other men, than for any definte constructive policy of his own. The advance of Russia to the Yellow Sea was made, it was generally believed, with his connivance; and whatever of good or ill is to come from the annexation of Mantchuria is probably to be laid in part at his door. Although he lacked the prestige that tangible success brought to Grant and Bismarck, his patient and wholly Oriental wisdom in a time of hesitation should make him equally memorable with them; while for interest of a personal sort the inscrutable viceroy yields to no statesman of modern times.

A LED DEMOCRACY.

Continued gratulation is heard, and with reason, on the fresh hope for universal suffrage in great cities which the New York election inspires. It was not simply that Tammany was beaten, but that it was flung out of its own fortresses below Fourteenth Street. This is the great fact, the great good cheer, which has most impressed the country. Upon this, intelligent foreign observers have commented. It was a demonstration that the ignorant voter, the foreign-born voter, the democrat wielding a weapon of suffrage to which his hands were untrained, could yet be approached with argument and persuasion and example, and made to see as straight and vote as true as his more delicately clad and comfortably fed fellow-citizen of the West Side.

This revelation was no surprise to those who best knew the people who made it. What we saw in the election returns of Tuesday week was only what Capt. Goddard and Jacob Riis and Mr. Reynolds have all along maintained that we should see when the occasion arrived. They discovered long ago, what seems to have been hidden from the wise and prudent on Fifth Avenue, that the residents of Stanton Street and Mulberry Bend had a due share of human nature; had minds to perceive what was truly for the city's welfare, and hearts to respond when appeals were made to protect the helpless and save the innocent. The change was not in the men and women of the East Side, but in the tactics of those who set about securing their aid in the fight against municipal corruption. The great difficulty with the working of universal suffrage in our large cities was pointed out by Mr. Bryce. There was, on the one hand, "an ignorant multitude, largely composed of recent immigrants, untrained in self-government." Then there was the great body of "able citizens absorbed in their private businesses, cultivated citizens unusually sensitive to the vulgarities of practical politics, and *both sets therefore specially unwilling to sacrifice their time and tastes and comfort in the struggle with sordid wirepullers and noisy demagogues.*" The great triumph of the campaign was to bring that unnatural separation of classes to an end, with a result that astonished and gratified the city, the country, and, we may say, the whole world.

In a single phrase, it was a led democracy at work that gave us the victory. That was the sort of democracy which the great leaders of liberty and enfranchisement in the nineteenth century always had in mind. The Liberals in England, the emancipators in America, who strove mightily for the extension of the suffrage to whole new classes and entire races, never imagined that a magical virtue resided in the ballot. They thought of it as a great educator for the poor and ignorant, as well as a weapon of defence against oppression; but they also thought that the natural leaders of society would find new motive and purpose in going to the masses to train and guide them. Universal suffrage is, indeed, a nuisance to the superior citizen who desires to lounge at home and do the whole duty of political man in drawing a check. But to men who see in it a powerful appeal to effort; who know that society must educate its masters or perish, must lift up the lowly or sink lower than they; and who know also that the humblest of God's creatures, white or brown or black, has a spark of the divine reason in him, and can be shown the good and taught to admire the beautiful and honor the worthy—why, to them, the freeman's ballot is the instrument of political progress and social improvement. A rightly led democracy, however swarming, however tumultuous, is a source of strength and pride, not the threat that some men see in it.

And the matter is of wider scope than city elections. The principle vindicated by the repudiation of Tammany in its favored haunts is good for the South, with its problem of negro suffrage; good also for Cuba and Porto Rico and the Philippines, where our rulers are so timorous about self-government. After the great awakening in New York city, we ought to be ready to assert in firmer tones what Lowell was able to say when the prospect was gloomier than we now feel it to be—namely:

> "The democratic theory is that those Constitutions are likely to prove steadiest which have the broadest base, that the right to vote makes a safety-valve of every voter, and that the best way of teaching a man how to vote is to give him the chance of practice. For the question is no longer the academic one, 'Is it wise to give every man the ballot?' but rather the practical one, 'Is it prudent to deprive whole classes of it any longer?' "

Turn an army officer loose on the East Side, with its mixture of races and creeds, its struggling life, its poverty, its ignorance, and would he not be certain to report that self-government by such people was out of the question? Yet we believe him when he gravely tells us that of Manila, of Havana, of San Juan! And the South is going deliberately to work to disfranchise the negro, instead of teaching him, as he could be taught, to use the suffrage wisely. No such shrinking love of ease and dread of combat was in the mind of Sumner when he rejoiced in negro suffrage as one of the levers to lift a race. He wished, too, to see fit negroes in Federal office, as both "a testimony and a symbol"—a testimony to the fairness of white men, a symbol of hope for black. And what he and the Republicans of an elder day would have thought of our modern dread of men with ballots in their hands in Cuba and the Philippines, it is easy to surmise. But the fresh courage we are taking from the example of New York cannot fail to go with us to the South and to the Orient. There, as here, men can be taught and led. There, as here, a broad-based democracy, with leaders not afraid nor slothful, may become the securest and happiest of governments.

ELECTION EXPENSES.

The filing by candidates of the statements required by law regarding their expenditures during the recent campaign brings up again the whole subject of such expenditures. It is worth noting that this year—owing, doubtless, to the fact that the public conscience was known to be aroused—the sums paid by candidates as a rule were relatively lower than in former years, though there are some exceptions, as, for instance, in the Sixth Judicial District, where the Fusion candidate for Magistrate expended $2,360 to secure his election. But the sums contributed or expended by candidates do not, of course, make up any considerable portion of the money used during the election canvass. The law ought to be so amended as to call for itemized statements from leaders and chairmen also, and then some real idea could be formed by the general public of the uses to which campaign contributions are put.

It is, of course, understood that the perfectly legitimate expenses of a canvass are extremely heavy. Printing and postage—items which, like charity, frequently cover a multitude of sins—really require the use of very large sums. It costs about $20,000 to send a circular, under a two-cent stamp, to each of the voters of Greater New York, and each voter is probably served with half a dozen such circulars, general and local, during a fairly lively canvass. In the campaign just closed so successfully, at least three anti-Tammany organizations maintained for three months headquarters in each of the sixty-five Assembly districts of the greater city, at an aggregate cost of perhaps $50,000. At an average it costs, all told, about $50 to hold a well-ordered indoor district campaign meeting of the kind of which five or six an evening are held in each Assembly district. This includes music; a campaign meeting without music is like champagne without fizz. Meetings like these are continued for at least three weeks, at an aggregate expenditure of probably more than $150,000, to say nothing of the cost of the less numerous but larger and individually more expensive general meetings. A truck-meeting, with music, costs about $20. The Fusionists probably kept as many as four trucks to an Assembly district going during the last ten days of the recent canvass, and this foots up a cost of more than $50,000. The sums which may

properly and beneficially be expended in the distribution of campaign literature, the posting of "campaign slogans," and the raising of banners are practically limitless.

All these expenditures are perfectly legitimate, as well as many others not specifically mentioned. They give some idea of the necessary cost of a campaign, and it would undoubtedly be of great interest if they could be officially declared, as the direct expenditures of the candidates are. There are other expenditures of a less certain nature which it would be interesting to learn more about. The law does not permit a candidate to purchase tickets to balls, outings, etc., but he may "contribute to the success" of such enterprises, or his campaign managers may buy tickets. Numerous clubs spring up during each campaign, willing, even eager, to give balls and outings. Kegs and half-barrels of beer take on astonishing qualities during a campaign. If bestowed, they transform reluctant and coldly deliberating electors into enthusiastic advocates; if withheld, they wither friendships which have bloomed with surprising swiftness in the warm sunshine of expectation.

The election expenditures which are most open to question, however, are those of election day. The Monday before the Tuesday of election is known to all party workers as "dough day." A certain sum is given by each party on this occasion to the captain of each election district. This varies widely, running anywhere from $10 to $200 for an election district. There are nearly 900 election districts in Manhattan and the Bronx, and a corresponding number in the other boroughs. Just what becomes of this money the public does not know, but ought to know. Probably the larger part of it is simply wasted. Few votes are bought outright in these days of secret ballots. It is undoubtedly possible for a voter to identify his vote, but the risk, both of failure to vote a valid ballot and of exposure, is too great, and the process necessarily too elaborate, to constitute a serious danger.

Much of the money which is wasted is paid to men who wear party badges and are called "workers," probably because they do no work. They are engaged to "get out the vote," but when, as on Tuesday week, two-thirds of the voters come to the polls before noon, their chief exertion is to stand, or lean, near the polling-place a considerable portion of the day, and to receive the five dollars apiece for less than which no true-blooded party "worker" will consent to wear a badge.

This dumping of large sums upon the election districts on election morning is perhaps the worst feature of our present election machinery. The central committees are largely responsible for it, and the responsibility rests also heavily upon the campaign contributor who sends in his check only a few days before the election. A hundred dollars contributed to a proper committee three, or better four, weeks before the election is pretty sure of a good and legitimate use. The same amount sent in under stress of the last week's excitement is equally likely to be wasted, or worse. Some money is, of course, needed on election day for real watchers, and challengers must in most cases be paid for their labor; but one-tenth of the election-day output would suffice for all this. This is one of the lessons which ought to be learned, and which, when citizens are permanently aroused to the performance of their civic duties, will soon be mastered.

THE FUTURE OF MUNICIPAL FRANCHISES.

The issue of a pamphlet by the Chicago Committee on Local Transportation, in which the probable recommendations on street-railway policy are announced, recalls attention to what is in some respects the greatest problem confronting American municipalities to-day. The question of franchises not merely for street-railways, but for all kinds of municipal monopolies, was never more vital than now. Though it was overshadowed by the greater moral issues at stake in the city campaign which has just closed, it was freely discussed by candidates. In Indianapolis the terms of a franchise grant are now under discussion. In Chicago the fact that existing street-railway charters begin to expire less than two years from now, makes independent action on the part of that city imperative, in view of the failure of last year's Street-Railway Commission to obtain from the Legislature a general act for the control of municipal franchises. The public interest which has practically compelled the appointment of the present Committee, furnishes most encouraging evidence that the American public is awaking to the real importance of the problem. This interest is in striking contrast with the apathy of Philadelphia and some other cities, and lends unusual weight to the leading suggestions of the Committee's special report.

The whole recent discussion of the franchise question has practically turned upon the conditions under which franchises may actually be granted with the greatest advantage to the grantor. We say this, knowing that there are many stock and bond holders who fondly cling to the old system of long-term grants, and many Utopists who would advocate the abolition of franchises and the ownership and operation of public-service enterprises by the municipality. We believe, however, that both these classes of extremists are so far in the minority that their opinions may be disregarded in practical discussions, and that it may be taken for granted that private ownership and operation under suitable conditions and for appropriate short terms, with proper payment to the grantors of such privileges, is the preferable policy. That such is the consensus of opinion among those best qualified to pass upon the question may be seen from the practical unanimity of expression at all the recent meetings of municipal experts, and from the substantial harmony manifested in the statements of policy put forward by high-minded candidates for office, irrespective of political party.

But when these two broad principles of municipal policy have been accepted, there yet remains a great field for debate, and this debate has chiefly been concentrated upon two controverted points—the length of the franchise term, and the mode in which compensation is to be made. There are many who maintain that the proper policy to pursue is one of short-term grants, renewable from time to time, while a less strong body of opinion favors an indeterminate franchise, revocable at the pleasure of the City Council. The advocates of the short-term plan point out that, in the beginning at least, franchises should run for a term equal to the life of the fixed capital employed, which, in the case of electric installations, is said by engineers to be about ten years. If this period be not allowed for the recovery of the first investment, they say, investors cannot be induced to undertake the work.

The reply made by those who believe in the indeterminate grant is to cite the experience of Boston and Washington, where excellent traction systems are in use under revocable franchises. The whole question has an important bearing on good municipal government. Corporations could not afford to be blackmailed annually by threats of revocation, and it might therefore be confidently expected that their powerful influence would, under a revocable franchise system, be turned to the support of honest legislators, who would not adopt low methods for personal profit. It is interesting, in view of this discussion, to find the Chicago Committee favoring what seems likely to be the franchise policy of the future—a short-term grant at the outset, subsequently revocable, at the pleasure of the City Council, upon proper compensation for the fixed capital taken.

The problem of compensation for the grant of franchises is far more troublesome, and no satisfactory solution has so far been agreed upon. How the question is being attacked may be seen from the agitation in Iowa for the heavier taxation of railways on the basis of franchise values, from the recent effort in Cleveland to secure an increase in the assessment of franchises, and from the

attempt to assess New York franchises on the same principles as real estate. The main difficulties encountered are, of course, rather those of practical application than of theory. Few would doubt that taxation should ultimately be proportioned to net income. The difficulty is to ascertain the amount of this income with precision, and to discriminate net from apparent earnings. Obstacles in the way of this endeavor have led to the search for some other basis of assessment. The Chicago Committee discard the net-earnings principle, and propose that compensation be secured from a percentage of gross receipts, though they recommend that after six years a reduction of fare take the place of the money payment.

The question is, however, not merely a choice between reduction of fares and an annual cash bonus. The extent of the reduction, or the amount of the bonus, as the case may be, has to be determined. It is just at this point that the real complexity of the street-railway problem shows itself. Earnings must not be so reduced that it will be impossible to provide a depreciation fund sufficient to cover the deterioration of the plant within the time for which the franchise is first granted, and this should be borne in mind when fixing both the life of the franchise and the amount of the compensation, whether the latter be in cash or in lower fares. The investor must be allowed a good return upon his capital if he is to give good service. He must be able to provide a depreciation fund, or he will never consent to a revocable franchise which would permit a City Council to sweep away his chance of recovering his investment in the form of large profits. He must be left large liberty to deal with employees and to regulate the running of cars. The Chicago Committee err chiefly in their effort to legislate too minutely on the latter points. Something must be trusted to the wisdom and the business sense of the corporations themselves; and where a proper reservation of power has been made, such trust will not be in vain.

The franchise policy of the immediate future, as regards not merely traction but all other public-service corporations, must be simple and conservative. Short-term grants, with subsequent power to revoke, adequate compensation to the municipality—probably in the form partly of lower fares and partly of limitation of profits, with prescribed bookkeeping—these are the fundamentals of franchise reform. With the great principles established and an ultimate power of control reserved, minute interference with business details will be neither wise nor necessary.

SALISBURY AND THE WAR.

Lord Salisbury's Guildhall speech on Saturday seems to have disappointed some of his followers by its sombre tone. Apparently they expected him to indulge in quips and epigrams. But the situation is surely not one to call for a display of his old *Saturday-Review* manner. In view of the recent disaster to Col. Benson's column in South Africa, of the distinct revival of the war and its spread into Cape Colony, and of the calamitous death-rate among the Boer children in the concentration camps, at which humane England is appalled, pleasantries or sarcasms on the part of the Prime Minister would have been most ill-timed. They would have been too much like gibes from Yorick's skull.

Others among the supporters of the Government reproach Lord Salisbury for not having taken the country more into his confidence. But we do not see the force of this complaint. The ugly facts are as well known to the man in the street as to the Premier. The list of casualties, the great force still required in the field, the $7,500,000 a week which the war is costing, the income tax—these are the features of the situation which stand out before every eye. While not minimizing them, Lord Salisbury declared that the Government had important plans for hastening the end of the war which it would be a breach of public duty for him to reveal. This attitude is entirely correct. Salisbury is too serious a statesman to affirm that new measures are afoot unless such were the case; and none knows better than he that to publish his plans would be the best way of inviting their defeat. Former projects have gone so sadly astray that there will be natural skepticism about these latest ones, whatever they may be. They may be connected with Gen. Ian Hamilton's return to South Africa, or the proposal to raise a sort of *Landwehr* in Cape Colony; but the Prime Minister is quite right in declining to take the country into his confidence as regards these military plans. If the country does not want to turn out the Government, it must let it carry on the war and conduct its diplomacy with the reserve which is necessary to the success of either.

To judge by the cabled reports of Salisbury's speech, he had nothing to say about that aspect of the war which is most afflicting to the best people in England. There can be no doubt that the horrors of the concentration camps have been a source of shame and humiliation to Englishmen, irrespective of party. For this it will be most difficult to forgive the Government, when all is over. A death-rate among the detained Dutch children of nearly 400 per thousand per year—this, as that old Conservative, Mr. Courtney, has bitterly observed, this is "the pitiless fact which crushes all hypotheses." Admit that the policy of concentrating the Boer women and children in camps was humane in intention; grant that it was a military mistake, as it may be plausibly argued that it was, and that the innocent victims of the war would have perished even more miserably on the veldt, or would have led the men to surrender sooner if they had not been brought in; allow, as no doubt in fairness it must be allowed, that Gen. Kitchener and the War Office have done everything within their power to feed and care for the unfortunate Dutch families—still, the result has been as humiliating to the British management of the war as it will always appear simply frightful.

It is not only foreigners or "pro-Boer" Englishmen who are saying these things, and whose cheeks burn with indignation as they read of these unintended but unrelieved miseries. Philanthropists and clergymen have begun to cry shame upon the Government on the score of this massacre of the innocents. Only a few days ago, Canon Gore, the distinguished Churchman, published a letter in which he said:

> "Hitherto the conscience of the country has been, actively or passively, as a whole supporting the war; but, unless I am very much mistaken, it must peremptorily require that immediate steps, however costly—whether by the speedy introduction of suitable nourishment into the camps in sufficient abundance or by the removal of the camps to the sea—be taken to obviate this unexampled and horrible death-rate among the children for whose protection we have, by a policy which may have been mistaken, but is, at any rate, not now reversible, made ourselves responsible. Otherwise, I believe, the honor of our country will contract a stain which we shall not be able to obliterate, and the whole Christian conscience of the country will be outraged and alienated."

The Canon was, of course, yelped at by the Chamberlain pack as guilty of "treason." A furious controversy was, in fact, raging about his utterance when what should Lord Salisbury do but appoint him Bishop of Worcester? It was one of those cool things which Salisbury so often has done in defiance of mob feeling. Canon Gore undoubtedly deserved the promotion, on the score of piety and scholarship; but to have got it just at this time! One of its amusing results will be to place the new Bishop in spiritual authority over Canon Knox-Little, a furibund clergyman who has been dealing out death to the Boers, and who had broken out violently against Canon Gore himself just before the latter was made his reverend father in God!

So far as Salisbury's speech breathed dogged determination to "see the war through," it undoubtedly spoke the sentiments of the vast majority of Englishmen. There is no political combination in sight or possible which could stop the war, so long as the Boers elect to go on fighting. Even Campbell-Bannerman, even Mr. Bryce, even John Morley, admit that the war, having been once begun in an unhappy hour, must be fought to the bitter end. The most mili-

tant Liberals simply hope to accumulate against the Tories enough evidence of mismanagement of the war, both in its inception and in its conduct, to beat them when the war is over; they are under no illusions about the possibility of taking office before the war is somehow brought to an end. Yet, at the same time, they think that generous terms of settlement might, even now, hasten the close of hostilities. They will, therefore, find some encouragement in what Lord Salisbury said upon this point. He receded openly from his old defiant talk about not leaving the Boers "a shred of independence," and spoke of his strong desire that they should "enjoy immediately peace, freedom, and civil rights," and, as soon as time would permit, "the other blessings of self-government." But there is no evidence that the Boers are yet minded to leave off scorning such terms or despising English proclamations; and the best prospect is that this ignoble war, undertaken in an evil hour for England, and waged with such unexampled losses and humiliations, will go grinding on its pitiless way for many weary months more, if not years.

MORLEY ON GLADSTONE.

Mr. John Morley was orator of the day at the recent unveiling of a statue of Gladstone in Manchester, and his address was a fine estimate of the personal and public qualities of his old chief. Speaking in what is now a Tory stronghold—Mr. Balfour represents a Manchester constituency—Mr. Morley naturally avoided controverted political topics. He discussed, not the particular measures with which Mr. Gladstone's name was associated, but the spirit in which he lived and worked. And no one who knows Mr. Morley's gift for political philosophy, and his ability to read the large and universal lesson in the separate detail, would need to be assured that he made his tribute to the departed Liberal leader a vehicle for conveying his own ideals of public service and statesmanlike worth.

His praise of Gladstone's oratory must necessarily seem a little high-pitched to one out from under the spell of voice and eye, which all agree to have exerted an extraordinary fascination in the case of the great Parliamentarian and popular speaker. Gladstone's speeches were, no doubt, "saturated in matter." No one ever steeped himself beforehand more thoroughly in his material; no orator, apparently, ever trusted more to the moment's flow of words. They flowed, in fact, in too rushing and too little limpid a flood to entitle him to a place among the greatest orators. His extraordinary turn for refining and qualifying—"Gladstonese," we have heard it called—is like a mist upon the page of his orations when read; and, when heard, laid him somewhat open to the charge of studied ambiguity. Mr. Morley admits this defect, which he explains as due to Gladstone's dread of loose statement, so that "what passed for sophistry or subtlety was in truth a scruple of conscience." This is an utterance of loyalty, but we think that Walter Bagehot, in his wonderfully discriminating and prophetic article on Gladstone forty years ago, came nearer the fact when he said that this tendency to over-nice distinctions was inherent in Mr. Gladstone's mind, of which the natural and favored method was that of a scholastic theologian.

Another limitation which Mr. Morley recognizes in his hero is the lack of an open mind for what science was doing in his world.

> "I remember," he says, "going out with him one Sunday afternoon to pay a visit to Mr. Darwin. It was in the seventies. As I came away, I felt that no impression had reached him; that that intellectual, modest, single-minded, low-browed lover of truth, that searcher of the secrets of nature, had made no impression on Mr. Gladstone's mind, though he had seen one who from his Kentish hilltop was shaking the world."

But of all these minor aspects of a great character we may say, as Henry IV. said to the Spanish Ambassador, "What! has not your master virtues enough to have some defects?"

Mr. Gladstone's nobility of soul was the thing in him which most impressed observers. A grateful correspondent once wrote to him, "You have so lived and wrought that you have kept the soul alive in England." Countless testimonies to the same effect might be cited. One of the latest we find in a letter of the historian, John Richard Green. Writing of an evening passed in a distinguished company where Gladstone was present, he said, "I felt so proud of my leader, because, wise or unwise as he might seem in this or that, he was always noble of soul." This higher plane on which Gladstone moved, this purer air which he breathed, together with his ardor for liberty, his belief in progress, his indefatigable energy, and his inextinguishable hopefulness, made him the great public figure he was. The tradition of his oratory will die away, and his speeches, like most speeches, will lie unread; but the memory of his lofty bearing, his flashing chivalry, his spontaneous and burning indignation against oppression of any man in any land—this is the fine and lasting legacy he bequeathed to his country and the world.

Mr. Morley eloquently combatted the notion that Mr. Gladstone was ever a mere time-server. The fame of a great public teacher was, rather, that which he would place upon his head as a laurel crown. Gladstone knew, of course, that, as is the case with any leader in a democracy, he must work in and through public opinion; but it was ever his aim to create and guide that opinion, never slavishly to follow it. The fact that he set himself to the immense and, as it turned out, impossible task of persuading England to grant home rule to Ireland, should be proof enough that he was as far as possible from being an "ear-to-the-ground" statesman. Mr. Morley adduces a more conclusive, because a less debated, instance. It is the case of Gladstone's revolutionary Budget of 1853. Of this he says:

> "Well, gentlemen, what did Mr. Gladstone do on this occasion? Did he run about feeling the pulse of popular opinion? No. He grappled with the facts with infinite genius and labor—and, recollect, with Mr. Gladstone half his genius was labor. He built up a vast plan. He carried that plan to the Cabinet. The Cabinet were against him almost to a man. They warned him that the House of Commons would be against him. The officials of the Treasury told him the Bank would be against him, that a great press of interests would be against him. But, like an intrepid and sinewy athlete that he always was, he stood to his guns. He converted the Cabinet. He persuaded the House of Commons. He vanquished the Bank and the hostile interests, and, in the words of one of his successors, he did all those things, and he changed and turned for many years to come the current of public opinion with that force which was too powerful for any mind to resist. Don't let it be said, then, that Mr. Gladstone was a man who always followed the flowing tide."

It cannot be denied that Mr. Gladstone's political fame has suffered something of an eclipse in England. He was out of sympathy with the movement for expansion and empire which has been sweeping everything before it in the last decade. When that cloud passes, Gladstone's sun will shine out again. His bitterest revilers are doing at this moment what his friends could not do to revive his glory. Chamberlain and Salisbury in South Africa are making Gladstone's policy there seem a monument of wisdom. The process of "wiping out" the shame of Majuba Hill has brought too many new shames to be very damaging to Gladstone's memory. But, all these matters aside, he was a man of such a mould and fibre, and of such a transcendent career, that no one has since arisen to take the place which he unquestionably held at his death—that of "the world's greatest citizen."

'IRELAND AND THE EMPIRE.'

DUBLIN, October 30, 1901.

For the past seventy years, a solid conservative minority of Irish members, sent from the north to Parliament, has been able to delay or forestall measures of Irish reform. There now appears every probability of that minority being broken up, mainly through the exertions of one man—Thomas Wallis Russell. His career has been so interesting, and he has now written such a remarkable book, that a notice of him and it appears opportune. It is illustrative of the enduring depressing effects of the penal laws and misgovernment upon the Irish people, in their own country, that while they themselves, in a steady stream of emigration, have had to seek careers abroad, a considerable number of English and Scotch immigrants have all along found openings for themselves in Ireland. Mr. Russell, a Scotchman, was one of

these. He came over at an early age, and from one employment and another passed into that of an Irish temperance association. To a ready pen, untiring energy, and singular organizing powers, he added ability as a platform orator. He made the temperance movement in Ireland his own. It was mainly through his exertions that the Sunday Closing Act, such as it is, was passed. Of blameless character, beloved in his social relations, he could be a bitter opponent. No man ever had greater power of establishing and keeping up a "raw." The liquor-dealers would gladly have lynched him.

In those early days he was a Liberal—favoring the disestablishment of the Irish Church and a reform in the land laws. He never had any sympathy with national aspirations. The excesses, as he conceived them to be, of the Land League gradually inclined him towards the Conservative ranks. Mr. Gladstone's Home Rule proposals completed the process. He came to believe that the liquor interest was less of a danger to the country than Home Rule would be. He proved himself to be one of the ablest Liberal-Unionist workers and speakers, and upon that platform was returned to Parliament. The position he, the proprietor of a temperance hotel in Dublin, came to occupy in Parliament and in Conservative circles in England is striking proof of the spirit of equality, irrespective of worldly possessions, that dominates English political life. Mr. Russell, in a book published a few days ago,* says that if Mr. Gladstone had been twenty years younger, and if Mr. Parnell had not gone astray, Home Rule would now probably be the law of the land. Many believe that the same change would have been effected but for Mr. Chamberlain's astuteness and Mr. Russell's oratory in and out of Parliament.

Nothing could exceed the bitterness of his denunciation of the character and doings of Mr. Parnell and his following. This was repaid in kind. It used to be humorously suggested that if there were but one door into heaven and Mr. Russell held the key, none of the Irish members would seek admission. Yet in generous moments he did not hesitate to admit that the Land League had "practically converted the tenants from serfs into freemen." (This conversion surely justified much, where for half a century appeals and reasoning had proved ineffectual.) Mr. Russell amply earned reward at the hands of the Ministry, and received it in being appointed Under-Secretary to the English Local Government Board. He displayed administrative abilities; and the highest appointments in the state capable of being filled by a layman, one without legal training, were open to him. By a second marriage he became still further connected with Irish ascendancy circles.

However it happened, in the quieter years of official life, after the defeat of the Home Rule Bill and the decease of Mr. Parnell and Mr. Gladstone, a complete change of feeling was worked in him regarding the necessity for further and drastic land legislation, and his attitude towards the Irish representatives. He stands almost alone in the history of Irish politics as having once taken his place in the comfortable fold of Conservative officialdom, and then, from conscientious motives, thrown up all, and, late in life, embarked upon the stormy sea of Irish agitation. Refusing the proffer of a lucrative Government post out of Parliament, he was returned for an Ulster constituency committed to the principle of peasant proprietary, while opposed to Home Rule in the Gladstonian sense, and prepared to support the Government regarding the Transvaal war.

Mr. Russell, in the work whose title is appended, gives to the world his mature convictions regarding the Irish question as a whole. The honest avowal of such wide alteration in point of view of a great question is highly honorable, though it necessarily exposes him to the charge of former want of judgment and of insight into the political necessities of Ireland. The language is so vigorous, the style so lucid, the facts of the situation in Ireland are so carefully marshalled, that the pages read more like those of a prose poem than of a political essay. Mr. Russell opens with a statement of the present aspect of the Irish question in Parliament.

"Practically the Irishmen say to England, 'You destroyed our Parliament in 1800. The destruction of that national assembly was accompanied by the most unblushing bribery, intimidation, and corruption. Ireland has never condoned that great offence. You govern us, not by love and affection, but by force and fraud. Forty thousand armed men are necessary to maintain your supremacy. Ours is a forced and unwilling allegiance. We come to this assembly—but are not of it. We desire to be at home governing our own land—the land of our affections, and for which alone we care. You can retain us here by force; but in that case you must pay the price. We shall interfere in every nook and cranny of British affairs—at home and abroad. If we cannot govern our own country, we shall see whether we cannot make parliamentary institutions and the Government of England a laughing-stock before the whole world.' There is no concealment about it. This is the situation."

Again:

"Why is it that the distant colonies rise as one man in defence of the Empire and, as I think, of a just cause, and the Irish race at home and abroad stand out and oppose? That is the pregnant question."

Concerning England's delinquency:

"England had, unasked and unbidden, taken over the government of Ireland. Where the duty was not shamefully neglected, it was exercised in the interests of a class alone. Until Mr. Gladstone arose, no subject people had ever been more basely treated or neglected by a conqueror."

Mr. Russell proceeds to point out that through agitation and violence alone has every great reform for Ireland had to be wrung from the British Parliament:

"But for the murder and outrage which disgraced the years 1880 and 1881, the great charter of the Irish farmers, weakened and injured as it has been by shameless maladministration, could never have been passed. . . . Similarly, the Local Government Act of 1898, the greatest measure passed since the Act of Union, owes its existence on the statute-book entirely to the Home-Rule agitation."

Up to the disestablishment of the Irish Church, Mr. Russell has "no hesitation in saying that rebellion was morally justifiable in Ireland." Upon his own part, he acknowledges two great mistakes. He believed in the patriotic feeling and intentions of the Irish landlords, and he misjudged the Irish national representatives.

"If a comparison has to be made [between the British and Irish representatives in Parliament], I am not sure that the Irishmen would lose by it. In any case, there these men are. . . . What is to be done? Whatever fault may be found with them, they are absolutely unpurchasable. They forego for their country's sake all the rewards that service in the English ranks would give them. Not a man in the party can be bought. They are able, even brilliant. They have discovered and developed a new method of making war upon England. Their fathers fought with pike and musket, and were worsted. These men, with ballots instead of bullets, and by using the privileges of Parliament, have done more in twenty years for their country than has been done by pikes and muskets for centuries."

As to the Irish people at large:

"Already one hundred years have passed since, by our flagitious conduct, the Union was established. Can any one say that to-day we are one bit nearer the heart of the Irish people? . . . What is there to make us believe the patience of a whole race can be worn down? They have suffered and endured in the past. Why, if it be necessary, should they not suffer and endure in the future?"

In successive chapters are treated "The Union to Emancipation," "Emancipation to the Famine," "Famine to the Fenians," "Gladstone: The Great Awakening," "The Great Surrender," "Balfourian Amelioration," "Land Question," "The Education Controversy," "Financial Relations," "Ireland at Westminster," "The Ulster Problem," "How the Union Can Be Maintained." Mr. Russell's argument for the necessity of further land reform might have been made stronger if he had devoted a chapter to giving specific instances of the manner in which the plain intentions of the Act of 1881 (that tenants should not be rented on their improvements) have been set at naught by officials and a judiciary imbued with landlord and ascendancy prejudices. He has spoken of the present Land Court as "an Augean stable." Nothing is truer than that, in these days, "it requires no little courage for an Irish Protestant to stand out and be counted on the side of the people." Mr. Russell's substitute for Home Rule is that Irish affairs in Parliament should be left to a grand committee of Irish members—a plan suggested by Jonathan Pim thirty years ago. This scheme is not likely to find much favor with standard Home-Rulers who believe in the radical incapacity of Englishmen to understand and legislate for Ireland, and in the necessity of the task being committed to themselves upon their own soil. Nor can they understand why a subsidiary parliament in Ireland should be spoken of as "separation" from England, while parliaments in the United States, Germany, Canada, Australia, even the Channel Islands, enjoying ampler powers than those contemplated by Mr. Gladstone's bill, are esteemed consistent with union in a republic, a monarchy, and commonwealths.

In detail, Mr. Russell reproduces some popular errors. "There was nothing like the increase [of population which took place in Ireland] anywhere else in Europe." The figures given in Whittaker's Almanack are: 1801-1841, Ireland 53 per cent. increase, England 80 per cent. Census figures: 1821-1831, Ireland 14.19 per cent. increase, England 15.80 per cent.; 1831-1841, Ireland 5.25 per cent., England 14.48 per cent. The common statement at pages 50, 51, that the new purchasers in Landed Estates Court were the chief rent-raisers, and so caused discon-

* Ireland and the Empire: A Review. 1800-1900. By T. W. Russell, M. P. for South Tyrone. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 284 pp.

tent, etc., is not borne out by facts. It was not the famine that made landlords as a rule bankrupt. It was that they or their predecessors had spent their estates instead of the incomes from them. That foodstuffs in abundance were exported in the famine years is well known, and that numbers of farmers paid their rents and died of starvation.

Mr. Russell's is altogether a remarkable book, and cannot but have its influence upon British politics. He opines: "The two races that inhabit Ireland will not for ever remain apart, scowling at each other across years of bitter memories. The Protestant will not for ever stand shivering on the banks of the Boyne; the Roman Catholic will not always recall the Penal Laws." Let us hope the volume before us will help to this end. It is, as it stands, in truth a vade-mecum of facts and argument for Home-Rulers. D. B.

TUSCAN TOWN AND COUNTRY.

FLORENCE, October 15, 1901.

In a back number of the *Nation* I read an interesting letter on the late developments of Socialism in Italy, and was glad to see that the writer is not one of the timid crew who think a country must be going to the dogs because of a few strikes, where the masters and workmen are allowed to settle things between themselves without any interference on the part of the Government. Had this system been adopted in 1880, when strikes became fashionable in Italy, very possibly, in this new century, we should not have heard of any more. As it is, we are now in the thick of the epidemic, which, being left to nature, is proving mild on the whole.

For the last forty years, although the right to strike is proclaimed by the law of the land, as a matter of fact the Government, the provincial and communal authorities have always intervened on behalf of the masters, either by arresting the workmen, or, in case of agricultural strikes, by sending soldiers to do the work of the men on strike. Hence perpetual conflicts, and the terrible class hatred, which has always existed, embittered to the death. After the shameful arrests of 1898 and the necessary liberation of all the arrested, the Socialists became what might be called obstreperous. Outside the House, they organized resistance to the arbitrary acts of the Government. Within the House, assisted by the Republicans, the Radicals, and by a certain number of the old Left, they brought obstruction to such a point as it never was brought by the Irish in Parliament, because they gained all their demands and prevented the passage of new regulations. Onlookers who do not know Italians, protested, and moaned that the end of representative government was at hand, and called on the Government and on the new King—especially because of his accession and its cause—to proclaim martial law, to gag the Parliament, and return almost to the state of things before the *Statuto* granted in 1848.

Fortunately, at the helm was an old Liberal, who has never denied his faith, and who only in one instance acted in opposition to it. He knew that it was useless to attempt to combat anarchy by anarchy, violence by violence; and made it clear to the young ruler that the time was come for the inauguration of law and liberty. We must suppose that Victor Emanuel III. is satisfied with Zanardelli, as he has just awarded him the collar of the Annunciata (withheld from him hitherto, in a most unaccountable fashion, seeing that he was in the first Ministry of the Left in 1876, by both King Victor II. and Humbert). Be that as it may, while apparently Italy is a land convulsed with strikes and rent with civil war, there never was a time when she has been so orderly and peaceful—this because the haves and have-nots are left severely alone to settle their quarrels between themselves without let or hindrance. Hence the discussion within the Socialistic party. Fighting the Government for fighting's sake is still preached by the least intelligent portion of the party, supported, of course, by the Republicans, who do not want a monarchical government to initiate reforms or allow of their initiation, because they need to prove that no good can come out of monarchical institutions. Turati, who, for breadth and depth of intellect, force of will and integrity of conscience, is the loftiest leader of the party, has demonstrated the absurdity, the puerility of these methods. He has not denied the foundation of Marx's system—collectivism and class struggle—but replaces his catastrophic theory with that of gradual reforms, which can be obtained only by alliance with one or more fractions of the middle classes (*borghesia*).

Throughout the year there has been agitation on the part of the bread-makers and bakers for the abolition of night work, and for certain alterations in the method and time of payment. The owners of bread-making and baking establishments refused the proposals, and the men threatened a strike. Then a trial of fifteen days was agreed upon, but the "fancy-bread" establishments saw their way to make a good thing out of opposition, and continued night work. This consumption of fancy bread naturally lessened that of the common loaf, and the body of proprietors declared that they could not keep to day labor any longer. On this, on the eve of the 11th, the entire body of makers and bakers of bread struck. The surrounding cities, Prato, Pisa, Pistoia, whose special bread is patronized by some, merely sent their usual quota. The military bake-houses have enough to do for the garrison, the prisons and the military hospitals; and the municipality has non-coöperative resources. Hence, for the first day there was no bread for the elementary schools, where breakfast is given to the children, no bread for the charitable institution called the "Daily Bread." Here tickets for the economical kitchens were substituted, and people in general made out with stale bread, fancy bread; and the surrounding towns sent in an evening ration. But mark! so thoroughly convinced were the Florentines of the perfect organization of the workmen and of their right to day instead of night work that no outcry was raised. On the contrary, the proprietors were given to understand that they must give way. Some tried to hold out, but Guglielmo Dolfi, son of the famous old tribune, made himself heard in the great meeting of proprietors. Shall we render ourselves responsible for the consequences of leaving Florence another day without bread, or allow the surrounding cities to take away our trade altogether? Let us give the day work a fair trial for a month. There are many obstacles to its complete success. The fancy-bread makers will be damaged to a large extent if they can't supply the hotels with French rolls, *semels*, *kifels*, etc.; also, it remains to be seen whether the night workers reduced to day workers will be content with day instead of night wages. So it was all settled. There was a truce of a month, and at the end of that period the problem will have solved itself. Throughout Tuscany leagues are being formed for abolishing night labor. In Milan, the bakers are still on strike. But the public peace has not been disturbed.

Now suppose that the police had been allowed to arrest the strikers, and the soldiers called in to make and bake the bread; Florence would have been plunged into disorder. The surrounding cities would have been divided between the chance of extra gain and the reluctance to turn "blacklegs." Now, however the matter be settled, the public will say to the defeated party, "You have had a fair trial and must put up with defeat." In agricultural disputes, affairs are much more difficult to arrange because of the vast numbers and the extreme poverty of the laborers; but in some cases the league of laborers have succeeded in settling disputes amicably. In the Ferrarese districts, however, where a wealthy company has "redeemed waste lands" and transformed them into wheat-growing plains, the shareholders clamor and the directors are pitiless. At the present moment they have ordered 300 evictions, have commenced selling the cattle, and resolved to revert to pasture. But the league leaders on the one hand and Government agents on the other are trying to bring both sides to reason, and possibly may succeed. In Sicily and the south of the Neapolitan continent scarcely any sort of organization has yet prevailed. The misery of certain districts is beyond belief or even imagination. Only a decent harvest and a not too bitter winter stave off insurrection from year to year. Proprietors there seem not only heartless, but headless, and the peasant's only solace is to take sudden and violent vengeance. It would be well if the Socialists of upper Italy, in this halcyon period of liberty, were to bring forward measures for pacifying the starving, half-savage peasants of the Puglie and the Sicilian latifundia.

CASTELLO DI GABBIANO, October 17.

I wonder whether in the whole workaday world there are a set of men, women, and children as happy and contented as are these Tuscan peasants to-day in this year of almost unexampled vine crops, abundant in quantity, and of average excellent quality. The weather in some parts of the Continent and also in some parts of Sicily has been atrocious; intense cold in the spring, then scorching heat and long drought—alternations which, while not materially affecting the corn crop, materially affect the grapes. In Venetia, and now in Turin, fierce hailstorms have destroyed half the grapes and spoiled the remainder, but Tuscany this year has been spared, and the anxiety of the peasants to let the grapes ripen to the precise point when their juice should yield the finest wine, and their fears lest autumn rains should come and spoil it all, have been more than ordinarily keen. For this year the olive crop has failed al-

most entirely, the grain has yielded fairly, never has such a peach and pear harvest been known to the younger generation; but the apple crop has failed, and the rains have spoiled the figs so that for winter they have to be dried in the oven. But all these things count as trifles in comparison with the prospects of the vintage. And so far all has gone well.

Of course, all the property about here is held on the métayer half-and-half system, which, though now so harshly and widely abused as retrogressive, or at least stationary, still survives all other set systems, such as coöperation and profit-sharing, which even in England are losing credit. In the half-and-half system there is something satisfactory to human nature in the abstract, and to the peasant who has only his hands and his spade in the concrete. For he, at any rate, cannot be cheated if the system be carried out in good faith. The crops are in his keeping, his children eat grapes and a good many other things year in, year out. When the vintage begins, all the choice grapes are gathered first, and weighed at the houses of the several peasants, so that they can eat, sell, or keep for "dressing the wine" as they choose. Then all the rest of the grapes are gathered by them and brought up in well-cleansed tubs (*bigoncie*) on a bullock cart to the *fattoria padronale*. Here each separate peasant family has his own numbered vat (there may be ten, twenty, thirty, or more farms on the same estate), and into this vat he empties his tubs, he and the master or factor counting them. When the vintage is finished, it is wonderful how each peasant will calculate how many barrels the must will produce of first-class wine—which is allowed to ferment on the husks, according to the prevalent ideas of the time and the proprietor, which vary vastly. Here it remains generally ten days unless the weather be very damp or cold, when it remains a few days longer. The new wine, the pure juice of the grape, is then run off and divided between owner and peasant. Sometimes the latter leaves his to pay off part of his debt, or even to be sold for his own account. Then the husks are pressed in the *torcio*, and the wine thus produced serves, well-watered, for the peasant's ordinary drink. He also throws water over his portion of the skins and seeds, to make "small wine," while the master, after utilizing his share as he thinks fit, restores the refuse to the soil—probably to the kitchen garden, for which it is excellent manure.

I have known and visited almost annually this estate for the last twenty years. When I first visited it, in the early eighties, in a really good year for both wine and grain, the thirteen farms produced in all 760 barrels (50 litres each), and about 730 *staie* of grain (wheat). Now, unless the hailstorms carry off the crop, 2,300 barrels is a fair average, and 2,300 *staie* of wheat. Many of the old peasants are still on the soil, and have consequently seen their harvests more than doubled! Oil seems provokingly stationary, as, though new olive plantations have been made, either the mistral wind or the damp or some other plague blights the crop, and there is little else to count on. Maize is not much consumed in Tuscany; lambs, kids, milk, cheese, poultry help out the family, who also produce vegetables (beans, *cecci*, peas) and fruit to divide like all the rest with the master. He pays all the taxes and generally purchases the cattle, but the peasants have to go halves in the losses as they do on the produce of the stables. They are a splendid race, healthy, strong, well clothed, well fed; they have not the sad, hunted look of the peasant who lives from hand to mouth as a day laborer, or as the *so-called* métayers of Sicily, who have only one-third of the produce, and that unfairly measured, and are mulcted by usurers, factors, and sub-factors. Here they feel themselves copartners, and are so in fact. Of course their well-being depends much on the character of the proprietor. To be a good landlord, you must be willing to supply the wants of your peasant in a bad year, give him at least sufficient grain to keep him in bread and *paste* for soup in the winter; be patient even if during the second year he cannot pay up all; and discharge the family only if found incapable, negligent, or dishonest. Well treated, they do generally pay up at harvest, and many have a surplus, which they leave in the hands of the owner until they may want it to dower a daughter or put a son out in life. All the children go to the elementary schools for three years according to law; some remain there for five years, and can then obtain situations as factors or even communal secretaries.

Here the Socialists have not been able to insert even the thin edge of the wedge; but there are traitors in the citadel even of the *mezzadri*. Certain sons of orthodox fathers have become weary of the old paths. They have put up notices, "No credit given." Hence, when the year comes round and the peasant finds that he has not wheat enough to last the winter, he will throw up his farm and become one of the discontented. The owner will take another, as with the *mezzadri* there is no contract, but the "custom" rules from year to year. Presently the owner will get tired and let all the farms on his estate. Then exit *mezzadria* and enter Socialism.

J. W. M.

Correspondence.

RECIPROCITY OR MUTUALITY?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In regard to freedom of trade and to the moral element therein, to which Mr. James De Normandie calls attention in your issue of October 24, I feel moved to say a few words.

It seems to me that "reciprocity" is not the most appropriate term to use in this connection, especially if we are to accept as its adequate definition the precept of Confucius, not to do to others what we would not have them do to us. The negative phrasing of this maxim places it on a much lower plane than that of the injunction, Do unto others as you would have others do unto you. There is quite a discount in ethical efficiency.

Now, the ideal property of an exchange of the products of human effort is that both parties thereto have become better off than they were before. There has been mutual benefit, as each has been doing a benefit to himself at the same time that he was doing benefit to the other. Reciprocity has not, to my mind, these connotations of spontaneity and simultaneousness. It conveys the implication of a temporary truce, and so, I think, has been instinctively adopted by protectionists, and consequently should be conscientiously abandoned to their use. Their habitual attitude towards commerce is a harking back to the primitive behavior of the race when men bartered with their weapons in the right hand and their commodities in the left. At present, protectionists seem to be making present, protectionists seem to be making reciprocity serve as a napkin to wrap their meaning and intentions in, to be laid away carefully in "innocuous desuetude."

All this preamble is to justify my proposal of *mutuality* as the better term.

This instinct of mutuality, however, has to do with far more than trade alone; it is really the cause of all that is worth while in the world. It had its inception in the very beginning of things, perhaps even controlling the material part of the universe, with its attraction of gravitation and all the other attractions. In the realm of sentient creatures, there could never have been any society whatever but for it, as there would never have been developed material fit for the purpose.

Primarily it was, of course, largely self-interest that prompted action; then there came some glimmerings of good will and kindness between those who were associated together; then was developed some sense of justice—the doing unto others as one would have others do unto him, until finally there has been sublimated—in a very few, alas, as yet—that charity which "suffereth long and is kind," even with no material return.

H. W. Taylor.

Stockton, Cal., November 6, 1901.

A WARNING FROM ALGERIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an article by M. Rouire, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for September 15, upon the colonization of Algeria, it is said that the war of subjugation lasted twelve years. Then comes the following, which may prove true of our war against the Filipinos:

"Et à quel prix cette pacification avait été obtenue! Et combien onéreuse elle fut à la race conquérante et à la race vaincue! Nos soldats et nos colons avaient blanchi de leurs ossemens la terre algérienne. Les balles, le soleil africain et les fièvres les avaient dévorés. Parmi les colons, ceux qui avaient survécu étaient tous ruinés. Quant aux habitans indigènes, ils avaient été exterminés ou avaient disparu. Les tribus, autrefois nos alliées, qui avaient fait le coup de feu au début de l'insurrection à côté de nos colons, et que nous avions eu le triste courage d'abandonner à leur malheureux sort, étaient allées chercher auprès de l'émir l'appui que nous leur avions refusé. Les tribus hostiles à notre domination avaient été à peu près anéanties. Des Hadjoutes il ne restait plus que quelques rares survivans qui durent aller se fondre dans les tribus voisines; les Beni-Khelil et les Beni-Salem étaient à peine moins éprouvés. Des établissemens européens qui, avant l'insurrection d'Abd-el-Kader, donnaient un aspect luxuriant à la Mitidja, il ne restait pas un debout; dans le Sahel la plupart

étaient détruits, et dans quel état pitoyable se trouvaient les autres qui avaient échappé à la dévastation arabe! Il n'y avait plus d'habitans; et, partout, des ruines. Une fois de plus on pouvait appliquer à l'œuvre du conquérant le mot de l'historien: *pacem appellant ubi solitudinem faciunt.* Pour avoir la paix, nous avions autour de nous fait régner la solitude."

C. E. W.

CLEARFIELD, PA., November 8, 1901.

THEY DO THESE THINGS BETTER—IN GREECE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A letter from Comm. Lanciani, printed in the *Athenæum* of October 26, and quoted in the *Evening Post* of November 6, gives occasion for again calling the attention of the intelligent world to the indefensible policy of the Italian Government concerning excavations on archæological sites. Here was an Italian who wished to make some excavations on ground near the ancient port of Pompeii, not for archæological purposes at all, but merely in the well-grounded hope of finding something that he could sell. He succeeded grandly. He found the remains of a large company of fugitives from the eruption of the year 79, many of them equipped with much jewelry and other articles of value. The excavator captured the jewelry for his own purposes, and though the Government authorities, one may suppose, had some sort of an inspector on hand, no record was made of the thousand and one details that would be of such immense importance to the archæologist. The whole affair was so shameful an example of such an irreparable injury to scholarship that the very stones of ancient Rome ought to cry out against it. And this sort of thing is going on all over Italy at the present day, while the Government refuses to let any foreign school or scholar touch more than the surface of its sacred soil, though the offer is to give the whole of the finds to the Government, and to pay all the expenses, even of Government supervision. Is it not possible for some concerted action to be taken by the scholarly world of other countries, at least to put an end to the authorized looting of classic sites by Italian traders? The treasures of ancient Italy belong to the world. Modern Italy ought to consider herself merely their providential guardian. But she appears to be treating them as Croker treated New York city. May recent events there be of good omen elsewhere!

Incidentally, it may be remarked that Comm. Lanciani appears to go further than necessary in his attempt to make, as always, a readable account of the matter. Why should he treat so sentimentally the suggestion that one of the skeletons may be that of the elder Pliny, who lost his life on that occasion? The account by the younger Pliny is perfectly clear (Ep. vi. 16). His uncle was on the seashore when he died, not under the portico of an inn. And he was not on the Pompeiian side of the Sarno at all, but on that of Stabiæ. Moreover, his body was discovered the next day, or the next but one, by his anxious friends. Does Comm. Lanciani suppose that they left it where it was, or that they transported it across the Sarno, dug away the fallen ashes, and buried it on the porch of the inn? Doubtless the late *scholium* that speaks of the body as finally consigned to the tomb in Sicily is worthless, but such a suggestion of identification as that fathered by Signor Canizzaro, and objected to by Comm. Lanciani only on one slight ground, sounds almost like a joke. And the unromantic student of archæology, though he might conceive how the casual observer of skulls could single out one as "betraying a superior intelligence" on the part of its former owner, might yet doubt how a skeleton dug out of the ground among a lot of others, could show that it belonged to "a person of a noble demeanor." Can osteology go so far as this? E. T. M.

MIDDLETOWN, CONN., November 8, 1901.

LADY ANNE BARNARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have no books here to which I might refer for information on a point which has struck me just now on reading your notice of Lady Anne Barnard's 'South Africa a Century Ago.'

Lord Melville was a Scotch peer. There is a monument to him on the Calton Hill in Edinburgh. You say Lady Anne, before her marriage to Andrew Barnard, whom he appointed Secretary of Cape Colony, was Lady Anne Lindsay. That was the name, if my memory serves me rightly, of the author of the lovely Scotch ballad—a highly popular one up to this day in the land of its birth—"Auld Robin Gray." If that lady and the Colonial Secretary's wife were identical, the fact is interesting enough to be noted. It gives this distinguished and, as you describe her, beneficent and attractive woman quite an additional claim to remembrance. A. J. BLOOR.

STONINGTON, CONN., November 1, 1901.

[Our correspondent is quite right in his surmise.—ED. NATION.]

"MALAHACK."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have accidentally encountered *malahack*, lately the subject of so much discussion in the *Nation*, in an English book. This is Kettner's 'Book of the Table' (1877), a treatise on cookery in its more refined aspects, and including much discussion on the derivation of gastronomic terms. It was published under the name of A. Kettner, proprietor of a celebrated restaurant in London, but was really written by the late Eneas Sweetland Dallas, author of 'The Gay Science,' a gentleman of great accomplishments. Mr. Dallas says: "In provincial English to *malahawk* is to carve awkwardly and cut to pieces." Unfortunately, he does not tell us in which dialects the word occurs. Halliwell, without assigning any authority, gives *mallack* as a Yorkshire word, denoting a violent disturbance, but this is more likely to be cognate with *mellay*.

Mr. Dallas connects *malahack* with *malachi*, a word occurring in old cookery rolls, and explained by him as meaning sliced fowl. *Ma*, he maintains, in mediæval cookery, always denotes *bird*, and for the signification of *lachi* he appeals to Wynkyn de Worde's inventory of terms used in carving. "He says that to carve brawn is to *lesche* it." The word certainly appears as *leach* in the Century Dictionary, with the signification, "slice," both as verb and substantive. I should rather have suspected a connection between "malahack" and "maul"; but it may serve to support Mr. Dallas's theory that, according to Godefroy's Dictionary of Old French, *lesche* means not only *tranche mince*, but *blessure*.

I remain, dear sir, yours, very truly,

RICHARD GARNETT.

HAMPSTEAD, ENGLAND, October 26, 1901.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons' latest announcements for the autumn are: 'The Mohawk Valley: Its Legends and its History,' by W. Max Reid; a concluding volume in Lyman P. Powell's series, 'Historic Towns of the Western States'; 'History of the Scotch-Irish Families of America,' by Charles A. Hanna; 'Richard Wagner,' by W. J. Henderson; 'The Life of John Ancrum Winslow, Rear-Admiral, U. S. N.,' by Lieut. John M. Elliott; 'William Hamilton Gibson: Artist—Naturalist—Author,' by John Coleman Adams; 'Romance of the Renaissance Châteaux,' by Elizabeth W. Champney; 'The Art of Life,' from the French of R. de Maulde la Clavière, by G. H. Ely; 'Dutch Life in Town and Country,' by P. M. Hough; 'Other Famous Homes of Great Britain,' edited by A. H. Malan; 'Zuñi Folk Tales,' by Frank Hamilton Cushing; '5,000 Facts and Fancies,' a cyclopædia, by William Henry Phyfe; 'Field, Factories, and Workshops,' by Prince Kropotkin; 'Commercial Trusts,' by John R. Dos Passos; 'Shakspere's Plots,' by William H. Fleming; 'The Wild-fowlers; or, Duck-Shooting in the Great Lagoon,' by Charles Bradford; 'Thinking, Feeling, and Doing,' by E. W. Scripture of Yale; 'Mental State of Hystericals,' by Prof. Pierre Janet; 'Short Talks with Young Mothers,' by Dr. Charles Gilmore Keeley; and 'A Memorial to William Steinitz,' containing a selection of his games, by Charles Devidé.

The first volume in Prof. York-Powell's "Great Peoples" series, to be published in this country by D. Appleton & Co., is Arthur Hassall's 'The French People'; and in W. R. Lethaby's "Artistic Crafts" series, 'Bookbinding and the Care of Books,' by Douglas Cockerell. During November, also, the same firm will issue 'While Charlie Was Away,' a novel by Mrs. Poultney Bigelow.

'Italian Sculpture of the Renaissance,' by Lucy J. Freeman, will be published immediately by Macmillan Co.

Shortly to be expected from Henry Holt & Co. is 'The Life and Works of Schiller,' a volume of nearly 500 pages, by Prof. Calvin Thomas of Columbia.

Capt. Mahan's 'Types of Naval Officers' will be published toward the end of the present month by Little, Brown & Co.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready 'The Teaching of English Grammar, History, and Method,' by Prof. F. A. Barbour, and 'Grammar of the Innuit Language as Spoken by the Eskimos of the Western Coast of Alaska,' by the Rev. Francis Barnum, S. J.

'Minette,' a tale of the First Crusade, by George P. Cram, is in the press of John W. Iliff & Co., Chicago.

'Modern Athens,' by George Horton (Charles Scribner's Sons), is a very at-

tractive little volume of 90 pages, which skims off the surface of Athenian life and scenes, without the slightest odor of the guide-book. The illustrations, by Mr. Linson, give the touch of poetry which the author has felt and expressed with so much sprightliness and delicacy. Along with this should be mentioned with high praise a short tale by the same author, 'The Tempting of Father Anthony' (Chicago: A. C. McClurg Co.), which deals with the peasants and monasteries of the Peloponnesus, and has caught to perfection the spirit and humors of the idyllic life it describes. The selfish novel-reader who cares nothing about Greece, and is bent simply on his hour of enjoyment, will find it here, and may be ensnared into doubling it by a second reading, while the old traveller who cannot shake off the spell of that leisurely rustic life, set against enchanting landscapes, will renew it in glancing over these chapters, so vivacious and so sympathetic, so full of intimate knowledge and kindly observation.

'The Queen's Comrade: The Life and Times of Sarah, Duchess of Marlborough,' by Fitzgerald Molloy (London: Hutchinson & Co.; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.), in two handsome volumes, is another of the contributions to the biography of the Revolution and the reign of Queen Anne so numerous of late. The first and greatest Duchess of Marlborough doubtless deserves a biography quite as much as some of her contemporaries thus honored, for she was an important if not a great figure in a critical period of English history, and had an influence on the course of events which was none the less decisive because it was not recognized by the Constitution. It is, however, doubtful, considering her character and position, whether she deserved just such a biography as this. Mr. Molloy has taken as his peculiar province in his earlier volumes the back stairs, the stage, and the half-world, and in this field of gossip, scandal, and intrigue, he has achieved what there was to achieve. In the present case, as with its predecessors, he can hardly be regarded seriously as either an historian or a biographer; nor does he probably expect to be, for these volumes add little to the illumination of the period they cover. Such history as they contain, like most history of intrigue and conspiracy, treats chiefly of things that either never happened at all, or, having happened, were of little account. For those who care greatly for gossip, even though it be two hundred years old, these volumes will prove enjoyable, for they are readable and even in places entertaining, and fill a gap in biography even if not wisely nor well. They are beautiful pieces of book-making. In one department Mr. Molloy does indeed excel. A budding historical novelist might well take a page from his subheadings.

The fact that, at the end of seven years, Messrs. Dodd, Mead & Co. have found it advisable to reissue their reprint of Mrs. Trollope's 'Domestic Manners of the Americans,' with the original illustrations (now in a single volume), disproves, we think, Miss Martineau's rather haughty censure of this work. The book was never malevolent, nor a caricature. As a study of American society it was extremely limited, as, indeed, of American life and scenery in general; and the author's generalizations had seldom a sufficient basis. But her observation was keen and just, and her descriptions lively and engaging. She has history to relate, and it will be long before Americans can cease to read her without profit.

'The Spinster Book,' by Myrtle Reed (G. P. Putnam's Sons), is a series of short essays on such subjects as "The Natural History of Proposals" and "The Consolations of Spinsterhood." A genius with the gift of humor might conceivably raise both themes into the plane of literature. How far Miss Reed's handling of this delicate material justifies her attempt to entertain and instruct, may be judged by the following extracts: "There is nothing to cry on which compares with a man's shoulder; almost any man will do at a critical moment; but the clavicle of a lover is by far the most desirable" (p. 30). Again, from p. 90, "Food properly served will attract a proposal at almost any time, especially if it is known that the pleasing viands were of the girl's own making." The most charming covers nowadays enclose, too often, such rubbish as this, not worth the paper on which it is printed, so that we are learning to look with distrust on new books with ornate bindings—a distrust amply justified in the present instance.

Miss H. E. Hersey is well known as an educator of New England girls. It is to be hoped that her imaginary letters 'To Girls' (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.) will reach their addresses. A college woman herself, trained in the Vassar of twenty-five years ago, Miss Hersey is well-fitted to advise the younger generation. The letters are divided into three groups, dealing with "Education," "Social Relations," and "Personal Conduct." They are extremely sensible and often amusing. The girl who should meet all Miss Hersey's requirements for a gentlewoman would be a prig, but the fear of that remote contingency need not deter the school or college girl from taking to heart a few of these admirable hints for the conduct of life.

The principal article in the Quarterly Statement for October of the Palestine Exploration Fund is Prof. George Adam Smith's notes of a journey through Hauran, in which the old and the new are strangely intermingled. He chronicles the discovery of an Egyptian monument, the second only found in this trans-Jordan region, and calls attention to the large amount of freight traffic on the railway—"grain going out, timber and cloth coming in." The monument has been identified as commemorating a conquest of Seti I., the builder of the great hall of columns at Karnak. Prof. Clermont-Ganneau contributes an interesting note on a Hebrew mosaic inscription recently found in an Arab village in Galilee, which he suggests may have been originally in a Christian church of the fourth century erected by one Joseph of Tiberias, a converted Jew and friend of Constantine, who gave him authority to build churches in Galilee. Other subjects treated are the site of Calvary, Gen. Gordon's "Skull Hill," and the Resurrection. At the annual meeting it was reported that among the more important questions awaiting solution was the disposal of the dead in pre-Israelite and early Israelite times, and the period of the introduction of iron, "a metal seemingly unknown in the earliest periods of pre-Israelite occupation; and the development of various implements—knives, arrow-heads, etc.," and the ethnological position and historical connection of the Philistines with the country.

The Annual Report of the Secretary for Mines and Water Supply of Victoria for 1900 records a slight falling off of the yield of gold as compared with that of 1899, partly attributable to the increased prosperity of other industries, which has given profitable employment to men previously engaged in working the shallow alluvial deposits, and partly to the shutting down of the Berry Consols mine at Creswick after turning out, since it was opened up, 223,320 ounces, and paying in dividends £371,000. The vital question of the ventilation of mines has received unremitting attention; the quality of the air in the deep alluvial and quartz mines is carefully inspected, and regulations are in force which enable miners to work without danger to life or health. Serious consideration has also been given to the problem of how far mining operations under the dredging system could be permitted. It was known that many thousands of acres of auriferous land might be dredged without injury or loss to the agricultural interest, and during the year 110 acres of such land were dredged, producing 21,636 ounces of gold. Numerous maps and plans accompany this volume.

The first Calendar for 1902 to reach us is that issued by R. H. Russell, in twelve oblong ribbon-bound sheets, "The Football Calendar." The upper portion of each sheet carries a drawing by I. B. Hazelton, and the seals of two colleges flank the name of the month. The drawings (albeit, no doubt, aided by photography) are certainly spirited, as the publisher makes claim for them, and devotees of the game will find satisfaction in the pictorial ornamentation as in the useful part of this Calendar.

—With the word Kyx, odd even in the oddest (K) assemblage in our alphabet, the Oxford English Dictionary closes its fifth volume (Henry Frowde). The preface has to tell of more colaborers in this great enterprise who have fallen by the way—no fewer than five (saddest of all) having passed on "without seeing the printed sheets of any portion of the letters at which they worked." Dr. Fitzedward Hall's death is lamented anew. On the other hand, fresh assistance is coming forward, in particular for the more remote languages, adoptions from which distinguish J and K, and illustrate the expansive genius of the English language. "In those pages of K," says Dr. Murray, "which contain the non-English initial combinations *Ka-*, *Kh-*, *Kl-*, *Ko-*, *Kr-*, *Ku-*, *Ky-*, these exotic words may be thought to superabound, yet it would have been easy to double their number if every such word occurring in English books, or current in the English of colonies and dependencies, had been admitted; our constant effort has been to keep down, rather than to exaggerate, this part of 'the white man's burden.'" However restrained, it is this feature which makes an English dictionary a world's thesaurus to an extent unapproachable by any other. One of the outlanders made at home by virtue of English colonization is Kangaroo, which, passing from the aboriginal name of the animal, has come to signify a native of Australia, a chair, a bicycle, and a mining share. The substantive has also begotten a verb, "to jump";

a Chicago journalist having avoided the commonplace phrase by writing of "those who kangaroo from the foregoing inferences to the conclusion." Kanaka, which the Australians improperly stress on the penult instead of the antepenult, is Hawaiian and South Sea Island for "man." Khaki, so lately in vogue with us, is, as a fabric, as old as 1848 in use by Indian troops, and creeps into literature as early as 1857. Its significance is found in its Persian root, 'dust,' referring to its color. Kodak, our American Eastman's creation, in 1890, lines up in appearance with the most primitive antipodal accession. Another Americanism is Kerosene (Kerocene, as Abraham Gesner would have had it in 1854). Instruments of torture like Knout and Koorbash occur in this section of the Dictionary; and though the Boers' Sjambok is neither here nor to be looked for, the Dutch Keelhauling is, and the barbarous practice was abolished in Holland only in 1853. Touching for the King's-evil, we are reminded under the word, lasted till the end of Anne's reign in 1714, and the office for the ceremony was printed in the Prayer-Book down to 1719. We owe the long *e* sound in Key to Scotland; Dryden rhymed it with "day" in 1700. Kinship was unknown to Webster in 1828; it is traced to Mrs. Browning in 1833. Such familiar words as Keep, Kidney, and Kill baffle etymologizing.

—The series entitled "Periods of European History" (Macmillan), which has been edited by Mr. Arthur Hassall, now reaches its close with Mr. W. Allison Phillips's 'Modern Europe.' The set as a whole and its separate volumes are so well known to historical students in this country that we need say little about the conclusion of the work. From first to last a high level of accuracy has been maintained, and in all respects the series speaks well for the quality of historical scholarship at the English universities. We have noticed in more than one of the prefaces an apology or an explanation which was based on the plea that the period in question was long and the field wide. But, while Mr. Phillips's predecessors have freely used the right of stating their difficulties, none of them has had such good cause as he for dwelling upon superhuman obstacles. The historian of the nineteenth century should be endowed with faculties which no one has, or ever will possess. As Mr. Phillips says: "Even were all the chancelleries to yield up their jealously guarded secrets, and all private portfolios opened to students, a scientific history or modern Europe would still be an impossibility, for a hundred lives of mortal men would not suffice for the collation and comparison of the stupendous mass of documents. And so the historian, collecting his materials with misgiving at second, third, and fourth hand, can often at best only make a compromise with truth." All that one can do in a case like this—overwhelmed by materials, closely restricted as to space, and bound by the rules of collaboration—is to select the main incidents, go to the best sources for the facts, and write a plain narrative. Mr. Phillips has recognized his limitations, and the satisfactory character of the present book is due to the exclusion, not merely of secondary subjects, but of unreasonable aspirations. So far as Mr. Phillips can be said to have a leading motive, it is pointed out in the following sentence: "The attempt to establish a 'Confederation of Europe' I have made the central interest of my book, which is mainly occupied with the history of the forces by which this beneficent purpose has been forwarded or retarded." While we are unable to compare this volume with works like those of Fyffe, Seignobos, and Andrews, we can commend it as being an excellent sketch of political history since the Congress of Vienna.

—Mr. G. W. Botsford's 'History of the Orient and Greece' (The Macmillan Co.) is an elementary handbook intended for the use of schools and academies, and furnished with sample examination-papers in the old-fashioned manner. Like Professor Mahaffy's 'Survey of Greek Civilization,' it endeavors to describe, in some 350 pages, Greek origins, history, art, and literature. Thus to cover the ground from the pyramid-builders and Buddha to Alexander the Great, with a glance at modern Greece, involves a summary method. Mr. Botsford has, however, given the reader a chance of expanding in all the directions so barely indicated, by adding lists of authorities and parallel reading to every chapter. The writer is well known as an historian of Greece and Rome, and we need not say that the work is, as far as it may be, scholarly and in all respects up to date. While his style lacks Mr. Mahaffy's brilliance and vigor, his statements are on the whole more sound. In a work where so much has to be left for the riper age of the student, we could have wished that Mr. Botsford had treated the shadowy but effective personality of the traditional Homer with more reverence. Plato allows certain useful fictions to be employed in the education of the young. We believe that the modern scientific view of the authorship of the Homeric poems is a counsel of perfection that should be reserved until the student has had the advantage in his greener youth of a belief in that impressive figure, the "blind man who dwells in Chios' rocky isle"—a conception that inspired Milton and Keats, and to which all English poets have clung. There are even some good scholars left who are willing to err with Mr. Andrew Lang rather than accept such a "Homer" as Mr. Botsford presents to the ardent youthful mind. "By the name 'Homer,'" he says (p. 10), "we mean any one of the minstrels who helped to make either the Iliad or the Odyssey." Keats's sonnet on Chapman's Homer would do the average boy a world more good than this definition. It is to the delighted fancy of the young that we must appeal if their early Greek studies are to mean more to them than their chemistry lessons. Mr. Botsford's illustrations are excellent.

—Mr. Frederic Rowland Marvin compiles and Fleming H. Revell Co. publish 'The Last Words (Real and Traditional) of Distinguished Men and Women.' The fine motto from Shakspere on the title-page is hardly justified by the compilation. The wonder is that where so many examples are brought together, so few are in any way remarkable. Many are commonplaces of the sickroom and death-chamber, so trivial that one expects to find Henry Clay's "Unbutton my shirt-collar," for there are many of this kind. Hardly more interesting are the accents of a conventional piety, of which we have a good many. It is evident that histrionic persons do not forget their art in their extremity. It would seem as if the artists are most apt to dwell *in articulo mortis* on their particular work. Thus, we have John Crome's "O Hobbema, Hobbema, how I do love thee!" Fuseli's "Is Lawrence come?" and Gainsborough's "We are all going to Heaven, and Vandyke is of the company." A few of these last words are noble, like Arria's *Non dolet, Pœte;* some very pathetic—Burns's "Don't let the awkward squad fire over me," and Calhoun's "The South, the South, what will become of her?" Others are grim enough—Lord Thurlow's "I'll be shot if I don't believe I'm dying," and William Collingborn's "Lord Jesus! yet more trouble?" Some of the more noted "infidels" are tagged with their appropriate recantations, and Thomas Paine is particularly ill-treated in his explanatory note; but, in general, Mr. Marvin seems to have a kindly feeling for the heretics. Some of the explanatory notes are admirable. Sometimes, where we need one, there is none, as in the case of Buckle's "Poor little boys!" The bad people seem to have acquitted themselves quite as admirably as their betters, at the parting of the ways.

—'The Soul of a Cat' (Putnams), by Margaret Benson, is a tastefully illustrated little book of clever character studies, not biographies, of pets in an English home, five cats, two dogs, two parrots, several domestic fowls, and a family of robins. Its main purpose is to show that each animal has, like each man, its own peculiarities of disposition. Ra, the Persian cat, for instance, was as treacherous as he was beautiful; ready to sink his needle-like teeth into the hand that caressed him an instant too long. Persis, his grandmother, "a troubled little soul of a cat," craved human love so passionately that she even hated her own kittens when they became old enough to be her rivals. Though none of the animals described were remarkably intelligent, the author's sympathetic observation has revealed much of interest in them, and may help other people to get a better understanding of their own pets. The reader recognizes her accuracy of description in little details of appearance and action, which he finds he has often noticed, though only subconsciously; as when she shows the collie "standing four-square" above the little quarrelsome terrier that he has knocked down, and "smiling over the grizzled head snapping helplessly between his feet"; or the cat Sandy refusing to stay where he was put, "keeping his muscles tense, like a coiled spring, and, as soon as the grasp slackened, carrying out quite slowly and deliberately his first intention." The last chapter discusses the natures of the cat and the dog, and compares their traits. It is interesting and suggestive, but cannot be regarded as a scientific contribution to animal psychology.

—The once-amusing "Gyp" seems to have lapsed into a painful decadence, and is taking her anti-Semitism very hard. Her late novel 'Le Friquet' is a mere explosion of hatred against the Jews. All its bad characters are of that race, while it is to be regretted that its good ones are not more Christian. Le Friquet (a nickname signifying a lively little character like that of a sparrow) is a waif picked up by the roadside, and now at the age of fifteen a quaint, comely child and a star performer in Jacobson's American Circus. She is maltreated

by Jacobson, so she says, though Jacobson calls her a *menteuse*, and from her later conduct we do not feel at all positive about the question of veracity. She is saved and taken charge of by the Schlemmers, a rich banker and his beautiful wife. The principal part of her time thereafter seems to be devoted to describing this banker and those of his race as *sales youtres* and *youpins*, which is about equivalent to "sheenies." "Probably he is a Dreyfusite," she at once reflects. She goes about on horseback and on foot, at Saint-Séverin-sur-Mer, where the scene of the story is laid, repeating that though those people brought more or less profit to the seaside folk, they were, and ought to be, detested, and saying: "It's a pity there are so many Jews at Saint-Séverin; it keeps away the other bathers; it's a veritable calamity." The rule is laid down that it makes no difference whether a Jew is converted to Christianity or not (Schlemmer, for instance, is one only by race, and is an intimate friend of the parish priest and interested in the good works of the district). For, says she, "If you baptize a negro, he doesn't become white, does he?" Madame Schlemmer, a beauty of an old and exclusive family, who has married for the comforts of a home and to have the spending of an income of $200,000 a year or more, is represented as a noble, pensive character. She has done quite enough in being true to the banker for some years, and, after that, she is free to take the scornful Hubert de Ganges for a lover, and do as she pleases; it is the proper sort of treatment to mete out to such a husband; it serves him right for being a *youtre*. In short, 'Le Friquet' is a detestable book that leaves a bad taste in the mouth. It is not likely that it represents much more than "Gyp" herself, grown senile and crabbed.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Eternal City. By Hall Caine. D. Appleton & Co.

The Right of Way. By Gilbert Parker. Harper & Brothers.

Tristram of Blent. By Anthony Hope. McClure, Phillips & Co.

Kim. By Rudyard Kipling. Doubleday, Page & Co.

Of late years, the study of prose fiction has been very much the fashion. The novel has been honored by mention in the curricula of some universities, and its development has been traced by learned professors from primitive forms towards a presumably perfect form called the "Inevitable." The Inevitable novel is supposed to represent very closely actual, average, everyday life; mere narrative is of small importance, and in the best specimens there is no story at all. Though not deeply attached to theories demonstrating the orderly scientific development of any art, we have always been open to persuasion, and willing to believe that our leading novelists, at least, had passed beyond temptation to use the baser devices of their predecessors. At this moment, however, there is a mass of evidence at hand discouraging to such a liberal attitude and tending to discredit the conclusions of professors. It may be that, just now, the novel is in a throe of reversion, and that those leading novelists who are writing indescribably bad books are unfortunate victims of obscure forces that control man and his destiny, and put the wise to shame. But one of the most lively feelings derived from a conscientious reading of their books is a desire to hold them to individual responsibility.

If it were not for the prominence of Mr. Hall Caine's leadership, his chaotic work, 'The Eternal City,' might most profitably be left for comment to the flippancies of comic journalism. But to dismiss with a joke a man who has written so much, has been read and praised so much, is to behave disrespectfully to him and to the clergymen who have declared that this rather nasty and blasphemous book is a powerful, epoch-making performance. It is no secret that Mr. Caine took immense trouble to get up the 'Eternal City.' He went to live in Rome for that purpose; he told every one whom he met there why he had come, and at intervals, through the press, he let an anxious world know how his great work was getting on. The conception on which the assumed greatness rests is less original than sublime, embracing the somewhat familiar yet always inspiring vision of human society made perfect. The plan includes narration of events that lead to revolution, revolution itself, a king's abdication, a pope's renunciation of the papal claim to temporal power, the establishment in Rome of a republic, and the spectacle of the people, "divinely commissioned to govern themselves," doing so justly, wisely, and incorruptibly. The persons who participate in what may be called the world-drama, advancing or retarding the issue, and who at the same time conduct a private melodrama of a lurid hue, are necessarily very important persons in the world of ideas, politics, and society.

These tremendous movements in general, their essential meaning, the methods by which they might be made to appear worthy, rational, and possible, the character and capacity of people chosen and choosing to carry them on, seem to us matters beyond Mr. Caine's power of realization by force either of intellect or of imagination. He has frequently proved his ability to tell a touching story of love and sorrow and sin, and to develop from the clash of circumstance with sentiment and passion a dramatic action sometimes culminating in impressive tragedy. So long as he was content to write about simple creatures, with simple notions of the meaning of life, he wrote well, capturing people through their instinctive sympathies and emotions, concealing a serious deficiency, that of not knowing how to think. As soon as he left his island home to pose as a critic of a complex society, he began to reveal a mind without continuity or precision, a bat-like blindness about motives and consequences, and very wild misconceptions of morality. These serious defects were noticeable in 'The Christian,' and are, in proportion to its greater pretension, more conspicuous in 'The Eternal City.' The arguments for social revolt are pitifully inadequate for the great result assumed; the action is involved to the point of incoherence; the people to whom the author ascribes intellect, worldly wisdom, splendor, and power for wonderful achievement are crude, misguided Manxmen trying to play a game they cannot understand, achieving nothing but some theatrical situations and severe shocks to a conservative sense of propriety.

To particularize—Rossi's speeches and manifestoes (printed in italics) have neither originality nor lucidity nor passion; they have only length and dulness, like his love-letters. He quotes Scripture in a tasteless way, assumes vulgarly an intimacy with the will of God, and for the rest might be a parrot of the eighteenth century (parrots often live to a great age), who had caught the cant phrases of the time perfectly, but missed the combination. So the Prime Minister, Count Bonelli, the Pope, many eminencies and excellencies chatter for pages quite unashamed of their vacuous minds, and always standing ready to do anything foolish or tawdry or spectacular. But it is in contemplating the splendor of Roma, daughter of the princely house of Volunna, that Mr. Caine abandons common sense and common decency. Almost any chapter in which she appears might be quoted in support of this rude accusation, but one incident seems conclusive. The wicked Baron Bonelli, wishing to prevent her marriage with Rossi, has reminded her coarsely that she is his wife "according to the law of nature," and that if Rossi should be acquainted with the actual situation, he might not like it, might resent the lies she had told him, might, in fact, withdraw from the proposed union. Roma, having reviewed her predicament in detail, speaks to the Baron:

> "Well, everything seems over now. I will not trouble anybody much longer. I will break with the past altogether, and leave everything behind me. In any case, I must have left this place soon. I am in debt to the landlord and to Madame Sella and to . . . to everybody. Perhaps when I am gone you will send somebody to settle up. . . . Do as you please with what I have, and if there is anything short, perhaps you will make it up in memory of all that has happened."

In our language the words are harsh which soberly describe a woman who in such a position makes such a speech. Yet the epithet which Mr. Caine delights to attach to Roma is pure, and he permits his Pope to say that her soul is "like the soul of the Mother of God herself."

In representations of Bulwer Lytton's now almost forgotten play, "Money," a gloomy figure used to occupy the back of the stage, who, shaking his head, would mutter an uncivil jingle about the fool that had been sent to Rome excelling greatly the fool that had been kept at home. In our long journey through 'The Eternal City' we have been constantly attended by that melancholy, muttering man.

It would be unjust to describe Mr. Gilbert Parker's 'Right of Way' as a better novel than 'The Eternal City,' or a novel representing a more advanced stage of the art of fiction, but, being shorter and not so pretentious, it is less exasperating. It is a machine-made tale of the baser sort, dealing with murder, robbery, seduction, and sliding panels. The scene is laid in the city of Montreal and in a village called Chaudière, somewhere on the St. Lawrence. Mr. Parker appears to have consecrated his talent to Canada, and has hitherto dealt picturesquely and profusely with the French régime—a period that was chiefly devoted to war and the chopping of trees of the forest. He has come, perhaps unconsciously, to associate deeds of violence with Canada, and he certainly sees life there as a perpetual grand opera going on for centuries, rather rich in prancing heroes and

villains, and with unlimited reserves of populace and villagers in costume. This operatic view of place and people naturally begets a vast indifference to some things which, if mentioned at all, demand, for the sake of sustaining illusion, consistency of statement, if not accuracy. Among these things are time and space and reasonable probability in coincidence. Thus, the days when the cry of the loon and the ping of the lonely settler's axe were familiar sounds within five miles of Montreal were not the days when English law-courts had already been established, and when Englishmen had dwelt for four generations in mansions "on the hill, among the maples." It is difficult to believe that, at the time when Canadians made journeys on rafts in summer and by dog-train in winter, they also enjoyed the blessing of a daily post, that society journalism was not unknown, that a convent-bred girl of Chaudière spoke English fluently and enjoyed the English classics, and that a famous surgeon came casually from France, bringing his instruments with him, foreseeing that he should be called upon to perform the operation of trepanning in the Canadian wilderness.

In matters that cannot come within the operatic purview, such as characterization, psychological development, sin, redemption, salvation, Mr. Parker misses probability, sometimes sadly and sometimes grotesquely. Like Mr. Caine, he does not seem to have observed in life (or arrived by reflection at the fact) that certain acts are perfectly conclusive as to character, and that to try to reconcile them with good morals is to show one's self either a maudlin sentimentalist or blind to obvious distinction between good and evil. It is, for instance, at once ridiculous and revolting to tell us that a man seriously conscious of sin, and already fairly regenerate, seduces an innocent and loving maiden, even if she has entered his house at an unconventional hour, and interrupted his reading of an account of the Oberammergau Passion Play. By calling in the assistance of the Roman Catholic Church to receive and absolve their sinners at the point of death, both Mr. Caine and Mr. Parker seem to make confession of failure to establish by argument their assumptions and assertions. The most objectionable feature of their objectionable books is the wanton association of religion and bad morals. But a church which has suffered and lived through many reverses and much contumely will doubtless survive an unholy alliance forced upon it by irresponsible novelists.

The fiction written by Mr. Anthony Hope has generally shown an instinct for form and a sense of style, informing his vision of romantic persons and situations, exalting drawing-room dialogue among the fine arts, controlling the length of the tale and construction of sentences. In 'Tristram of Blent' these rather rare qualities are hardly discernible, and Mr. Hope appears most of the time to be sparring for wind, groping about, purposeless, viewless, bewildered, and bewildering. The situation round which the action revolves is too slight for a long book. Before the author decides to stop, the reader has ceased to care whether the hero was born on the 22d or 23d of July, whether he is really Tristram of Blent (a high and mighty personage) or nobody at all. There is matter enough for a smart whimsical tale, and its expansion into a dull novel is a conscienceless performance. In construction, characterization, dialogue, there is neither skill, nor probability, nor point. The work is perfunctory, as if the workman had neither heart nor interest, or as if he worked when half asleep. In two or three scenes he wakes up, seeming to realize that he has been doing badly, and makes an effort to recover his self-esteem. The scene in which Tristram renounces Blent is an instance of the fine effect on the romantic vision of the sense for style; and, again, when Tristram takes back his own, the style of the action and talk convinces us that "the Tristram way" is, in moments of emergency, a very distinguished way. The final word of praise in literary judgment is distinction. Since Stevenson, no English writer of fiction except Mr. Hope has deserved such praise. It can hardly be questioned that 'The Prisoner of Zenda' and the first volume of 'Dolly Dialogues' have distinction—that is, something which includes most of the literary qualities that can be named, with a quality making for perfection that can't. It is hard to forgive Mr. Hope for writing a book which almost any one who writes at all might have done better. He cannot be excused as a victim of a reactionary movement, because 'Tristram of Blent' is not an example of a primitive, poor kind of novel, but a wretched specimen of the novel in an advanced stage of development.

At this dismal moment Mr. Kipling appears opportunely, offering 'Kim,' to redeem his decadent brethren. 'Kim' is neither a novel nor a romance, but an imaginative tale of a kind long known and perpetually interesting. Its literary lineage has been clearly traced from the "boy and beggar" tales and plays of the fifteenth century, down through the Spanish picaresque (rogue) tales of the sixteenth, Le Sage's 'Gil Blas,' and a distinguished English ancestry, including the early Elizabethans, taking on a definite national expression in Defoe's 'Robinson Crusoe.' However widely these tales vary in scene, time, and treatment, they are essentially alike. They are tales of adventure on the high-road, the sea, at home, or in a foreign land, and the hero is a youthful vagabond, sometimes accompanied by an aged master or friend, and sometimes wandering alone in quest of fame or fortune, always a vagrant born. It is to the vagrant instinct, never extinguished by civilization, that the tale of the rogue and the road for ever appeals, always recognized as old and always as good as new. All these tales, from the earliest to the latest, are realistic, for they rely on exact observation and report of actual events, and on literal description of the manners and appearance of the people encountered by the way; they avoid extravagance and exaggeration, and they closely reflect human nature—unfortunately its evil side more often than its good. Great frankness, even license, of speech is conspicuous in this vagabond literature.

'Kim' is a perfect example of vagabond literature, with the old tricks almost magically transformed by a master modern hand, with the old crude, hard, superficial views of humanity wonderfully softened and liberalized, yet never sentimentalized, and all permeated with the subtlety and mysticism of the Orient. Discussion as to whether Kim is an actual or probable boy, or the lama a common, or an exceptional, or an impossible lama, is a foolish waste of energy. To be incapable of taking them as they are, just as they are given to us, without regret for what is or desire for what is not, is to confess one's self without imagination, and almost without the sympathetic power to receive an imaginative impression delivered either by shock or sustained attack. To those who must (by the law of their being) miss the meaning and the beauty of 'Kim,' are still left many minor matters of delight. No book about India that we know describes the country and people at once so vividly and comprehensively. As a picture of Oriental life, it may be compared for force of impression with Mr. Morier's 'Hajji Baba of Ispahan,' but the impression is given by very different methods. Mr. Morier's Persian tale is crowded with figures, overflows with detail of manners and customs; and the feeling that it is a truthful, minutely accurate picture is forced upon us by the spectacle of his abundant knowledge. Mr. Kipling's impression is made by his unerring selection of the significant, and by his reckless way of using the significant for all it is worth. In the sketches of "Hurree Babu," of "The Woman of Kulu," "The Woman of Shamlegh," we have perhaps never had a story-teller except Kipling who, in deference to his own sense of propriety or his public's, would not have drawn the line just where the Oriental definitely proclaims himself, and is therefore never identified with the European and never forgotten. It must be said for Mr. Kipling that he never weakens his effect by reference to our conventions—one might almost say, by yielding to an inopportune visitation of the Anglo-Saxon sense of decency. In comparing 'Kim' with Mr. Kipling's former work, we feel those remarkable qualities which have been recognized from the first, and in addition a deeper thought about life, a fuller realization of its best meaning. The relation between Kim and his lama is shown with profound sentiment, kept in check by a constant irony full of laughter; and the moral of the tale (if a moral be demanded) can be easily drawn from the devotion of the master and the Chela: by love alone are we freed from the slavery typified by the "Wheel of Things," and by the free gift of love do we "acquire merit."

BOOKS FOR THE YOUNG.

Most nautical literature strains credulity to the verge of collapse. As a matter of fact, life at sea is wearisomely monotonous; startling incidents are rare, and, when they do come, they are apt to be so crowded with peril that details pass unobserved in anxiety for personal safety. Interrogate an old sailor-man in regard to his seafaring career, and he will exhaust his repertory of actual dangers encountered in a narrative of fifteen minutes' duration. He is more apt to recall a deficiency of "plum-duff" on some particular voyage than he is to remember the kind of adventures with which writers of sea-books regale us. 'A Year in a Yawl,' by Russell Doubleday (Doubleday, Page & Co.), is an instance in point. From start to finish it keeps us in a condition of nervous apprehension with its succession of lurid pictures of personal peril, and in one

instance of pecuniary peril, which, to the sensitive (or, rather, impecunious) mind, will convey a more vivid idea of appalling disaster than does a grip from the jaws of a "man-eating" shark—a fish for whose identification a large reward has been offered. The only really wearisome feature of the book is the ceaseless, day-and-night chatter of the characters. There is no cessation of it, and, if actually indulged in in the way it is presented, it would have required the enlistment of two expert stenographers to record.

The book, vouched for as being a narrative of actual experience, tells of the building, launching, and rigging of a thirty-foot boat, on Lake Michigan, by four young men. In seamanship they were trained in a good school, on the great lake where the winds are more violent and treacherous, and the waves more rugged, than are those of the Atlantic. The youths, amid a shower of parental tears, sail for Chicago. Thence, they proceed through the canal to the Mississippi, down that river to the Gulf of Mexico, across its waters to the west and east coasts of Florida, and up the Atlantic Coast (stopping at various ports) to Chesapeake Bay; thence by canal to the Delaware; up that stream to Bordentown, thence again by canal to the Raritan; from there to the Hudson, up that river to Albany; then by canal to the lakes and home—in all, a sail of 7,000 miles. There is no halt in the narrative—excepting always the padded gabble of the garrulous young sailors. The reader is carried from one danger to another with a rapidity and verve which adolescence will greet with spontaneous enthusiasm. The illustrations are remarkably fine. They are reproduced, in half-tone, from photographs. Two may be specially noted: that on page 327, "Swaying on the Halliards," and the one on page 365, "The *Gazelle* raced with the flying spray into port." The last, taken from the lee-scuppers of the craft close hauled in a "rattling" breeze, is most spirited.

Dickens is not a writer who lends himself to selections, and his studies of child-life are, for the most part, too harrowing to be taken out of the humorous context which, to some extent, relieves their effect of sordid misery. In 'Ten Boys from Dickens' (R. H. Russell) Miss Kate Sweetser presents the stories of Oliver Twist, Paul Dombey, and other familiar figures, extracting them from their context with the necessary omissions, and editing them with explanatory paragraphs. It is a thankless task. The plots of Dickens's novels are too closely woven for such picking out of the threads, and these selections have a fragmentary air which will not endear them to the true Dickensian. They are lugubrious reading for the young people to whom they are addressed, and would certainly prove revolting to the sense of justice and reality of the American boy or girl, who knows little, and need not learn so much as is here given, of the unrelieved horrors of London slums half a century ago. Nor can we praise the illustrations, which are an important feature of this handsome volume, and are probably its *raison d'être*. Some of the single heads are not so bad, but the backgrounds of the full-page illustrations are usually poor, and the general effect of the latter is occasionally even repulsive, as in the case of the drawing of Tommy Traddles at page 44.

We note with pleasure the reappearance in holiday dress of that charming book 'Heart,' a schoolboy's journal translated from the Italian 'Cuore' of Edmondo De Amicis by Isabel F. Hapgood (T. Y. Crowell & Co.). It comes to us this year with illustrations which, if of no particular artistic value, will serve to aid the child's imagination in following the life of the little Italian boy whose heart is revealed in the journal. Miss Hapgood has done well to keep closely to the text, preserving the straightforward, simple diction of the boy who writes the journal. The story is already so well known that it needs no further recommendation here.

In 'The Chinese Boy and Girl' (Fleming H. Revell Co.), Prof. Isaac Taylor Headland of the Peking University gives us a second revelation of child life in the Middle Kingdom. Whoever argues from the solemnity of the adult "Mongolian," in a strange land, that the Chinese at home must have a sad boyhood, will be undeceived on reading this pleasing book. It is as full of fun, in its way, as the preceding 'Chinese Mother Goose Rhymes' of the same observing and careful scholar; and the scores of photographic reproductions of toys and Pekinese little folks at play are fascinating. There are also pictures galore by native artists in their own style. The nursery rhymes on fingers and toes, nose and mouth, are (as with us) associated with pigs, cows, going to market, or in some way with the problem of satisfying that aching void to which a baby's mouth is the entrance. The games played by boys seem rough enough to afford good exercise, and those for girls sufficiently enticing to keep them out of mischief. We enter real funland when we get at the toys, for certainly the Chinese maker of camels, donkeys, cats, and dogs has never feared to mould and paint and stuff, as Dr. Holmes did to write, "as funny as he could"; with over-fat puppies, elephants, and dromedaries he has outdone himself. With the block games, all the folk-lore, heroes of the nursery, famous poets, giants, and giant-killers can be represented by means of squares and triangles—even the drunken poet who insists on seizing the moon's reflection in the water and is drowned. Travelling jugglers and the itinerant showmen form a great army in China, and for fractions of a penny furnish the little folk with entertainment by the hour. For children of any growth, this book will afford endless amusement and reveal a new and unsuspected China. It makes two worlds kin. As a study in sociology the book has scientific value.

In his 'Don Quixote,' and still more in his 'Story of the Cid for Young People' (Crowell), Mr. Calvin Dill Wilson has performed a much-needed piece of work. The latter story has never before been put into language and form within the range of a child's understanding. This abridgment is founded upon Southey's translation. Mr. Wilson's treatment shows discrimination in the use and arrangement of details, in the simplification of the vocabulary, and in the omission of cumbersome material. As in his 'Don Quixote,' the historic atmosphere is preserved. The illustrations, by Mr. T. W. Kennedy, add greatly to the interest and value of the book for children.

'The Boy's Odyssey,' by Walter Copland Perry (Macmillan), is a neat volume of 200 pages, founded on Butcher & Lang's translation, and largely preserving the archaic diction of that work, which is possibly not so well suited to youngsters as the transparent and poetic simplicity of Church's 'Story of the Odyssey.' The condensation is done with skill and taste, and will answer for children of seven years and upwards.

The external appearance given to Charles Kingsley's 'The Heroes' (R. H. Russell) and the whole typographical scheme are extremely attractive. The full-plate color designs and the pen-and-ink bands and tail-pieces are pseudo-classic, and are out of key with the English of the text or the fabled spirit of antiquity. Such a face and figure as those ascribed to Andromeda at page 40 show how far the illustrator is from being imbued with a sense of what he works in. On the other hand, both series of illustrations occasionally attain to a praiseworthy decorative effect, and much, as we have hinted, may be forgiven to the unusual beauty of the letter-press.

Decidedly there is a set in the flood of children's books this year towards the quarto form. Such was the shape given to the meritorious 'Kids of Many Colors' lately noticed by us, and such that adopted for Mrs. Josephine Peary's 'The Snow Baby' (Frederick Stokes Co.), a life-history of the Arctic explorer's child, born, as is well known, in Greenland, while he was who knew where in the still further north? Mrs. Peary, of the historic stock of Diebitsch, showed a more than soldierly courage in this unique experience, and her narrative will appeal to all mothers and will interest many children, to whom it may well be a door to knowledge and imagination concerning polar mysteries and adventure. Numerous excellent photographs of scenery and native inhabitants give substance to the information conveyed. Peary's removal of the great meteoric stone forms a part of the story. Quarto again is 'Urchins at the Pole' (Stokes), and quite other than the foregoing; all in rhyme, and given over to fancy, and admitting to its equal sky the mermaid and the walrus. The urchins themselves are a sort of water Brownies. There is humor in both the verse and the illustrations, but it is not of a rare order. 'The Surprise Book' (Stokes) contains more than one good design in black and white by Albertine Randall Wheelan, like that of the boy and snail upon the beach; the versifying is correct, often bright, and sufficiently seasoned with puns. The "surprise" consists in the pictures being needed to explain the verse. 'Charades,' the book might have been called. 'The Golliwogg's "Auto-Go-Cart" ' (Longmans) carries the absurdity of the jointed dolls and their strange companion a step further, in keeping with the latest mania in locomotion, and maintains the level of ingenuity and fun reached in the beginning by this queer conceit of the Sisters Upton. In more (but not wholly) serious vein is 'Jingleman Jack' (Akron, O.: Saalfield Publishing Co.), the jingles, of a humorous sort, being by James O'Dea, the colored pictures by Messrs. Kennedy and Costello, who represent more realistically than artistically a great variety of trades and occupations. W. W. Denslow's 'Mother Goose' (McClure, Phillips & Co.) is done in bright colors, with bold hand-lettering for the Melodies, and is sure to attract any child—for which reason a lit-

tle more refinement and restraint in the humor were desirable. This is supplied in 'Old King Cole's Book of Nursery Rhymes' (Macmillan), which quite outshines all these quartos in beauty of design and coloring, and so may properly end the list—for the present.

Memories of a Musical Life. By William Mason. The Century Co.

In reading the life of a musician, one usually expects to be told that he got his special gifts from his mother. Dr. William Mason, whose seventieth birthday was celebrated on January 24, 1899, by his many pupils and friends, and who now tells the story of his life in Europe and America, is an exception to this rule. His father was Lowell Mason, one of the most prominent figures in the history of American music early in the last century. He was for five years President and director of the Handel and Haydn Society of Boston; it was through his efforts that music was introduced into the Boston public schools; and Dr. Mason thinks the difference between Boston and New York as musical centres is largely due to his father: "He made Boston a self-developing city. New York has received its musical culture from abroad." Lowell Mason was also very successful as a writer of hymn tunes. His missionary hymn, "From Greenland's Icy Mountains," "has been sung in more languages than any other sacred tune, . . . and one of his collections of sacred melodies brought him in over a hundred thousand dollars."

Dr. Mason got the benefit of this success by being able to study abroad from 1849 to 1854. During these years he met and got more or less intimately acquainted with many of the most distinguished composers and players of the time, and he has plenty of interesting things to tell about them, without ever becoming garrulous or pedantic. The list of the eminent men he came in contact with is formidable: Wagner, Liszt, Rubinstein, Brahms, Raff, Meyerbeer, Moscheles, Schumann, Klindworth, Joachim, Wieniawski, Vieuxtemps, Ole Bull, Wilhelmj, Von Bülow, Grieg, etc. Liszt, naturally, is in the foreground, not only because Mason was Liszt's pupil, but because it was through him that he became acquainted with many of the other musicians just named.

Dr. Mason's narrative of his experiences at Weimar is interesting; but, although aided by extracts from his diary, it lacks the minute details which a woman's eye is more apt to see than a man's, and which make Miss Amy Fay's description of her lessons with Liszt (in her 'Music-Study in Germany') so vivid and fascinating. Like all the other pupils of the great pianist, Dr. Mason bears witness that he took technique for granted, and gave all his attention to interpretation and expression: "He never taught in the ordinary sense of the word. During the entire time that I was with him, I did not see him give a regular lesson in the pedagogical sense." From Dr. Mason's playing, Liszt's teaching "eradicated much that was mechanical, stilted, and unmusical." Concerning Liszt's own playing, we read that "he was very fond of strong accents in order to mark off periods and phrases, and he talked so much about strong accentuation that one might have supposed that he would abuse it, but he never did." "His genius flashed through every pianistic phrase; it illuminated a composition to its innermost recesses." Rubinstein said to William Steinway: "Put all the rest of us together, and we would not make one Liszt."

Of Rubinstein's playing, Liszt had a high opinion, though the writer thinks that he rated Tausig higher and regarded him as the best of all his pupils. Brahms Liszt did not admire; and Dr. Mason tells us that "the pianoforte-playing of Brahms was far from finished or even musical. His tone was dry and devoid of sentiment, his interpretation inadequate, lacking style and contour." He paid little attention to the expression marks in the pianoforte part of Schumann's quartet (op. 47), and "quite overpowered the stringed instruments." Dr. Mason is evidently not one of those who allow themselves to be intimidated by a fad or fashion. He has even the courage to say that Beethoven's sonatas, though fine *per se*, are not pianistic, not idiomatic. "Had he written them for orchestra, we should have had thirty-two symphonies."

One of Dr. Mason's idols has always been Schumann. When he was in Leipzig, Schumann was still so far from being appreciated that whenever he came to his publishers with a new manuscript under his arm, the clerks would nudge one another and laugh. When Mason came back to New York and asked for some Schumann pieces in a music-store, he found that they were on hand, but packed away in a bundle and kept in the basement. Another of his idols for whose appreciation he labored was Chopin. He has some very pertinent and sensible remarks (pp. 243-247) concerning the excessively fast *tempi* that so many players of our time use. He thinks that Chopin's music is being not only electrified but "electrocuted."

As might be expected in the case of one who has been a piano-teacher for half a century, there are not a few useful hints to students scattered through these pages —hints regarding touch and expression in particular. If pianists pondered the following, there would be fewer failures in the concert hall: "All music is full of nuances and accents of greater or less intensity, to which pupils hardly ever give any attention, although they are necessary in order to give due expression to rhythm. They correspond to vocal accents in reading aloud or in declamation." A remedy for self-consciousness, which also leads to many failures, is indicated on page 79.

The last chapter is somewhat disappointing, as the title, "Music in America To-day," leads one to expect interesting details regarding eminent American composers whom Dr. Mason has known, whereas it is devoted chiefly to some of the latest pianistic visitors from Europe. However, some of the Americans, including Paine and MacDowell, are touched on in other chapters, and of special interest are the revelations regarding the early musical life of Mr. Theodore Thomas, whose associate in New York the author was for years. To sum up, Dr. Mason has written an autobiography which must be included in the small list of musical books that have a permanent value.

Rugs, Oriental and Occidental, Antique and Modern: A Handbook for Ready Reference. By Rosa Belle Holt. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1901.

This book is certainly comprehensive in its scope, its title as wide as the earth, as long as past time. Here are Eastern and Western, old and new "rugs," from the silk carpet of the East to the Navajo blanket and American Sabatos. As its title-page further says, it is a "Handbook for Ready Reference," "to enable a novice to appreciate the beauty and interest attaching to rugs, and to assist a prospective purchaser in judging of the merits of any particular rug he may desire to possess." For one who knows nothing of Oriental carpets, to whom Persian, Turkish, Caucasian are but names, who cannot distinguish handmade and machine work, the book is a mine of information. It is, in fact, written for the ignorant but interested public, who are many, and not for the carpet students, who are few. Its importance and worth lie in its putting together in convenient form, systematically and with accuracy, a large amount of practical knowledge on a subject which hitherto, with rare exceptions, has been treated in large expensive publications, often in a foreign language. Its style is very simple and untechnical, without a suspicion of æsthetic enthusiasm, even in the half-page given to the great museum carpets and those of noble houses in Europe—the flower of Oriental carpet-tying. Every book on antique Eastern carpets should spare a few lines at least in description of the great *Jagdteppich;* and while a print—as in Riegl's book—can only faintly suggest its beauty, who has not gained something from a plaster cast of the Venus of Milo or a print of the Sistine Madonna? The black-and-white pictures of this book are far better than the colored plates; both are sufficient in number and illustrative of the text. A convenient map is a good feature. The bibliography looks excessively full, until we hunt in vain for the large Vienna work on Oriental carpets, or any reference to Bode's work, or any mention of editions.

Miss Holt's use of the word "Rug" is the accepted American one. Europeans draw sharper distinctions—the German word *Teppich* being qualified by *Fuss-teppich* for the floor, *Wand-teppich* for the wall, and *Möbelteppich* for furniture- or other covering. The English practically use the words in the same way: carpet for the floor, hanging for the wall, and rug for a furniture- or other covering. The Englishman covers himself and his divan with a rug. In most English and German writings on the subject, carpet and *Teppich* are generally used, and particularly *"Oriental* carpets," *"orientalische* Teppiche."

Chapter i., on the "History of Rug-Weaving," makes one long for German thoroughness. The practical points of work and commercial conditions are well described. Considering that there are no special illustrations, the descriptions of methods of tying, looms, designs, are as clear as words can make them. Pictures are needed to show the different knots particularly; also, more emphasis should be laid on the various regular trade designs used in the East to-day, and on the extent to which they have degenerated from their purer prototypes. This degeneration in Eastern designs is an even larger question than the use of aniline dyes. Improvement in the permanence of these

dyes has somewhat changed the practical, though not the artistic, objection to them. It is not so much vegetable dyes in antique carpets that we kneel to in adoration as it is the great influence of *time* on *color*. The virtue of vegetable dyes lies in what time gives them, not in what it takes away from them. The comparative fineness of carpets, rated by number of tyings to the square inch, receives no special attention here, in contrast to Mumford's excellent tables.

Chapter ii. is given to "Rug-Weaving in Egypt, Persia, and Turkey"; chapter iii. to "Rug-Weaving in India and Central Asia." This method of division does not make sufficiently clear to the "novice or purchaser" the fact of the marked distinction between Persian, Turkish, Caucasian, Turkoman, and Indian carpets. Tables are indispensable to impress such facts, for a running description of different kinds of carpets is very confusing even to a trained mind. The much discussed question of the true origin of Polish carpets is not referred to in the few lines on that subject.

Rights and Wrongs of the Transvaal War. By Edward T. Cook. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901.

The books dealing with South African affairs are now so many as to make us slow to welcome any addition to their number. But on several accounts we are glad that Mr. Cook has brought out this elaborate treatise. As editor of the *Daily News*, it was his duty to inform himself carefully concerning all the particulars of the controversies between the Governments of England and the Transvaal, and to explain to the public every development as it took place. The attitude of the *Daily News* was such as to make it sufficiently critical of the measures of the English Government, and its policy had always been favorable to liberty and humanity. Mr. Cook should therefore be qualified to judge of the merits of the contestants as well as any Englishman, and we can testify that he tries conscientiously to be impartial. In this endeavor, however, he becomes tedious. He justly thinks that dispatches must be set forth at length in order to be clearly understood; but dispatches are unreadable. Hence we cannot commend this book to ordinary readers. They would not do it justice. But historians, and those who like to go to the bottom of a subject, will prize it as a repertory of information, and as a temperate but earnest argument in support of the proposition that Great Britain has, on the whole, been in the right.

Yet we doubt if so elaborate an array of facts is required to maintain this proposition. Mr. Cook dwells on the different ideals, the varying civilizations, of the Boers and the English. He points out the inevitable result of establishing a mining camp in a pastoral community, and shows that Jameson's raid was rather an effect than a cause. But, after all, the fundamental question of right involved is the right of the Transvaal republic to independent existence. If it was rightfully independent, then England had no right to make demands which international law did not sanction. Otherwise, England had a right to make the demands which she did, and the Transvaal Government should have conceded them. But Mr. Cook takes it as settled that the Boers were not of right independent, and thus he has an easy task of it.

A comparatively easy task, we should say; for on his own showing the English diplomacy had a seamy side, and it is hard to decide on the relative blackness of the pot and kettle. The Jameson raid and the course of the English Government in its inquiry, or rather in stopping its inquiry, into it, will seem to the unbiassed mind to justify the Boers in thinking that the overthrow of their Government would please the English. The various proposals made for admitting aliens to citizenship could not fail to alarm those who had this conviction. They were proposals for political suicide; for the aliens outnumbered the Boers. The English were willing to discuss with the Boers the sauce with which they would prefer to be cooked; but the Boers did not wish to be cooked at all. To the ordinary Briton, this is such a wandering from the point as to justify the use of force; but the rest of the world is not so sure of it.

It would be vain for us to attempt to consider severally Mr. Cook's arguments. In spite of his determination to be fair, his bias appears from time to time, and makes him take care that the Dutch dogs get the worst of it. To be free from all prejudice, under the circumstances, would be superhuman, and Mr. Cook is as free as could be expected. He reproduces many of his editorials, which are of excellent quality, and are history in a more assimilable form than the dispatches of the Colonial Office. It must be said, however, that the dispatches of the Transvaal Government are very skilfully prepared, and prove that the Boers were not overmatched in diplomacy. Mr. Cook shows the mischief of Chamberlain's blundering brutality, by letting it speak for itself. Whatever the rights and wrongs of the war, Mr. Chamberlain's action will be one of the wrongs. Mr. Cook has done well to gather and arrange these materials. His book has a full index, and tables of reference to blue-books and dispatches.

Peter Abélard. By Joseph McCabe. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1901.

Mr. McCabe's 'Abélard' is a virile and dramatic piece of biographical composition. Written from a point of view the reverse of Catholic apologetic, informed by an extensive knowledge of the religious and secular literature of Abélard's time, controlled by a peculiarly vivid historical imagination, and lighted here and there by flashes of grim humor, it is an exceptionally satisfactory and stimulating account of one of the most fascinatingly human personalities in the history of mediæval thought. After the Lives by Rémusat, by Deutsch, and by Hausrath, Mr. McCabe pretends to add little to our information concerning the actual facts of Abélard's career, but he does in many cases bring to the recorded fact a new, lively, and consistent interpretation. The romantic unction of manner, which sometimes strikes the reader a little strangely in a work of this class, is certainly to be justified by the consideration that the character depicted was so essentially revolutionary and romantic.

The story of the early life of Abélard is vigorously told. We know him, a youth of noble birth, beautiful and brilliant, talented in music and song-writing, yet a seeker after remote and difficult wisdom; soon to be the most formidable dialectician of a disputing age, and the idolized master of thousands of ragged, brawling scholars. Then comes, in Mr. McCabe's phrase, the "Dead-Sea fruit" of Abelard's life. He meets Héloïse, and the *liaison* which has immortalized them ensues. This familiar but exceedingly delicate episode is retold with much sane analysis and with commendable discretion. There is rather more insistence than usual upon the ethical and intellectual graces of Héloïse's character, and rather less upon that wealth of human passion which has made her almost the elect divinity of a certain sect of romantically inclined persons. Abélard's conduct, likewise, is treated with unusual sympathy. Unfailingly opportunist he undoubtedly was, but Mr. McCabe defends him successfully against the opposing charges of licentiousness and cold, unfeeling calculation; and in the epitome and analysis of the famous letters, without the usual painful emphasis upon the fact and effect of mutilation, makes out an excellent case for the warmth and permanence of Abélard's affection for his wife. The final summary of the character of Héloïse is sufficiently notable to deserve quotation here:

"Cousin once suddenly asked, in the middle of a discourse: 'Who is the woman whose love it would have been sweetest to have shared?' Many names were suggested. . . . But he answered, 'Héloïse, that noble creature who loved like a Saint Theresa, wrote sometimes like Seneca, and who must have been irresistibly charming, since she charmed St. Bernard himself.' It was a fine phrase to deliver impromptu, but an uncritical estimate. It is a characteristic paradox to say that she loved like a Saint Theresa, and an exaggeration to say that she ever wrote like Seneca. As to her charming St. Bernard—the 'pseudo apostle,' as she ungraciously calls him—they who read the one brief letter he wrote her will have a new idea of a charmed man. Yet with her remarkable ability, her forceful and exalted character in the most devitalizing circumstances, and her self-realization, she would probably have written her name in the annals of France without the assistance of Abélard. It must be remembered that she had a very singular reputation for her age before she met Abélard. She might have been a Saint Theresa to Peter of Cluny, or, as is more probable, a Montmorency in the political chronicle of France."

The chapters in Mr. McCabe's book which deal with the love passages in the life of Abélard are likely to find most favor with the wayfaring man; but to any one caring for the history of religious opinion the concluding chapters, treating of Abélard's struggles in the theological arena, are of more momentous interest. Mr. McCabe has not been careful to give much account of Abélard's position in the court of pure philosophic speculation, or much attention to his significance as one of the earliest leaders in educational reform; but of Abélard's tragic struggle on the treacherous field of dogmatic theology, he presents an instructive and profoundly moving narrative. It is a matchless instance of the irony of events that, some centuries after Peter Abélard the heretic had been driven to the wall by Pope and Curia at the impulsion of pious St. Bernard, the doctrines for which he stood should have become not only the core of most larger faiths, but actually incorporated in the teaching of the Church by

which he was persecuted. As Mr. McCabe cautiously insists, there is little documentary evidence of the literary influence of Abélard upon the theological developments which followed not long after his death. But when one recalls his thousands of eager pupils, among them reformers like Arnold of Brescia, teachers like Bernard Sylvester of Chartres and Gilbert de la Poirée, even Pope Alexander III. himself, it seems hard to overestimate Abélard's actual oral influence. The chief advocate of the rationalization of theology before Roger Bacon, he certainly encouraged many more independent minds to hale to the court of reason doctrines up to that time held to be exempt from its law. As Mr. McCabe modestly concludes:

"He had no particle of the political ability of Luther. But, such as he is, gifted with a penetrating mind, and led by a humanist ideal that touched few of his contemporaries, pathetically irresolute, and failing because the fates had made him the hero of a great drama and denied him the hero's strength, he deserves at least to be drawn forth from the too deep shadow of a crude and unsympathetic tradition."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Lyman. The Rights of Man. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Bowker, R. R. Of Business. (The Arts of Life.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Chenery, Susan. As the Twig is Bent. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Daskam, Josephine Dodge. The Imp and the Angel. Scribners. $1.10.
Farquharson, A. C. St. Nazarius. Macmillan. $1.50.
Howells, W. D. Heroines of Fiction. 2 vols. Harpers. $3.75.
Jefferson, C. E. Doctrine and Deed. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Lefèvre, Edwin. Wall Street Stories. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.25.
May, Joseph. The Miracles and Myths of the New Testament. Boston: George H. Ellis. $1.
Meakin, Annette M. B. A Ribbon of Iron. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Nesbit, E. Nine Unlikely Tales for Children. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Pratt, E. H. The Composite Man. New ed. Chicago: Published by the Author.
Rhees, W. J. The Smithsonian Institution. 2 vols. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Spalding, J. L. God and the Soul. The Grafton Press.
Spearman, F. H. Held for Orders. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.
Starr, Louis. Diseases of the Digestive Organs in Infancy and Childhood. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co. $3.
Thackeray, W. M. Vanity Fair. 3 vols. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan.
The Garden of a Commuter's Wife. Recorded by the Gardener. Macmillan. $1.50.
The Lark Classics. 8 vols. New ed. Doxey's.
"Thormanby." Kings of the Rod, Rifle, and Gun. 2 vols. London: Hutchinson & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $7.
Twitchell, H. Beautiful Women in Art. 2 vols. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $4.
Weedon, L. L. Bible Stories. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.
What is Worth While Series: (1) Hoar, G. F. Conditions of Success in Public Life; (2) Trent, W. P. War and Civilization; (3) Miller, J. R. How, When, Where? Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 35 cents each.
Wiggin, Kate Douglas. A Cathedral Courtship. New ed. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Windle, B. C. A. The Wessex of Thomas Hardy. John Lane. $6.

A MANUAL OF THE FLORA OF THE NORTHERN STATES AND CANADA. By Prof. N. L. BRITTON, *Director of the New York Botanical Garden.* 1080 pp. 8vo. $2.25 *Ed. net.*

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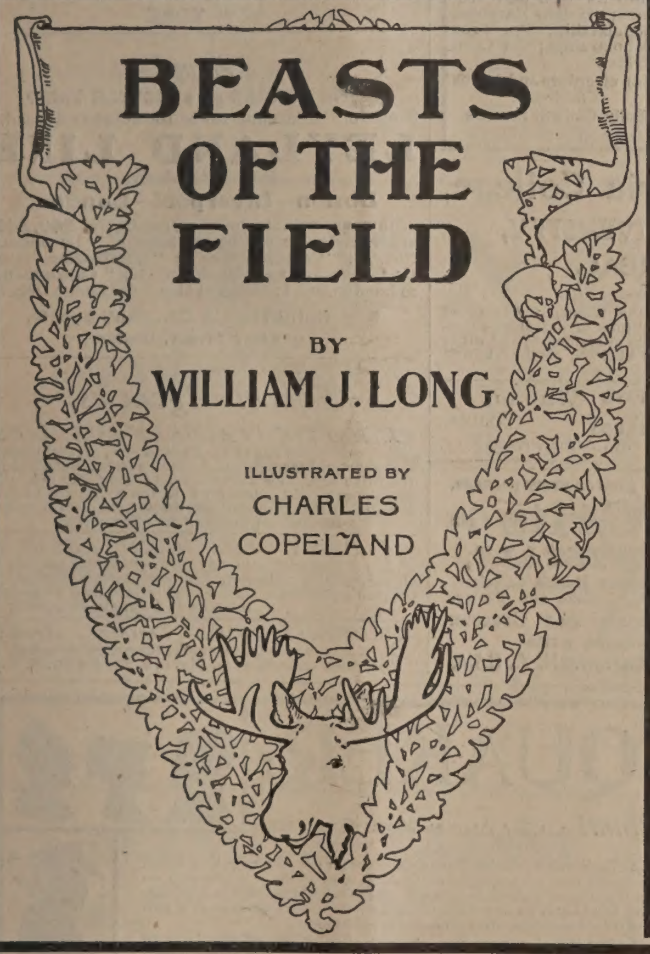

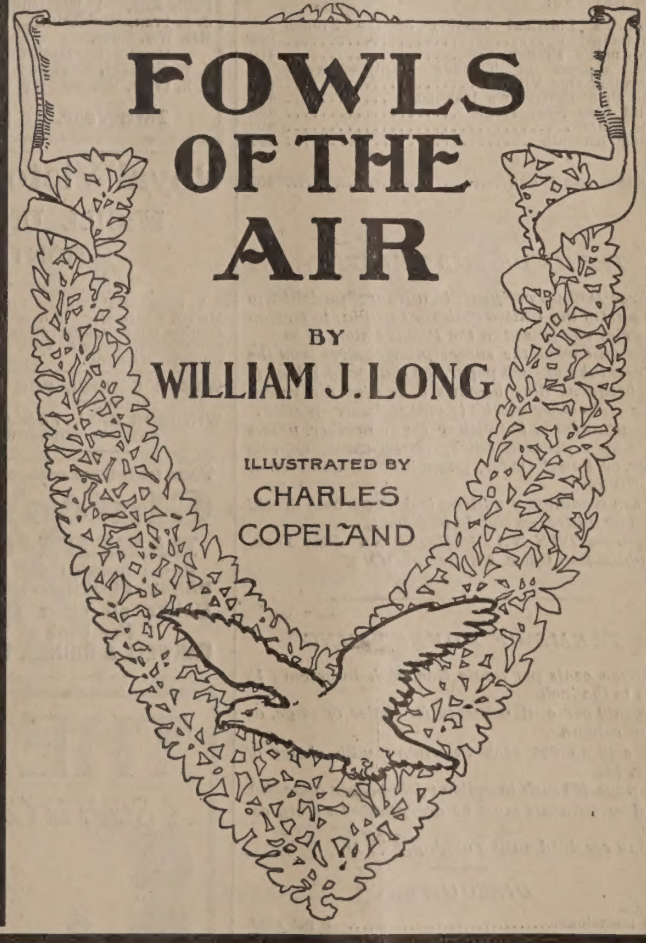

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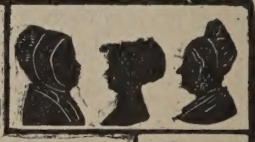

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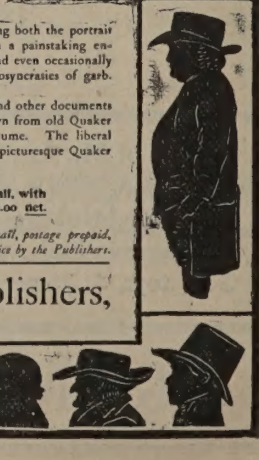

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 21, 1901.

The Week.

There is no doubt that a new canal treaty was signed on Monday at Washington. Coincidently with the text, it is expected that the final report of our Canal Commissioners will be published. Their preliminary report distinctly favored the Panama route, on technical grounds, but declared that no satisfactory arrangement could be made for the acquisition of the Panama franchises and property. It is known, however, that prolonged and serious negotiations have since been carried on between our Commissioners and the French company. What our engineers very properly demanded was a definite offer from the Panama people—purchase price named in dollars and cents. This, we understand, has not been forthcoming. Our information is that President Hutin has been playing too subtle and time-wasting a game. He has hoped to secure an official endorsement by the United States of the Panama route as the better one, without actually completing its sale. Then he would be, he thought, in a position to do one of two things: he could either name a high price for the route to which he had got our Government to commit itself, or could go home to finance his company on the strength of the endorsement he had obtained in Washington. But it appears that he has utterly failed in this plan, too sly by half, and has worn out the patience of our Commissioners, who mean simply to put him and his route wholly out of the reckoning. We think this a thousand pities, since the weight of expert opinion so clearly leans to the Panama route as the preferable one.

President Roosevelt's declaration of purpose regarding appointments, last week, was most encouraging. Mr. Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Chairman of the National Civil-Service Reform League's Committee on Dependencies, called upon him, and was assured by Mr. Roosevelt that he should exclude political interest of every sort, direct or indirect, in three branches of the public service—the army, the navy, and "the colonies." As to domestic offices which have a political character, his rule would be, first of all, to make certain of fitness, and then, other things being equal, to allow political considerations a legitimate weight; but in the army, the navy, and the colonial service he declared that "there should not be one iota of a concession to politics while he remained President, for the intrusion of such an element would be nothing short of a taint." The President further expressed to his caller the hope that this statement of his purposes might be spread everywhere, and there could hardly be news that civil-service reformers would better enjoy spreading.

To another statement made by the President last week civil-service reformers will also enjoy giving a wide circulation. Mr. Roosevelt recently forced the resignation of the Collector of Internal Revenue in the Louisville (Ky.) district, because he had shamefully abused his official position by using his power and patronage in favor of one side in a factional controversy. When the man whom he had picked out for the vacancy called at the White House, Mr. Roosevelt improved the opportunity to caution him against falling into his predecessor's error, and advised him to observe rigidly the Civil-Service Law. There is nothing like an object-lesson, and this Louisville incident will open the eyes of a great many Federal officials to the fact that there has been a change at Washington, and that the day for condoning "offensive partisanship" is past.

President Roosevelt well illustrated the right principles of selection in the appointment of a negro to office on Thursday week. He named a colored man for Justice of the Peace in the District of Columbia, and his choice was a graduate of Harvard University, who has become principal of the colored high school of the District. The appointee was vouched for by Booker T. Washington as representing the highest attainments of his race, and the selection is one which must be approved by every candid white man as eminently fit to be made in a city with so large a colored population as Washington. It is safe to say that the principles which Mr. Roosevelt applied to the filling of this office will govern his course in considering the appointment of negroes to more important positions in the South; in other words, that he will name only men fit for office, and men whose appointment will be satisfactory to the communities in which they are to serve.

As in former years, Secretary Long has declined to endorse in his annual report the extravagant and indefensible recommendations of the Naval Board of Construction for an increase of the fleet. He asks for three battle-ships, two large cruisers, three gunboats, three picket-boats, one collier, four tugboats, and three sailing training-shps. This last recommendation ends for the present an interesting conflict between the officers who believe in training the modern sailor upon a sailing-ship, and those who advocate modern steam vessels of war for this purpose. The battle-ship controversy Mr. Long puts aside for the present, contenting himself with announcing that the designs ordered by Congress will be duly forthcoming. As was expected, Mr. Long asks for 450 more officers and 3,000 additional men, despite the fact that the Department finds it impossible to recruit the ranks of the enlisted men to the limit now allowed by law. One of Secretary Long's recommendations should win him much praise, particularly from the scientific world. It is that the Naval Observatory be given the best qualified civilian head to be obtained in the country, and that the law requiring a naval head be repealed. Secretary Long truly says that the existing statute might as well require that "the Commissioner of Fish and Fisheries should be selected from the line of the Marine Corps, or the director of the Geological Survey from the line of the Army. There is no vital relation between the Navy and the Observatory."

The Northern Pacific settlement, whose terms are now, for the first time, authoritatively given to the public, closes a contest of great interest. The struggle began last spring with the effort of President James J. Hill of the Great Northern, in conjunction with Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan, virtually to gain control of the Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul as a link between the Great Northern and Northern Pacific and some roads running east from Chicago in which they are interested. Opposition to the plan on the part of some large holders of St. Paul, however, forced them to give up the effort to secure control of that road, and to make the same effort for the control of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy system, which would answer the purpose about as well. The nature of the enterprise was not discovered until it was very far advanced. It finally became clear to the owners of the Union Pacific—a road paralleled at most points, and likely to be paralleled at all, by the Burlington. With the Burlington in the hands of transcontinental rivals, the owners of Union Pacific could expect no mercy. When the situation became fully known, it was too late for the owners of the Union Pacific to make direct resistance. They therefore resorted to the plan of buying a control in the Northern Pacific itself, and so quietly and astutely did they work that their operations did not become known until the plan was very far advanced. The offer of Mr. Harriman, representing the Union Pacific interests, to give up his large hold-

ings of Northern Pacific for a share in the Burlington, had been rejected by Mr. Hill, and the effort of that interest to purchase as much stock as was held by their opponents led to the cataclysm of last May, from which the Union Pacific emerged with a controlling interest in the Northern Pacific. Since that time efforts have been constantly in progress to settle the affair.

The formation of the so-called Northern Securities Company, which has now received a New Jersey charter, follows the complete victory of the Union Pacific interests, as regards the Burlington, and guarantees them more protection than they asked last May, before the final stock-market struggle. The new company, with its large capital of $400,000,000, will control the Northern Pacific and Great Northern Roads, and through these the Burlington. In the latter road, however, one-half the voting power is guaranteed to the owners of the Union Pacific, who are completely protected against any undue competition or antagonism through the Burlington, or in the Northwest. The new company thus represents an immense railway mileage, and it is quite possible that it may engulf other lines. It stands for the idea of "community of interest," but only in a Pickwickian sense, since its formation was really a case of "Hobson's choice." In its general nature it closely resembles the old Oregon and Transcontinental Company, organized just twenty years ago by Mr. Henry Villard, which controlled the Northern Pacific, the Oregon Railway and Navigation Company (now in possession of the Union Pacific), and other roads. While these two security-owning companies were formed for distinctly different reasons, it is interesting to note that they represent the solution of a difficult transportation question by substantially the same method. This outcome of a protracted struggle seems to mean another long step toward railway consolidation, and may lead to even more far-reaching changes than have yet been produced.

The announcement by the Governor of Minnesota that he intends to use all the powers of his office to prevent the consolidation of the Northern Pacific and the Great Northern Railways was certainly usable for the purpose of raiding the stock market, as any other bearish news might be employed. We do not imagine for a moment that the Governor had any such thought or intention. There were reasons enough for his action apart from that. The people of Minnesota are and always have been intensely hostile to the union of the two great lines running through their territory. They demand the competition in freight rates which they conceive to be implied in separate ownership and operation. When, therefore, the Governor says that he intends to exhaust his powers to prevent consolidation, he is merely conforming to the public opinion which placed him in office. It does not follow, however, that he can undo what has been done in the formation of the Northern Securities Company. It must be presumed that the lawyers who have given their minds to this work for months have anticipated all the objections that can be raised to it by the Attorney-General of Minnesota, or even by the Legislature of the State. It would be presumptuous and futile, however, for a newspaper to predict the outcome of a conflict which may eventually take on larger proportions than those now measured by State lines.

The exportation of seven millions of gold on Tuesday by one steamer has caused some perturbation in Wall Street —not among bankers, but in the minds of stock speculators. The banker keeps his eye on imports and exports, and on the rate of exchange, of which international trade is the sure index in the long run. He knows, or ought to know, how much gold is coming out of our mines, and how much is brought in at the Pacific ports. So the banker, if he understands his own trade, need never be taken by surprise when gold is exported, and need never be alarmed by the amount taken from us at any one time. The speculator in stocks looks only at the probable effect of gold exports upon the imaginations of other speculators, and upon the rate of interest for call loans. The slight effect which the present gold movement has had on the financial markets betokens the better understanding of cause and effect and the greater steadiness of public opinion since the dispute about the monetary standard was settled. It is no longer necessary to ask ourselves whether the exportation of gold implies a premium on that metal and a possible fall to the silver standard. We shall learn in due time that the exportation of gold is as natural and necessary as the exportation of anything else of which we have a surplus and other countries a deficiency, and we shall look upon it as a sign of financial health and not of disease. The amount of gold in the country, after making ample deductions from the official tables of statistics, cannot be less than nine hundred million dollars, and is probably one hundred millions greater than that sum.

Renewed charges of fraud perpetrated in the recent election on the acceptance of the new Constitution come from Alabama, and the information sent out concerning the vote there seems to substantiate these claims. In view of the expected opposition to the instrument, it seems almost incredible that the majority in its favor could reach 30,000 by any legitimate means. There are several features of the Constitution that were calculated to arouse objection. Not only is the suffrage clause of such a character as to make it possible to exclude from the ballot many poor whites, should it ever be desired to get rid of their votes, but the penalties imposed upon sheriffs who should permit prisoners to be taken from them by lynchers were not favorably regarded. There were also certain obnoxious provisions on local legislation. For all of these reasons, a fairly heavy white vote against the Constitution was to be expected—to say nothing of the negroes, who made up from 40 to 50 per cent. of the qualified voters of the State under the old Constitution. These facts render it easy to give credence to the statement that a decided majority of those who cast ballots at the election voted against the Constitution. The barefaced character of the frauds perpetrated appears from the charge that in Montgomery the majority in favor of ratification was twice the whole actual turn-out of voters, and that in other counties the disproportion was even greater. The new Constitution was avowedly framed largely to avoid the necessity of manipulating elections. Yet in order to secure its adoption, more manipulation has been necessary than at any election for years.

Mayor-elect Low has announced his first selection for office, and he has thereby set a standard for his Administration. The office is that of Corporation Counsel, and the choice is George L. Rives. Without derogation of other eminent citizens and able lawyers, it may truthfully be said that this is the best possible appointment to the place. Mr. Rives not only is in the front rank at our bar, and conspicuous for his public spirit, but he was the Chairman of the Commission which was appointed last year to revise our city charter, and he consequently has that fund of intimate knowledge regarding the instrument which the law officer of the municipality needs at this time. The city is to be congratulated upon "getting the best." It has become so much the custom of our "prominent citizens" to decline a call to the public service if a man can "do better" by sticking to his private business, that we are really surprised when one is ready to make a sacrifice for the good of the community. If Mr. Low has set a standard for the new Administration in offering this place to the man most conspicuously qualified for it, Mr. Rives has also set a standard for citizens in accepting the call to duty. The man best fitted for a high office will often be a man who must make a sacrifice to take it, but every such man whose aid Mr. Low seeks must understand that he owes the city the obligation of his service.

The Citizens' Union has kept its prom-

ise to deal openly with the public. It has published a statement showing the total amount of money received by it in the city campaign—$185,402—and has given also an account of the ways, all legitimate, in which it was expended. We presume that the exact sums laid out under each of the seven different heads mentioned could be ascertained on application to the Finance Committee. They should be printed, to make the exhibit complete. Even as it stands, this frank opening of its books to public inspection is one of the most useful things which the Citizens' Union has done in the whole campaign. It blazes the path for future amendments of the various corrupt-practices acts in the States, and for the needed introduction of their principle in national elections as well. Any one can see how our existing laws fall short of securing full and due publicity in election expenditures. The candidates file a statement of their individual outlay, but this is often only as cents to dollars of what is actually spent. Party committees collect vast sums in secret, spend them in secret, and religiously burn their books afterwards. They render no account even of the money they receive from candidates. In Mr. Shepard's admirably itemized statement of his expenses, for example, we find a contribution of $1,000 to John McQuade, Treasurer of Tammany Hall. Will that gentleman ever tell us what he did with the money? Not he. Nor will Platt reveal either the sources of his campaign collections or the ways in which they were laid out.

This whole question is closely related to the other subject now so much in agitation—namely, an enforced publicity in the accounts of corporations. Some States have passed laws making it a felony for a corporation as such to give money to a political party. The aim of such laws is good. Whatever contributions a corporation makes to a political boss or a party manager are presumably made with corrupt intent. A corporation has no politics. If it pretends to have, the politics is clearly only a form of business, and gifts to the party war-chest are merely an investment. Let the constituent members of a corporation have what political affiliations they choose, and give money to what committees they please; but it would be a perfectly proper law, we believe, which should forbid a corporation, under heavy penalties, to subscribe any sums whatever to any party fund. Our present point is, however, that entire publicity on either side—in the accounts of the corporation and in the accounts of the political committee—would of itself shut up the corporate purse. Let the principle be once established in law that the monetary transactions of both corporations and party managers are to be spread out to the light of day, and a good part of the evil we complain of would be cut away at a stroke.

It is not an easy task to draw the line between freedom of speech and of the press and license. If a newspaper can say with impunity what the Chicago *American* said of Judge Hanecy's decision in the gas case, it may say of his next decision that he was evidently bribed by the successful litigant. It would be no long step to say that all of his decisions were bought; and, of course, the litigants would be privileged to say what a newspaper might say. The end of this kind of freedom of speech and of the press would be the subversion of the judiciary altogether. As Judge Hanecy said in his decision: "If such attacks are permitted and allowed to go unpunished, the judicial department of our Government cannot long survive; and when it falls, the whole structure of our Government will go with it." Probably Gov. Altgeld himself would not dispute this, but would maintain that it is a question for a jury to decide whether the article published or the words spoken were really calculated to bring the administration of justice into contempt. He argued in this case as though there were a similarity between it and the Debs case, and as though the punishment of the newspaper men would be something like "government by injunction."

The report of Major Gorgas, Chief Sanitary Officer at Havana, says that there was not a single case of yellow fever in that city during the month of October, whereas that month in previous years has usually furnished the largest number of cases. In the year 1900 the number of cases was 308, and of deaths 74. The reason for this remarkable change is that the cause of yellow fever has been found. A certain variety of the mosquito, now well identified, is the purveyor of this malady to human beings, and all that the health officers need to do, in order to prevent yellow fever, is to prevent the existence of these insects, or at all events to prevent them from biting human beings. "In Havana this year," says Major Gorgas, "we have worked upon the hypothesis that the mosquito is the only way of transmitting the disease." Disinfection and quarantine as means of "stamping out" the disease have been wholly discontinued. This is a boon conferred upon the island of Cuba, and, indeed, upon the civilized world, by the medical staff of the United States army. These men were not the first to perceive the truth—that honor belongs to Dr. Charles Finlay—but they were the first to demonstrate it and bring it into general acceptance.

About six weeks ago, the time limit set for the authorization of the religious orders by the French Associations Act expired, and the exodus of whole communities to Belgium, Italy, and the Channel Islands gave to the law something of the appearance of persecution. How far this is from being the case is shown in the fact that nearly every order has contrived to keep alive at least one establishment under the law. Thus the Carthusians of the Grande Chartreuse remain, while all their other communities have scattered. The fact, too, that more than half of the 16,468 religious establishments in France have applied for authorization, shows clearly enough that M. Waldeck-Rousseau was not attacking the religious establishments as such. That the anti-Republican orders—Jesuits, Passionists, and Assumptionists—should very generally have refused to undergo the scrutiny of the Government, choosing rather exile, was only natural. The new law, in fact, was aimed chiefly against them. In bringing more than half the independent communities of France under the direct supervision of the Government, and thus assuming over the irregular clergy the kind of control which the Government has long exercised over the bishops and parish priests, M. Waldeck-Rousseau has gained a moral victory. The general acquiescence of the charitable orders in the new law proves that, notwithstanding the vaticinations of clericals like the Comte de Mun, neither general confiscation nor an anti-religious campaign was involved in a law which attacked certain anti-national forms of religious organization.

Turkey is finding out the wisdom of that old maxim of spendthrifts and bankrupts—that to pay one debt only encourages the other creditors. The Sultan strained a point to pay the claims of the United States, only to bring the French fleet down upon him with a demand for instant settlement with France. That debt painfully squared, Russia was next with pressing reminders about her own little bills, and now comes the faithful old friend, John Bull, to say that his account cannot be any longer put off. The British Ambassador at Constantinople is pressing the English claims, and will observe to the Porte, if necessary, that England has a fleet as well as France. Thus does the Turk sadly discover that to be honest with one creditor has a most unhappy influence upon the others. His newfound friend, the Emperor William, stood him in good stead for a time. The Sultan walked arm in arm with the Kaiser, just as Capt. Costigan used to go down the street with a rich young fellow, tipping the wink to his creditor-tradesmen: "Moind the company I'm in; I'm sure to pay ye." But that would not last for ever, and the eagles are now gathering about the Turkish carcass.

CUBAN PROBLEMS.

Recent dispatches from Havana report that Masó is making great gains in his canvass for the Presidency. That there is even to be an election of a Cuban President will come as a piece of news to most Americans, busied as they are about farm and merchandise, and already thinking of Cuba more as a nuisance than as an isle of the oppressed to be made one of the blest. Yet if present plans hold, the Cubans will choose a President and other officers of their so-called independent government next February; and the thing to make note of just now is that Masó's candidacy, with its probable success, represents a serious derangement of what is understood to be the "official" programme kindly prepared for the Cubans by our military authorities.

Estrada Palma was plainly ear-marked as the candidate favored by Gen. Wood and by our War Department. Masó was to be induced to accept the Vice-Presidency. The two were expected to be the docile team which the Military Governor could drive whithersoever he listed. But suddenly Masó kicked over the traces. On October 31 he issued an electoral manifesto, to explain why it was a "patriotic duty" for him to stand for the Presidency of the Cuban republic. He declared that he had been appealed to from all parts of the island to lend his name to a candidacy which would represent the "genuine Cuban tradition," and which would aim at "saving from the general shipwreck at least the political life of the country, the principles of the revolution, and the honor of Cubans."

In his appeal for popular support, Masó did not think it necessary to pay any compliments or show any gratitude to the American Government. He roundly declared that the American intervention in Cuba had been "perverted into a military occupation approaching a conquest"; and frankly admitted that Cuba could not be, under the terms of the Platt amendment, a really independent state. Yet, within the limitations imposed upon them, he thought that the Cuban people should proceed with firmness and prudence to set up a Government which should represent all elements and be able to maintain cordial relations with the United States. Masó appealed openly to the negro vote, asked for the support of his fellow-veterans of the Cuban army, and addressed himself also to citizens of Spanish antecedents, who are, he asserted, the "very nerves of our national life."

It is easy to see why the candidacy of such a man on such a platform should alarm the American foster-fathers of Cuba. In Masó's bold appeal to colored voters, they discern the threat of a war of races in the island; and it appears that the negro citizens in Santiago and elsewhere are, in fact, flocking to his standard almost in a body. His adroit angling for the votes of soldiers and Spaniards must be a source of nearly as great uneasiness to Gen. Wood. If Masó succeeds, the whole carefully arranged plan for gently leading the Cubans along under Palma into whatever course their American rulers might finally decide to be good for them, will be in danger of being shattered. The National party, which our military Government coddled and nursed, has been rent into fragments, most of which have fallen into Masó's basket. All told, the political outlook in Cuba has radically changed within the past month, and in a way necessarily disquieting to Gen. Wood and Secretary Root.

But the main question in Cuba is, after all, economic rather than political. Even Masó recognizes this. With whatever insubordination he may propose to cut loose from Gen. Wood's leading-strings, he does not neglect to emphasize the importance of speedily securing a treaty with the United States which shall give life to Cuban industries. How commercially to rescue the islands we have rescued by force of arms, is now the great and pressing question in Cuban administration. All accounts agree that the industrial and commercial situation in Cuba is bad, and rapidly growing worse. There will be a large sugar crop, but no market for it. Neither capital nor labor is freely entering the island. A committee of representative merchants and planters is *en route* from Havana to Washington to lay all these urgent matters before President Roosevelt.

What should be done? Well, for one thing, we ought to treat Cuba decently. Having cut her off from her old market, we ought to provide her a new one. Nor should we forget that we have promised to do so. We ought to keep that promise. The case of Cuban reciprocity stands by itself. Senator Spooner says that he does not know what reciprocity means—at least, he wishes some one would define the word for him. But he ought to know exactly what Cuban reciprocity means. He was one of the Senators called into conference with the Cuban delegates last spring, when it was agreed that, if the Platt amendment were accepted by the Convention, a considerable reduction in our tariff on Cuban sugar and tobacco should be made as speedily as possible. Of course, that agreement is not legally binding upon us; but it is morally binding. The Cubans fulfilled their part of the bargain; we must live up to ours. Whatever else President Roosevelt urges Congress to do, he should not fail to advise it earnestly to do something for Cuba at the earliest possible day. Other reciprocity proposals may fail, but to establish reciprocal trade with Cuba we are in honor bound. Having done that, and having left the Cubans to govern themselves, we may withdraw our troops and our control with as comfortable a feeling as that which Sancho Panza had in leaving Barataria, and may even come away as convinced as he was that our talents do not lie in the direction of governing islands.

THE IRREPRESSIBLE TARIFF.

Many wise men, not to say wiseacres, are declaring at Washington that Congress must not touch the tariff. No one really thinks of disturbing it, is the first thing they assert. Then they add that it would be absurd to revise the tariff; that it could not be done without much difficulty; that they will do it themselves all in good time if you will only let them alone now; and they wind up with an agonized cry for help: "Men and brethren, come, in heaven's name, to prevent reckless agitators for tariff revision from clouding prosperity and ruining business!"

Well, who are these impious men who would lay a sacrilegious hand upon the sacred ark of protection? They are, most of them, lifelong protectionists. First among them we rank William McKinley, who, being dead, yet speaketh in favor of tariff revision. His last public utterance was an earnest call to his party and to his countrymen to "extend and promote our markets abroad" by doing away with "some of our tariffs that are no longer needed for revenue or to encourage and protect our industries at home." There can be no doubt that, if President McKinley had lived, he would be to-day the leader in the movement which excited protectionists are foolishly denouncing as treason to his memory. Another of the pestiferous agitators is Congressman Babcock, honored Republican, convinced protectionist. He announced last week that he should push from the first day of Congress his bill for putting upon the free list all the manufactures of the Steel Trust. His ground is precisely that taken by McKinley. The duties on iron and steel are no longer needed. There are practically no imports. Exports go to foreign countries, and are there sold at lower prices than those demanded of the American consumer. President Schwab admitted this in his testimony before the Industrial Commission. Very well, says Mr. Babcock; duties that not only are not needed, but furnish a barrier behind which a giant Trust can take refuge and make exactions from the American people—such duties must be repealed. It is not a question of fiscal policy, but of simple social justice.

In addition to these cantankerous Republican revisers of the tariff, we have the Chambers of Commerce, all over the country, meeting to resolve that tariff obstructions to foreign trade ought to be removed at once, and sending large delegations to Washington to urge their views upon the President. In other

words, the very business men who are to be ruined by so much as a discussion of the tariff, are foremost in agitating its revision! It is a wise business man that knows his own interest better than a frightened Congressman. Right under Senator Hanna's nose, the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce rises up to advocate a large measure of reciprocity with Canada. That city has become a great manufacturing centre, and is looking about for markets. What market so natural or alluring as the one just across Lake Erie? But mutually repellent tariff laws prevent the exchange of raw materials and finished products across that international border; and Cleveland business men are clear-headed enough to see that a lowering of the barriers would promote a flow of commerce advantageous to both countries. So they are for reciprocity—that is to say, for tariff revision.

The contending forces in this latest struggle over the tariff are aligned in a novel way. It is no longer political party against political party. The tariff sword has gone into the Republican vitals, and that party sees itself divided on the issue. It may be that the Democrats are as sharply divided, but they can count as little more, just now, than spectators of the contest. It is interest against interest, manufactures against raw materials, which the present controversy has arrayed. Historically, of course, the manufacturers have been the great upholders and beneficiaries of the tariff. From time to time they threw a sop, as a rule wholly unsubstantial, to agricultural interests, to keep them quiet. But now the day has arrived when the manufacturers, as a whole, want a modification of the tariff, which they no longer need (they never did need it, really), and lo! it is the despised producer of raw materials who now rises up to say them nay. If the great manufacturers of the country could now have their way, we should have a revised tariff, and that right early; but the sugar-growers and the wool-raisers, the tobacco-farmers and the fruit-growers, sullenly say, "No, you don't! Our inning has come, and we mean to make the most out of it that we can."

It is the spectacle of this quarrel between old friends, the fear that battling interests will prove irreconcilable and only do each other harm, that leads timid counsellors to recommend soothing-syrup and silence. "Let the old man sleep," says Senator Mason elegantly, "for there is always trouble when you arouse him." Yes, but suppose the old man is already suffering from colic, and has a nightmare, and will soon get up and begin to smash the furniture unless something is done to relieve him? It is a counsel of folly as well as of cowardice, this renewal of Lord Melbourne's impatient cry, "Why can't you let it alone?" The trouble is that it won't let you alone. Time and the course of our industrial development and the march of commerce and the competition of nations have set the movement for tariff revision running like a strong tide; and all the mops of all the Mrs. Partingtons in Washington cannot keep it out of the Republican house. The alarmed or the greedy may cry, Down with tariff revision! but it will not down. It is as irrepressible, as pitiless of our repose, as any other unsettled question.

BLACK AND WHITE RATIOS FOR ELEVEN DECADES.

An analysis of the relative numbers of the white and of the negro population of the several sections of the United States at different periods in our national history reveals some facts of interest and importance. For the purposes of such an analysis the country may be conveniently divided into seven groups of States and Territories. Three of these comprise that portion of the country in which, in 1860, slavery was either legally or practically non-existent. The North Atlantic group covers the section north of Mason's and Dixon's line and east of the State of Ohio. That is, it is made up of New England, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. The Northern Central group includes all the old free States from Ohio to Kansas, inclusive, and from the Ohio River and the northern boundary of Missouri to the Canadian border. The States and Territories of the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Coast make up the Western group. This grouping is the same as that used in the official census publications, except that Missouri, which the Census Office considers as one of the Northern Central group, is not so dealt with in this discussion. It is excluded because, in 1860, it was a slave State.

Of the sixteen slave States Delaware, Maryland, the Virginias, North Carolina, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri, together with the District of Columbia, lie to the north of the States in which the negro population is relatively the most numerous. Before the war, the phrase "Border States" was sometimes used so as to include all this region, although in its more precise and accurate definition that term excluded North Carolina and Tennessee. No one of the States which we here class as "Border States" had, before the attack upon Sumter, passed ordinances of secession. The Border States may be divided into two groups—the eastern, made up of Delaware, Maryland, the District of Columbia, the Virginias, and North Carolina; the western, of Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri. In Texas and Arkansas, two of the remaining eight slave States, the whites have always been in an overwhelming majority. These two States, together with Oklahoma, make up the group which is here styled the Southwestern. The other six States, viz., South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana, contain about one-half of the negro population of the entire country, and their inhabitants are divided between the two races with approximately numerical equality. This group is referred to as the Southern.

The following table shows the number of negroes in every one thousand inhabitants of the country as a whole, and of each of the groups as above defined at each census from the first to the twelfth:

	United States.	Southern.	Southwestern.	Eastern Border.	Western Border.	North Atlantic.	Northern Central.	Western.
1900.....	116	501	211	264	127	18	14	7
1890.....	119	506	234	283	135	16	14	9
1880.....	131	519	252	310	153	16	16	7
1870.....	127	505	288	308	154	15	14	6
1860.....	141	496	283	323	185	15	8	7
1850.....	157	488	252	345	209	17	10	7
1840.....	168	486	209	368	220	21	10	.
1830.....	181	486	155	386	226	23	11	.
1820.....	184	477	118	386	212	25	10	.
1810.....	190	468	..	385	191	29	13	.
1800.....	189	414	..	366	168	32	12	.
1790.....	193	418	..	352	149	34	..	.

In the country as a whole, the whites have increased more rapidly than the negroes in nine of the eleven decades between 1790 and 1900. The defective census of 1870 probably explains the apparent exception of the decade between 1870 and 1880. The fact that the slave trade was not prohibited until 1808 may account for the greater increase of negroes than whites in the decade between 1800 and 1810. That was the period of the Napoleonic wars, when European immigration to this country was very small. In the last twenty years, at all events, the more rapid increase of the whites has been due entirely to the coming in of immigrants from Europe. The rate of natural increase of the two races has been substantially the same in the country as a whole.

In the region lying between the eastern foot-hills of the Rocky Mountains and the western ocean there never have been many negroes. The slight changes in the proportion they bear to the total population, which the table shows to have taken place from time to time, are without significance. In the great Northern Central section the negroes constitute a very small part of the inhabitants. In the half century immediately preceding the civil war, the white population increased by leaps and bounds, while the incoming of negroes was, in several of the more accessible States, checked by the so-called Black Codes then in force. When, as a result of the war, the negroes became free to go where they pleased, the relative numbers of the negro population of the Northern Central States very nearly doubled in the single decade between 1860 and 1870. Since 1880 there has been no appreciа-

ble change in the proportion of negroes to whites in this section, although in the last ten years there seems to have been a very large negro emigration from other States into Illinois and Indiana. In the North Atlantic group, the negroes constituted numerically a more important part of the population in 1790 than they have ever done since. For nearly three-quarters of a century the proportion they bore to the entire population steadily declined, and in 1860 it was not half as great as it had been seventy years before. In this part of the country no such sudden increase of negro population followed emancipation as took place in the Northern Central section. From 1860 to 1890 there was no substantial change in the proportion of negroes to whites. In the last ten years the number of the former in New York and Pennsylvania, and in some of the other States of the North Atlantic section, has greatly increased, and the negroes are now relatively more numerous in this section than they have been at any preceding period for more than half a century. They do not even now, however, constitute so large a proportion of the inhabitants as they did in 1840 before the great rush of European immigration set in. The figures for the three Northern groups show that so long as slavery lasted, the proportion of negroes to the total population of the free States grew less and less, and that since emancipation the tendency has been in the opposite direction.

When we pass to the Border-State groups, we find that in each of them the relative numerical importance of the negro population increased for the first four decades; that is, from 1790 to 1830. During this period the increase of the white population of the Eastern Border States was but small. There was then a large white emigration from those States to the South, to the West, and to the Northwest. It was at that time that southern Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois were settled, principally by natives of Virginia and Kentucky. The business of shipping Virginia and Kentucky slaves southward had not then attained the magnitude it afterwards reached. Since 1830 there has been a steady decline in the proportion of negroes to the total population of the Border States. The slight increase shown in the table in that proportion in the eastern Border States between 1870 and 1880 was doubtless due entirely to the defective enumeration in 1870. From 1830 to 1860 the negro population of the border was depleted by the sale of slaves South. Between 1845 and 1860 an appreciable portion of the foreign immigrants to this country, then so numerous, found their way to the more northern of these States. It was at this time that there grew up a so-called "Limerick" in Baltimore and a great German city in St. Louis. Since the war the foreign-born population of these States has received constant accessions, while the Border-State negroes have moved in considerable numbers to the Northern States and in a less degree to the States further South.

In 1860 slavery still existed in six of the original thirteen States. Four of the six are in the group of Eastern Border States. In 1790 these four States contained more than two-thirds of the entire negro population of the country. The steady decline for nearly three-quarters of a century in the relative numbers of the negro population of these States proves how unnecessary in their climate negro slavery ever was. How different the history of the country would have been had no negro slaves ever been brought into them! How unfortunate it was that the Ordinance of 1787 could not have been extended to the territory southwest of the Ohio and subsequently to Missouri. There can be no question that to-day the Border States would have been more wealthy and prosperous, and doubtless would have contained a larger population, if slavery had never been established in them. If they never had been slave States, their negro population at this time would probably be relatively little more numerous than is that of the North Atlantic States. As it is, the negro problem in all the Border States is steadily becoming, in fact, less important, no matter how much agitation the politicians of those States may for their own purposes now or hereafter stir up. Substantially the same thing may be said as to the Southwestern group. Although the negro population of Arkansas has for many years increased faster than the white, it still numbers less than three-tenths of the whole.

Since 1870 the proportion of negroes in the Southwestern group as a whole has steadily declined. The negroes now number little more than one-fifth of its entire population. It is only in the Southern group of States that the negroes are so numerous that they can be regarded by even the most prejudiced of sensible men as in any aspect a source of possible danger. For eighty years, from 1800 to 1880, they steadily gained in numbers upon the whites. In the last-named year, out of every one thousand inhabitants of these States, five hundred and nineteen had African blood in their veins. So long as slavery continued, or the economic and industrial conditions resulting from slavery remained substantially unchanged, the whites became relatively less and the negroes relatively more numerous in both the Southern and Southwestern groups of States. This was not due to any greater rate of natural increase among the negroes of these States than among their white inhabitants, for probably the reverse was the case. In the country as a whole, the negro rate of natural increase is as great as that of the whites, but it is as great because, while it is less than that of the Southern, it is greater than that of the Northern whites. While slavery lasted, the failure of the superior race in the South and Southwestern groups to maintain its relative proportion of the population was due to the constant emigration from those States of the more active and enterprising of the non-slave-holding whites. Had slavery not been abolished, it is probable that the negroes would have continued to gain. The tide turned when manufacturing and mining industries began to spring up in the South on a large scale. Home employment for the surplus white population was thus created. The negroes now constitute a smaller proportion of the population of the Southern group than they did twenty years ago. This is true not only of the group as a whole, but of five of the six States which compose it. It is significant that Mississippi, the single exception, is the very one of those States in which there has been least of that industrial development which we have in mind when we speak of the "New South."

A CENTURY OF THE EVENING POST.

As merely to have lived through the Reign of Terror was achievement enough for Sieyès, so a newspaper, when asked what it has done in the course of a hundred years of continuous existence, might simply reply with the French abbé, "I have lived." But a century of life for an institution means something different from what it does for a man. Dean Swift once broke out violently, as Sir Walter Scott relates, when some one spoke in his presence of a certain "fine old man." "If the man you speak of," cried he, "had either a mind or a body worth a farthing, they would have worn him out long ago." But a centenarian newspaper is not open to that reproach. The processes of decay which go on in the human organism as age increases are, in an institution, continually made good by the processes of repair. Just as the individual withers but the world is more and more, so the successive editors of a daily journal pass away only to leave it flourishing in perpetual youth.

Yet it is perhaps more strikingly in a newspaper than in any other form of collective activity persisting from generation to generation, that the power and impress of strong personality abide. Editors live in their successors, as ancestors do in their descendants, whether the latter will or no. The unconscious formation of a newspaper's style is seized upon by Walter Bagehot, in his 'Physics and Politics,' as an excellent illustration of the way in which a type is created. "A certain trade-mark," he writes, "a curious and indefinable unity,

settles on every newspaper." How the thing is done he explains by a story of the founder of the London *Times*, who replied to the query why all the articles read as if written by one man, "Oh, there is always some one best contributor, and all the rest copy."

It is an honorable line of "best contributors" to which the *Evening Post* can point in the persons of its editors from 1801 down. There may have been more vivid personalities connected with the American press; other names may suggest more of sound and fury; but what other newspaper numbers, among those who have shaped its policy and wielded its leading pen, men whose names stand for so much of culture and power and fire and integrity as do those of William Coleman, William Leggett, William Cullen Bryant, Parke Godwin, John Bigelow, Carl Schurz, and Edwin L. Godkin? Of marked diversity of gifts, these editors of the *Evening Post* were one in devotion to the highest standards in journalism and in public life. All of them helped to give to their newspaper a certain tone which was recognized by Charles Sumner when he wrote to John Bigelow in 1850, "I cannot forbear expressing the sincere delight with which I read your paper. Its politics have such a temper from literature that they fascinate as well as convince."

Bryant, of course, was the editor who most closely fixed, in the public mind, the association of the *Evening Post* with literature. It was as "The Man of Letters," not the editor, that he was commemorated in its columns, after his death, by Edmund Clarence Stedman. But there were other brave writers, both before and after that Agamemnon. Of the anti-slavery writing in the *Evening Post* in 1835-37, done by William Leggett, an historian of the time says that it was a "really noble series of editorials"; and Bryant himself paid tribute to the memory of his brother-editor, by writing of him after his untimely death:

> "The words of fire that from his pen
> Were flung upon the fervid page,
> Still move, still shake the hearts of men,
> Amid a cold and coward age."

As for the pen of Mr. Godkin, which so lately ceased to adorn the pages of the *Evening Post*, what newspaper ever matched it for satire that read like a page of Swift's, for Olympian humor, for fearlessness and fervor, for clarity of moral perception, and for a broad acquaintance with the best that has been thought and done in the world's history, brought to bear upon the endless and apparently petty problems of the day which confront a writer for the day?

A man has mingled feelings, remarked Phillips Brooks, when he walks through a gallery of his ancestors. Their fame is his, yet not his, unless he reproduces and continues it. To its editorial ancestors the *Evening Post* paid on Saturday its just acknowledgments, joining reverence to those who are dead with greetings to those who are still among the living, and ending with the devout hope, *Sicut patribus, sit Deus nobis.*

OUSTING AN ITALIAN TAMMANY.

If ever the appeal to the ballot looked hopeless, it was in the case of Naples, and news that the political Camorra was defeated last week by a narrow majority will surprise not only general students of municipal problems, but the Italians themselves. Conditions had seemed too bad to be immediately remedied. More than a year ago the Italian Government was forced, by the accumulating proofs of corruption in Naples, to suspend the municipal government and to place the city in the charge of a Royal Commission of Inquiry. The bulky report of this Commission, which was recently published, gives what should for the future remain a veritable encyclopædia of municipal pathology.

The situation was not one to encourage reformers. Unscrupulous political leaders had been allowed to grow into great power, because they were necessary, or made themselves appear so, to the success of the national parties. The infamous Casale and Summonte may have seemed as necessary to Giolitti's leadership as Croker seemed indispensable to Mr. Bryan's canvass. The Commission of Inquiry followed the matter further, and found that the voting-lists were scandalously stuffed, and that, short of a popular uprising, the candidates of the Camorra could always be counted in. The business of the city was found to be in frightful disorder. In many departments no pretence of adequate bookkeeping had been made, and the heads were only able to say that the money had been spent in some unexplained fashion for the good of the city. Wherever the Commission followed the city's transactions with holders of franchises, or its conduct of public utilities, it found evidences of wastefulness and of corruption. Light, water, and traction companies paid tribute to the machine; the Department of Sanitation showed the same taint. There was no doubt about the disease; the question was as to the cure.

To many it was discouraging that the Commission made no positive recommendations. Conservative editors deplored the fact that the prosecutions which must follow the exposure could be undertaken only after considerable delays. Many feared that the decision to hold a city election in November, and to restore the control to a demoralized people, was at least premature, and might turn out to be disastrous. There were, in fact, many reasons for fearing that the political health of the city had been so completely sapped that the power of reaction was lost. If the political abuses of Naples are of the kind which we know in most of our American cities, the relation of the machine to the average citizen is of a sort not only to despoil, but to humiliate. Imagine a condition of things where one may not discharge a Camorrist servant without incurring threats and personal peril; where the agents of the "High" Camorra may demand to inspect your books, so that you may be mulcted intelligently on the basis of your profits. A terrorism which in the worst days of Tammany was chiefly directed against the vicious, the miserable, and the poor, has been in Naples systematically employed against the well-to-do; so that to arouse civic courage to revolt against extortion was vastly more difficult in Naples than it was in New York.

Believing that the whole community was honeycombed by the system or blackmailing, many of the North Italian journals feared that a great mistake had been made in appealing to the voters. It would have been safer, they felt, to keep the city under the Commission until the voting-lists had been thoroughly revised, the bosses tried and punished, and a better public spirit aroused. From this prudent, if rather timid, opinion the Committee dissented utterly, and, whether moved by questions of ministerial expediency or by a sole regard for the matter in hand, held to the decision that the city must settle its own political future—and promptly.

The result will show to doubters that it is unwise to think too meanly of the people. The victory over the Camorra, it should be noted, was won in the normal way, by a non-partisan coalition which had frankly no other aim than to "destroy an historic organization." To this end, parties as different as Socialists and Monarchists, as Catholics who had long abstained from political activity and the members of the influential Merchants' Association, who had long suffered from the blackmail system, all united. Against this improvised movement the most desperate efforts of the bosses failed. That it was an heroic cleaning up, those who have fought longest against our Tammany will be freest to admit. Such a victory gives hope to all who are working for decent civic housekeeping. Even Philadelphia need not despair of shaking off her present unenviable distinction of being the worst governed of civilized cities.

THE NATIONAL ACADEMY AT PHILADELPHIA.

PHILADELPHIA, November 15, 1901.

The National Academy of Sciences has just closed here one of the most successful of its autumn meetings, and one of the most agreeable and interesting as to its reception. It met on Tuesday forenoon, November 12, in Houston Hall, which is the general students' club of the University of Pennsylvania. The first paper was a biographical notice of the late Dr. Genth,

who was eminent as a chemist. On Wednesday Gen. Comstock read a notice of the life of Gen. John Newton. The list of papers promised that chemistry would occupy the attention of the Academy more than any other science. But the chemists seem to think—mistakenly, I fancy—that scientific men outside their own fraternity cannot be expected to care for questions of the chemical constitution of this or that class of bodies; and the consequence was that some papers in this department went unread, as did two by Dr. Barus, one of which, on Nuclear Condensation, we were particularly sorry to miss. One of the most important contributions was made on Thursday, by Prof. James M. Crafts, on the "pseudo-catalytic action of concentrated acids." It related to that branch of chemistry, to-day almost the dominating one, which considers the rapidity—or, as the chemists phrase it, the "velocity"—of chemical action. This, we know, in a general way, depends upon the concentration of the different reagents. But how should "concentration" be defined? Hitherto, only extremely dilute solutions have been employed in such researches; and as long as study was confined to them, it was sufficient to define concentration as the number of molecules, or of ions, per unit of volume. It has been well known that this definition would not lend itself to any simple expression of the action of concentrated solutions; but in what manner it ought to be modified has not hitherto been satisfactorily made out. Professor Crafts has found a definition which answers to perfection for certain concentrated solutions, at least. He has selected for study the action of "strong" acids—namely, those which are unable to resist the ionizing action of water—in decomposing many substances, without themselves entering into any chemical combination. This fomenting of discord is what is called, in a general way, catalysis, or pseudo-catalysis when it is suspected that the fomenters are not really quite so disinterested as they pretend to be. Professor Crafts has had the happy idea of adopting for subjects of decomposition a class of bodies called sulphonic acids, which, for certain reasons, are particularly available for the purpose. In these cases, the proper definition of concentration was found to be that it is the ratio of the number of active ions present to the total number of molecules. Experiments were also made with muriatic acid as the catalyzing agent, with the result that its effect is an exponential function of the amount. This is a fact perhaps as important as the definition of concentration. Although the mass of observations already obtained by Professor Crafts is large, it is likely to be greatly increased.

Another very interesting chemical paper was presented on Tuesday morning by Prof. Edgar F. Smith. Everybody who has read a treatise on chemistry within the last twenty years is aware that the interest in the precise value of the atomic weights of the elements has been immensely heightened by the discovery of the periodic law. All the elements, from atomic weight 39 up, are arranged, according to their chemical properties, in eighteen vertical columns and five horizontal rows; and the atomic weights increase downwards and to the left, the left-hand element in each row (having the lowest atomic weight in that row) being of higher atomic weight than the right-hand (or highest) atomic weight of the row above it. There are two exceptions only. The atomic weight of Nickel, 58.7, ought to be higher than that of Cobalt, which is 59.0; and the atomic weight of Iodine, which is 126.8, ought to be higher than that of Tellurium, which is 127.5. But while the atomic weights, with those exceptions, always increase, and although upon this table have been based successful predictions of the existence and chief properties of four elements, at least—Gallium, Germanium, Scandium, and Neon, while Crypton and Xenon were virtually predicted—yet there seems to be no exactitude or strict regularity in the amount of difference between two successive atomic weights. This may very well be because many, if not most, of the elements are so impure as to falsify their atomic weights, and in that way completely to mask the law of progression, which is probably itself periodic.

This hypothesis is somewhat confirmed by the fact that there is a gap in the table, which is supposed to represent sixteen successive elements hitherto undiscovered or unlocated; and nearly all the elements which appear in the table just above these undiscovered elements have their atomic weights heavier than we should expect from the periodic law; while all those just below any of the undiscovered elements have their atomic weights lighter than we should expect. This would be just the effect that would be produced if these elements were contaminated with the undiscovered elements. Among the elements whose observed atomic weights are lighter than we should expect them to be, none is quite so remarkably so as Tungsten, which is set down as 184, although we should expect it to be between 186 and 187. Professor Smith has undertaken a new determination of this atomic weight, and has ascertained that there is no known process which will free Tungsten from Vanadium, the atomic weight of which, being only 51.4, must have lowered the apparent atomic weight of Tungsten by a considerable amount. The patience of an inorganic chemist needs to be inexhaustible, and thus far Professor Smith has not himself succeeded in effecting the necessary purification of Tungsten. Meantime, since he has proved that all the hitherto supposed pure Tungsten contained Vanadium—say, perhaps, about 1 per cent. of it—it is probable that the true atomic weight is about what the periodic law would lead us to expect it to be.

Another paper approaching a chemical subject, if Mr. Brush's announced etherion of several years ago can be called chemical, was read by Prof. Edward W. Morley, on the transmission of heat through the vapor of water at low pressures; the name of Mr. Charles F. Brush being associated with his own as collaborator. Mr. Morley proved conclusively that, at certain very low pressures, the transmission of heat through aqueous vapor is very considerably more rapid than through air, though it is always much less than through hydrogen. This paper was read on Wednesday.

There were very few physicists at the meeting, and one may say no astronomers, who were doubtless kept at home to welcome the Leonids. But a geologist, Dr. George Ferdinand Becker, brought out, on Thursday, a physical phenomenon which one can hardly believe to be absolutely new, although it would probably be difficult to find any record of it. Namely, it is not uncommon to find laminæ of slate separated by crystals; but it has hitherto been supposed that the laminæ were first separated by faulting or otherwise, and that subsequently the crystals were deposited. An instance in which a crinkle affecting several successive laminæ lay in a line perpendicular to all of them led Dr. Becker to cause the following experiment to be made. Horizontal plates of glass, kept from one another at a fifth of a millimetre, were immersed in a strong solution of alum, which was permitted to crystallize. The result was that the crystals forming between the plates forced the latter apart nearly to the distance of a millimetre. Now, since there seems to have been nothing but friction to oppose lateral expansion, it seems that the growing crystal is capable of stresses like those of the solid.

Another note by Dr. Becker was geological in its aim; but its reasoning was purely dynamical. This was a refutation of the orogenetic theory of tilted blocks. According to this theory, the crust of the earth, floating upon a magma, becomes broken up into blocks which are then tilted, so as to lean in oblique positions one against another, thus forming mountain ridges with intervening valleys. But Dr. Becker showed that masses so great as would be required thus to account for mountain formations would, even if each was a block of flawless granite, be broken by its own weight into pieces, some of which would be so thin as to turn quite over upon their sides, so that a sort of discontinuity would result, very different from anything seen in geology.

There were two interesting and brilliant exhibitions by Prof. George F. Barker: one, of the five new gases and their light—helion, neon, argon, crypton, and xenon—neon showing a most extraordinary scarlet light, and argon, with a condenser, a magnificent deep blue; the other, of two of the new incandescent electric lights, (1) that one in which the filament is composed of that same mixture of 99 per cent. thoria and 1 per cent. ceria which shines in the mantle of the Welsbach burner; and (2) that one in which the filament is composed of metallic osmium. Presumably, the hindrance to the extensive use of the latter would be the impossibility of obtaining osmium in large quantities. The method of making the filament of this excessively refractory and hard metal is a secret in possession of the Welsbach Company. Otherwise, since it requires but half the voltage of the carbon incandescent light, there would be very great economy in it. The ordinary voltage would presumably destroy the filament.

On the biological side there were half-a-dozen papers of a high average order of merit; especially two in physiology. The best was on "Snake Venom in Relation to Hemolysis, Bacteriolysis, and Toxicity," by Dr. S. Weir Mitchell and Dr. Simon Flexner, the latter not yet a member of the Academy. It is generally known that Dr. Weir Mitchell was the first to study snake-venom scientifically, but it was not until long after his first researches had been laid aside that, by some subconscious process, well illustrating Whewell's theory of scientific ideas, he was brought to the hypothesis that venom con-

sists of a mixture of two distinct poisons. When Dr. Weir Mitchell had conceived the hypothesis, he called upon a friend to collaborate with him in putting it to the test of experiment; and it was not until many months had been devoted to patient work, and discouragement was setting in, that the investigators found that the two poisons could be separated by a dialyser, the one acting intensely upon the higher nervous centres, the other disintegrating the blood. Circumstances then again long arrested the further prosecution of the inquiry, during which time it had been somewhat advanced by European physiologists, until last year Dr. Weir Mitchell proposed to his student, Dr. Simon Flexner, to take up the investigation anew upon certain general lines which he formulated. Dr. Flexner seems to have performed his task with distinguished ability; and he certainly presented the somewhat complicated matter with unusual lucidity and fluency.

Another interesting investigation, by a young physiologist, Dr. Horatio C. Wood, jr., introduced by Professor Barker, had been read on Tuesday and was illustrated by photographs and sphygmographic traces. The problem could not be more important from an iatric point of view, being that of the peculiarities in the supply of the lungs with vaso-motor apparatus of nerves, and the consequent specific effects of various drugs in incipient pneumonia, etc. The experiments were performed upon dogs, whose chests were opened by median incisions. It was evident that the physiologists of the Academy thought this the weakest link of the work; for when the lungs were so exposed to the air, carefully as the temperature and humidity might be attended to, they were under most abnormal conditions.

One of the stronger of the young biologists, Prof. Henry F. Osborn of Columbia University, put forward an hypothesis of what he called Latent, or Potential, Homology, which he illustrated by a peculiarity in the growth of teeth. When we study the design of the most developed grinding teeth and compare with it the teeth of "recent" horses on the one side and of primates on the other, we find commencing in both these widely separated groups a development of certain folds which are evidently destined to take a certain future development, alike in the two cases. But horses and primates have had no common ancestor for upwards of a million years back, if we accept a chronology whose possible errors can be of no consequence for the present purpose. We appear, therefore, to be confronted with a feature of development which has been lying *in posse* for a million years. What could have been its mode of being during that time? Professor Osborn had two other papers full of interesting ideas. In one of them he proposed to use the features of dolichocephaly and brachycephaly (long and broadheadedness), which have had perhaps an exaggerated esteem among anthropologists, and have been confined to their science, as important factors in the taxonomy of different families of vertebrates.

A paper by Dr. Caswell Gravé, introduced by Prof. W. K. Brooks, was read by the presiding officer. It related to an improved method of rearing marine larvæ. Finally to be mentioned is a paper by Mr. C. S. Peirce upon the logic of the process of drawing historical conclusions from ancient testimonies. This was an elaborate memoir, in which the method of balancing probabilities was combated as being, in most cases, illogical; a different method being developed and defended, with full details of the different conditions to be fulfilled. Three examples were given to illustrate the new method and contrast it with that in vogue among the higher critics. The first related to the Scepsis story concerning Aristotle's manuscripts; the second to the chronology of the Dialogues of Plato (where the data accumulated by Lutoslawski were employed); and the third to the life and character of Pythagoras, this being selected as showing how to deal with the least trustworthy testimonies.

The Academy received the most charming attentions from the Philadelphians. Provost and Mrs. Harrison gave a reception on Wednesday evening in the Museum of Science and Art. A New Yorker would do well to devote a day to going to Philadelphia to visit that museum, one of the most deeply interesting that the whole world contains, if only for these three departments—the Babylonian remains, including those from Nippur; the Japanese Buddhistic temple; and the Matthew Stewart collection of gems, which is unrivalled in interest by anything of the sort your correspondent has ever seen. On Thursday Dr. Weir Mitchell entertained the Academy at dinner, where were gathered many of the most interesting men in Philadelphia.

M. D.

THE IRISH LITERARY THEATRE.

DUBLIN, October 31, 1901.

The past week in Dublin has been in many ways one of very great interest. There have been exhibitions of paintings by Irish artists (Mr. J. B. Yeats, Mr. Nathaniel Hone, and Mr. J. B. Yeats, jr.), and frequent meetings of those interested in the "Irish revival"; and the Irish Literary Theatre has given its third annual performance. The plays of this year were two, one in English—"Diarmuid and Grania"—by Mr. George Moore and Mr. W. B. Yeats; and one in Gaelic—"Casadh an t-Sugain"—by Dr. Douglas Hyde. To the latter an altogether special interest attaches, as it is the first Gaelic play presented in a Dublin theatre. Both plays received the fullest serious consideration, and the fact that the performances aroused even heated discussion shows pretty clearly that the movement they represent is one of no little significance.

The Irish Literary Theatre was started three years ago by Lady Gregory, Mr. Yeats, and Mr. Edward Martyn, who were afterwards joined by Mr. George Moore. It had for its immediate object the development of Irish dramatic art, through the presentation of original plays on Irish subjects, whether in English or in Gaelic. The movement has had a valuable ally in the Gaelic League, under the Presidency of Dr. Hyde; the aim of the League being to bring about the revival of the Irish spirit, chiefly through the fostering of the Gaelic language. The whole "Gaelic movement," however, aims at nothing short of making Ireland a self-sufficing nation, through the encouragement of all the forces that mean, in the broadest sense of the words, a national culture. It is an appeal to the native spirit to awake to its own and to recover its treasures of legend and language before they are lost. How far the Irish speech and tradition may be restored to the Irish people, and how far the Irish Theatre has stimulated the Irish intellect, are at present, of course, matters of speculation; but this is certain, that the League is a flourishing organization, and the Theatre has proved that people will come with a keen and critical interest to see an Irish play.

The guarantors of the Theatre proposed that it should continue for three seasons, at the end of which period it would at least be possible to determine whether or not the movement was hopeless, and, if it were not, what steps should be taken to carry it on. Six plays have now been produced: "The Countess Cathleen," by Mr. Yeats; "The Heather Field" and "Maive," by Mr. Martyn; and "The Bending of the Bough," by Mr. Moore, besides the two plays of last week; and the purely tentative part of the project has come to an end. The following steps must, in the nature of things, be experimental, for although the three years have shown that the project is too significant to be sneered at, and too good to be extravagantly praised, yet they have not shown the precise direction that should now be followed.

Municipal endowment of the Theatre has been urged, but this is a hardly probable outcome; doubtless it would be unwise at present to guarantee publicly a scheme that must undergo still a good deal of shaping before it can, in the nature of the case, hope to become wholly national. It would seem to an outsider better to continue, if possible, on pretty nearly the same basis, but increasing the number of performances as circumstances permit, until the movement shall be fairly established as a factor in Irish life. It would be more than a pity if the plan so effectively begun should be allowed to languish. There is in Dublin, not to speak of the rest of Ireland, a public sufficiently interested in dramatic art to make of the Theatre a real institution, provided the plays chosen be not polemic, or didactic, or anything but cleanly dramatic.

Mr. Yeats's desire to present also some of the masterpieces of foreign drama, French, Spanish, Scandinavian, and perhaps Greek, would, if carried out, have the effect of lifting the project out of the reach of faction. For it may in Ireland be difficult to keep the Theatre quite clear of the political and religious strife that enters so vitally into all Irish questions of the present day. To illustrate several different aspects of the reception of the plays, it may be noted that the Roman Catholic Archbishop of Dublin bestowed his episcopal sanction upon them, some people opposed the Theatre because it was called Irish and not Gaelic, some refused to go to see the leading actor in "Lear" later in the week because he had previously acted in the Irish play, and the gallery gods drowned out with Gaelic songs the entr'acte "Funeral March of Diarmuid," because it had been composed by an Englishman. And yet the Gaelic League, which is overwhelmingly Catholic, has several times reëlected to its Presidency a Protestant, Dr. Hyde. The total combination of harmonious and discordant elements is not altogether an easy one to deal with.

"Diarmuid and Grania," presented by Mr.

Benson and his company (there is at present no company of Irish players capable of producing a long drama effectively), came in for hostile discussion as well as praise. As a drama written in collaboration by a novelist and a poet, it could hardly be expected to show the same power of dramatic construction as a play put together by a practical playwright. The second act goes well, and rises to an effective climax, but the beginning and concluding acts lack the forceful movement that the tragic story demands. But it is not upon this point that objections have centred; it is upon the dramatists' treatment of Grania's character. The drama contains as heroine what some have termed the only evil woman in Irish legend. Be that as it may, Grania, in the play, is not an attractive character, albeit an interesting study in psychology. The old legend itself tells the story of the wandering lovers who slept in the cromlechs, Diarmuid, warrior of the Fianna, and Grania, daughter of Cormac, King of Tara, and their hunting, for seven years, by Finn MacCumhail, Chief of the Fianna. Cormac has bestowed upon Finn the hand of Grania, but she will have none of him, for he is growing old, and she sets her heart upon Diarmuid, young, beautiful, and a great lover of women. At her wedding-feast she puts witchcraft into the ale of Finn, and flees with her lover. Then for seven years Finn pursues them, but at last a peace is declared. Then, in a great boar hunt, Diarmuid, as had long ago been foretold, receives his death-wound from the boar, and Finn, who brings in his hands water to the dying man, thinks of Grania, and lets the water slip through his fingers, and Diarmuid dies, and Finn marries Grania. As the legend stands, it would be possible, dramatically, to make the marriage of Finn and Grania an event brought about by accident, or by the machinations of Finn, or by those of Grania. The authors have chosen the last instrumentality.

The drama presents three main moments in the story—the love of Diarmuid and Grania and their flight, the reconciliation of the two heroes, and Diarmuid's mysterious death; and makes out of Grania not the striking figure of the legend, but an almost modern woman, discontented with her environment, whose love for Diarmuid wanes on account of the monotony of their pastoral existence, and who craves too late the excitement of life with the gray and battle-stained warrior, Finn. And thus in the drama the dulness of the shepherd's life in the valley is emphasized, and not the thrilling escapes from Finn's early pursuit; and thus it is Grania herself who faithlessly brings about the reconciliation that she may be near Finn. The spectators of the play were very prompt in attributing to the author of 'Evelyn Innes' the choice of a legend involving a character that presented such possibilities of treatment; but whether or not this ascription was correct, there can be no doubt that a drama not containing an immoral woman would have been more acceptable to an audience proud of all that is beautiful in Irish legend. The drama will certainly read better than it acts; the absence of a strong moving character to dominate the scene, the dialogue that in reading is appropriately explanatory, but that in acting retards the movement—these are things which point a distinction between literary and dramatic that the play as a play does not sufficiently observe. But, in spite of all this, "Diarmuid and Grania" is an interesting piece of work, with many moments of unusual poetic beauty.

Regarding Dr. Hyde's Gaelic play, "The Twisting of the Rope," there seemed to be one verdict—charming. There is no way of determining how many understood the language—there must have been many, to judge from the quick response to the good points in the dialogue; and fortunately for those to whom Gaelic was Greek, Lady Gregory's translation had appeared a few days before. Although a dramatic incident rather than a play, Dr. Hyde's little sketch was full of Celtic color, vivacity, and good humor. The scene is in a Munster farmhouse a century ago, where a dance has been going on. Hanrahan, a wandering poet out of Connaught, has come in, and with his sweet speech has won the ear, and perhaps the heart, of Oona, betrothed of Shamus. Except to Oona, Hanrahan is no welcome guest, for, in addition to making love to another's sweetheart, he has contemptuously broken up the dance, since no one in Munster but himself, the Connaughtman, and the peerless Oona can dance properly. Shamus and Oona's mother plot to get Hanrahan out of the house, and it must not be done by force, for the poet "has a curse that would split the trees." By the lively stratagem of declaring that a stagecoach on the road has just been overturned and is in dire need of a rope, which no one has or can make, they induce Hanrahan to begin to twist a hay rope, and as at last in the process he walks backward through the door, they bang it shut, and the poet, outside the threshold where his curses are futile, is left to howl terrific anathema while the gay dance begins again to the music of the Irish pipes, and Shamus chuckles, "Where's Connaught now?" Given by amateur actors of the Gaelic League, Dr. Hyde himself acting Hanrahan with great charm and fervor, the little play was a thorough success.

MARTIN W. SAMPSON.

Notes.

Doubleday, Page & Co. have undertaken a "variorum and definitive edition" of the verse and prose works of Edward FitzGerald, in seven large volumes, with a complete bibliography and personal and literary notes by George Bentham, and a preface by Edmund Gosse. The Merrymount Press will manufacture it in three limited editions. The same firm announce 'Camera Shots at Big Game,' by A. G. Wallihan.

'John Chinaman,' by B. H. Parker, is promised shortly by E. P. Dutton & Co.

'Thomas Wolsey, Legate and Reformer,' by Ethelred L. Taunton, is in the press of John Lane, together with a new volume of 'Later Poems,' by Alice Meynell, and still another edition of White's Selborne, edited by the late Grant Allen, and with upwards of 200 illustrations by Edmund H. New, for the topography and natural history alike.

'Nanna: A Story of Danish Love,' by Holger Drachmann, and a life of Herbert Spencer by President Jordan of Leland Stanford University, are announced by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

Numerous, as usual, at this season, are the reprints of standard works, some made more "popular" in style and price, others beautified or glorified. In the first category stands Motley's 'Dutch Republic,' in two volumes (Crowell), for, in spite of many portrait and other illustrations, the thin paper and rather condensed typography make unattractive pages. The Dent-Lippincott three-volume edition of 'Vanity Fair,' in the series of Thackeray's prose works, is externally and internally in simple good taste, the print liberal, and Mr. Charles E. Brock's illustrations, partly in *sanguine*, partly pen-and-ink in the text, are clever and ornamental. The books are of handy size. Intermediate between the foregoing in quality of presswork are Charles Lever's 'Tony Butler' and 'Fortunes of Glencore, and A Rent in the Cloud' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). The full-page illustrations are from drawings by E. J. Wheeler and W. Cubitt Cooke; not remarkable in themselves, they lend something to the good appearance of the two volumes. From Doxey's, in San Francisco, we have a box of eight flexible leather-bound "Lark Classics" fitted for the pocket—the inevitable Omar, Shakspere's Sonnets, the Love Sonnets of Proteus, Mackay's Love Letters of a Violinist, Swinburne's Laus Veneris, Kipling's Departmental Ditties and Barrack-Room Ballads, and (alone in prose) Richard Jefferies's 'Story of My Heart.' They recommend themselves without pretension.

Mrs. Jameson's 'Shakspere's Heroines' has a proper place in Dent's "Miranda's Library" (New York: Dutton). Rubrication and illustration have not been spared in freshening up this old favorite, and the result is a very pretty book save in the squareness of the back binding. The same domestic firm, in conjunction with Ernest Nister, London, reproduces once more Lamb's 'Tales from Shakspere,' with illustrations of good quality by W. Paget, some in color. The typography is open, and the general appearance handsome.

After ten years, Mr. Edmund Gosse has prepared for the press a new edition of his 'Gossip in a Library' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). It is not important to make new comment upon Mr. Gosse's discursive way as it is exhibited in this collection of critical, biographical, and bibliographical notes. In order to give his reprint "a certain character of freshness," he has added, for America only, an account of the first edition (1789) of White's 'Selborne.' From this paper the bibliophile with a quick eye for the essential fact, however enwrapped in rhetoric, may gather the information which shall save him from the purchase of a mutilated or spurious copy of that rare edition of a charming book.

Percy Bate's 'English Pre-Raphaelite Painters,' originally issued in quarto form, now reappears in octavo (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan); but, if less sumptuous, more valuable for reference, as the text has been revised and brought up to date, and the illustrations increased.

The Phonographic Institute Company of Cincinnati issue once more 'The Phonographic Dictionary and Phrase-Book' of Benn Pitman and Jerome B. Howard. Unlike Munson's Dictionary, which substitutes literal signs for the shorthand characters of his system, this work displays the characters themselves; ingeniously gaining

space for them by grouping words in triplets. The value of these works for solitary study and practice is too obvious to need insisting on.

The extent to which philanthropy has become an occupation, not to say a business, is proved by the appearance of a second edition of Prof. C. R. Henderson's 'The Social Spirit in America' (Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co.).

Two more volumes are added to Professor Bailey's "Rural Science Series," published by Macmillan. One of them, 'The Feeding of Animals,' by Whitman Howard Jordan, consists so largely of technical matter as to make it useless to the ordinary farmer. The other, 'Farm Poultry,' by George C. Watson, is more popular in character, although not superior to many other treatises on the subject. The later volumes of this series do not compare favorably with some of the earlier ones, and for practical purposes its value decreases as its numbers enlarge. Farmers need to have their sources of information few and easily reached.

The sixth volume of Harper's "Portrait Collection of Short Stories" is entitled 'Over the Plum-Pudding,' and contains a number of tales by Mr. J. K. Bangs, gathered from the various periodicals in which they first appeared, and characterized by his well-known vein of humor.

The popular curiosity about men of letters and their belongings has of late been fed less by books than by innumerable items and articles in magazines and newspapers. Twenty-two sketches of this sort, "personal descriptions and interviews," duly supervised and brought down to date, with an introduction by the editor, Francis Whiting Halsey, make up 'American Authors and their Homes' (James Pott & Co.). Except John Fiske, to whom a brief tribute is paid, all the subjects are still with us. The collection is not exhaustive; thus, Mr. Winston Churchill is not included, nor Mr. R. H. Davis, nor Mr. Clemens, nor any ladies. The youngest man here presented is Mr. Paul L. Ford; the latest to become celebrated is Mr. Seton, hitherto known as Seton-Thompson. The oldest in years and fame is he who wrote 'Reveries of a Bachelor,' more than fifty years ago; next to Mr. Mitchell come Col. Higginson and Mr. Stoddard. Between these patriarchs and the recent recruits are Mr. Stedman, Mr. Stockton, Mr. Aldrich, Mr. Howells, Mr. Burroughs, and a dozen others. To each notice is prefixed, as a substratum of solid information, the year and place of birth, with a partial list of publications. The sketches are necessarily genial; they afford a few amusing points, as that 'The Hon. Peter Stirling' "lay on the shelves practically unsold for four months," and was read in California, Michigan, and Wisconsin before it took hold nearer home; also, that Burmese anxiety as to 'The Lady or the Tiger' cannot be assuaged, since Mr. Stockton has "no earthly idea" which door was opened. The eighteen illustrations mostly show rooms or houses in contrast with the humbleness of Poe's cottage at Fordham.

'The Reminiscences of a Mississippian in Peace and War,' by Lieut.-Col. Frank A. Montgomery (Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co.), consist of personal recollections of the men and services of the First Mississippi Cavalry, which the author led through most of the civil war. The operations of the regiment were largely in the department of the Mississippi until the Atlanta campaign, when it formed a portion of the flank protection of Johnston's Confederate forces. The writer stayed in the war until the end, being taken prisoner in April, 1865, by Gen. Wilson's command at Selma. His devout loyalty to the Confederacy makes him extremely chary of unfavorable comments upon any of his superiors, however clear it may be that he laments their conduct, while, after the old-school Southern manner, his regimental associates are uniformly if somewhat monotonously praised for gallantry and patriotism. Slavery is regretfully recalled as the idyllic period of a race of leaders of men of stainless integrity, when for wrongs, real or fancied, satisfaction was sought, "not by the deadly pistol, concealed in the hip-pocket, but by a meeting upon the field of honor, with mutual friends to see fair play." Noteworthy, in the course of the history, is the number of instances of military acquaintances killed in "personal difficulties," as if war's maw were not exacting enough. But the author has no bitterness, but only respect for his old adversaries, and, if he thinks the negro impossible as a citizen, the conviction is not accompanied with any expression of desire to reverse the fate which befell the ancient social order of his beloved South.

Mr. J. H. Slater's English 'Book-Prices Current' (London: Elliot Stock) reaches its fifteenth volume, with contents expanded by minute description of an unusual number of books never seen in auction-rooms since this record was started. The amount realized on sales during the season of 1900-1901 was £130,275, of which sum not less than £4,745 was obtained for three books—a First Folio Shakspere, Caxton's 'Ryall Book,' and 'Pilgrim's Progress.' The editor notes the fluctuations of appreciation and quest: "The original editions of Mr. Kipling's various stories are now neglected; the Dickens - Thackeray-Cruikshank collectors still sleep; the Badminton books have fallen away; and the works from the Kelmscott Press are apparently resting, all except the Chaucer, which has now advanced to eighty-three pounds." The admirable index shows by year the edition of each reference. We remark that the first edition of Dante with Landino's commentary (1481) fetched but £1 more than Edward FitzGerald's 'Salámán and Absál' (1856)—£32 and £31.

'Longmans' New School Atlas' is edited anew by George C. Chisholm of the Royal Geographical Society and C. H. Leete of the American. It is a tall octavo, comprising forty maps indexed in the margin. One peculiarity of this work is that the index of place names is fuller than the maps, location being achieved by latitude and longitude, and also, where practicable, by crosses upon the map. Again, the maps have been drawn on one scale or fraction of a scale. A uniform system of coloring for elevation has been adhered to. Seven sheets are devoted to the United States, whose territorial development, geology, rainfall, commerce, density of population, etc., are represented.

Great compactness has been obtained in F. W. Putzger's 'Historischer Schul-Atlas zur Alten, Mittleren und Neuen Geschichte' (Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner), by means of folding sheets of which the wings (so to speak) are utilized as regular pages. The New World is neglected, except for the charts of discovery, and the three (on one page) exhibiting our Atlantic Coast down to 1763, the United States at the outbreak of secession, and since 1776. The present edition of this excellent work is the twenty-fifth, and revision has been extensive; nearly one hundred maps have been added.

The book-plate fraternity will not overlook Walter von Zur Westen's 'Exlibris (Bucheignerzeichen),' published by Velhagen & Klasing (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), one of the "Sammlung Illustrierter Monographien" of the Leipzig firm. It is profusely illustrated for all ages and countries, the author's own plate (at p. 49) being among the best—a satyr on a pile of lawbooks watering the roses that spring from their dusty leaves. North America is relegated to the very end, and gets a scant page. There is an index of designers and engravers. Many of the plates are full-page, some colored.

The public libraries of Chicago and Evanston, with two rather important exceptions, united in the compilation of a List of Serials, complete and current, which has just been published by the Chicago Library Club. It is brought down to the close of 1900, and embraces nearly 7,000 serials. "The unusually distinctive character of the larger libraries of the city," we read in the preface, "is shown by the comparatively small amount of duplication." Sixty-five per cent. of the total are to be found in only one library. The edition of this List is limited, but a few copies are obtainable, at $1.00 each, by addressing Mr. C. R. Perry, Chicago Public Library. It is gratifying to be able to add that this labor of love will be continued in an annual cumulative supplement by the John Crerar Library.

The Library of Congress has just assumed a function that rightfully belongs to it, namely, of effecting a great economy for all other libraries by furnishing "a copy or copies of any of the catalogue cards (a) which it is currently printing; (b) which it has heretofore printed, so far as copies of these can be supplied from stock." The Library has now within its walls a branch plant from the Government Printing-Office, and it is capable of meeting the demand for author cards without entailing any extra expense upon the cost of administration. The charge will be not more than two cents a card to subscribing libraries, in place of the average cost of from 25 to 35 cents per book. The library is now printing cards at the rate of 200 titles a day. In the case of copyrighted books, its early receipt of them enables it to list them in its Weekly Catalogue in time for checking and ordering the desired cards. In certain groups subject headings will be suggested upon the cards. Details of ordering, subscription, etc., are set forth in a circular dated October 28, 1901.

It is good news that the next edition of the 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual' will contain an index to the several catalogues which compose it. This index, based on the Annual of 1901, is already in a forward state of preparation, and will be completed by the new books of 1902 as soon as the later catalogues are available.

The third Bulletin of the Free Library of Philadelphia consists of Indexes to the First Lines and to the Subjects of the Poems of Robert Herrick, prepared by Mr. Richard E.

Wilson; and a glossary supplied by Mr. John Ashhurst—the whole under Mr. John Thomson's direction. This labor professes to have been undertaken primarily in the interest of librarians plagued with inquiries for poems remembered only by a (first) line; but it will serve other ends. Lines beginning with "God" fill two pages; those with "I" nearly as many, but we may not infer conceit from this, remembering the essential subjectivity of poetry. "Love" is rather seldom found at the fore, but "If," "What," and "When" are favorite openings.

The *Mayflower Descendant* (Boston) begins its projected *Mayflower* genealogies with "Stephen Hopkins and his Descendants" in the October number. The second, "George Soule and his Descendants," will, it is hoped, appear in the January number.

The proposed new German tariff is given in the Consular Reports for November, the tables showing also the present rates. From a comparison of these it appears that the duties on food products are about doubled, and this notwithstanding the fact that the number of persons in Germany engaged in agriculture has decreased in twenty years from 43 per cent. to 33 per cent., though the population has increased in the same time more than ten millions. Low average harvests are reported from the larger part of Europe, but in Portugal there has been such an exceptionally large vintage that a provisional suppression of the tax on internal consumption has been asked for in order to decrease the stock on hand and make room for the new wine. Among other subjects treated are the electrical high-speed and waste-heat auxiliary engine experiments at Berlin; and Chambers of Commerce in foreign countries. The United States have these now only in Paris and Brussels, and their establishment is recommended in all the great cities as being of "immense advantage in furthering the expansion of American commerce."

Seoul, once one of the filthiest cities in Asia, has so far made progress in the virtue which is next to godliness, under the direction of Koreans who have lived in Washington, that now the construction of a system of water works for the Korean capital is assured. The 659 hydrants, reservoir holding about 10,000,000 gallons, street mains, and crib in the River Han are to benefit especially the common people. The Emperor's fiftieth birthday, on August 7, was celebrated with national rejoicings, banquets, and music by the palace band, playing European instruments and music. A handsome Japanese post-office building was opened in Seoul on September 1. An important paper on the geographical and political aspects of the Seoul-Fusan Railway, which passes through the richest part of Korea—287 miles long, with forty stations—on which work has begun at both ends, and valuable chapters on Korean proverbs and mediæval history, with news notes, make attractive the September number of the *Korea Review*.

The Librarian of Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn., will be grateful to any reader of the *Nation* who can aid him in finding a copy of the following book: J. Carpentier, 'Histoire Généalogique de la très-ancienne et très-nobile famille de Herlin,' Leyden, 1669, folio.

—Dr. Richard Garnett's 'Essays of an Ex-Librarian' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) furnish some admirable examples of serious contemporary criticism. The essays on "The Poetry of Coleridge," "Beckford's Vathek," "Thomas Moore," "Thomas Love Peacock," and "Matthew Arnold" have served as introductions to reprints of the work of these authors. The fine texture and full color of the criticism in them are already known to many readers. Seven other papers—six reprinted from various periodicals, and one from the Warner Library—combine to give the collection readableness and distinction. The essay "On Translating Homer" affords some fine specimens of Homeric translation in a rather untrammelled, sonorous, and swift pentameter couplet. Metrically speaking, there are excellent grounds for Dr. Garnett's plea for the adoption of this form. It is, however, more likely to be successful in the translation of episodic selections from Homer than in a complete version. The clear metallic ring and endlessly echoing rhyme of Pope's couplets have so dinned our ears that it is exceedingly difficult to keep the singsong out of any long poetical composition in this form. Dr. Garnett has not always kept it out. There is even better poetry in his renderings of some remarkable Italian sonnets, in the sketch of "The Love Story of Luigi Tansillo." The range of scholarship which an "ex-Librarian" may possess is exhibited in a close historical criticism of "The Story of Gycia," sometime queen of the Chersonites; in a searching discussion of "The Date and Occasion of 'The Tempest'"; and in an unusually (in this decade) sensible and sympathetic study of Emerson. Not the least interesting essays in the volume are "Shelley and Lord Beaconsfield" and "Shelley's Views on Art." The well-known catholicity of Dr. Garnett's literary taste is displayed in the above titles. The soundness of his judgments may be felt by any one who will read his work in connection with that of almost any of the so-called "suggestive" critics. The 'Essays of an Ex-Librarian' are bookish essays of the best class, by a writer who is more than a bookman.

—One of the penalties of sudden literary fame, especially when it falls to a clergyman, is that he is asked to undertake work for which he has no special fitness. It was so with Dr. John Watson (Ian Maclaren), when he was asked to write the Life of Jesus, which is now republished by McClure, Phillips & Co. It is a far cry from Dr. Watson's 'Life of the Master' to the critical study of the Gospels in the 'Encyclopædia Biblica,' and it was hardly to be expected that Dr. Watson would adopt the results formulated in that study. Had he done so, it would have shortened his story by two-thirds of the three hundred pages that it covers. But he has simply parted company with the critics altogether, and his chapters are little more than a series of edifying homilies upon the life and character of Jesus. They smell of the lamp as they do not of Palestine. If easy writing makes hard reading, these labored paraphrases of the New Testament story should be easy reading. Yet they are not particularly so. An occasional critical judgment is convincing that Dr. Watson would not have been more helpful if he had been more critical. The colored illustrations are based on drawings made in Palestine. One fears that the exigencies of the process have accentuated certain colors at the expense of truth. Mr. Clifford Howard's 'Story of a Young Man' (L. C. Page & Co.) sins much more grossly than Dr. Watson's in the direction of rhetorical excess. The writer's dissatisfaction with the New Testament simplicity is shown by his attempt throughout to make a paraphrase of it in pretty words. He professes to have written a sketch of the human Jesus, but this does not imply any diminution of the miraculous element except as the story ends with the death of Jesus and does not include his resurrection.

—'The Fallen Stuarts,' by Mr. F. W. Head (Macmillan), is a dissertation which gained the Prince Consort prize at Cambridge, and has recently been published with some modifications of its original form. From the dethronement of James II. until after the Forty-five, the exiled Stuarts had a wide range of experience at the different courts of Europe, and were frequently a factor to be reckoned with by sovereigns and Prime Ministers. Taken alone, the title of this volume might mean almost anything, but Mr. Head's main subject is the part which was occupied by the later Stuarts in the wars and diplomacy of their period. The study is not in the least biographical or local. It is widely comparative, and the analysis of individual character plays a small part beside the development of international intrigue. Mr. Head takes care to explain that certain portions of his work represent original research, while others do not. "The plan adopted was to obtain, so far as may be, first-hand information for the occasions in which the Stuart House came prominently forward in the diplomacy and wars of the time. For the rest, I have tried to show how far the great courts of Europe were busy in different parts of the Continent, in order to explain why they made use of the fallen dynasty at the particular times that they did. But this has required the use of well-known authorities rather than original work." The most important source of information which has been employed is the correspondence of Cardinal Gualterio, the papal nuncio in Paris under Clement XI. This now belongs to the British Museum, and is undoubtedly an authority of high value. The numerous passages cited from it in the appendix (amounting altogether to thirty-five pages) show how varied are its contents, and how thoroughly it discloses the course of Stuart diplomacy in the days of James III. Mr. Head takes the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle as marking the close of Stuart influence upon the affairs of Europe. "Neither as Catholic, nor as Pretender, nor as tool against the naval tyranny of England, was there any hope for James or Charles Stuart after 1748." The chief interest of this essay lies, perhaps, in its illustration of the prominence which religious politics might assume as late as the eighteenth century. Viewed thus, the financial aspects of the Jacobite movement are worth examining. Mr. Head's investigations are of a kind to invite detailed comment. However, we can only say of his book that, besides embodying the results of faithful research, it is well arranged and well written.

—The contribution of the Latin Department to the Yale Bicentennial Publications ('On Principles and Methods in Latin Syntax,' by E. P. Morris; New York: Scribners) is a severe indictment of current methods

in the investigation of the principles of Latin syntax. Professor Morris contends, and with reason, that the "results" obtained by present methods are largely based upon assumptions either demonstrably false or, at any rate, incapable of proof. A presupposition of regularity and system has held sway over the minds of most students in a field where the regular is really the exceptional, and absence of system a fundamental characteristic. Livy, for instance, may express four successive acts, no one of more importance than another, by a *cum* clause, a perfect participle of a deponent verb, an ablative absolute, and an indicative; or, again, three entirely similar qualities may be described by an adjective, a genitive, and a relative clause. For convincing illustration of the predominance of the irregular in language, Professor Morris cites the masses of unclassifiable facts brought together in such works as Brugmann's 'Grundriss' and Lindsay's 'Latin Language.' The attempt to trace words and constructions back to their origins, as exemplified, for instance, in Bennett's Latin Grammar, has assumed an undue importance, the author thinks. "The origin of *an*, if it could be determined with considerable probability, would contribute but little towards the correct theory of the use of *an* in single and double questions." Amid the host of contemporaneous elements entering into linguistic structure at any given period, origins may count for very little. One goes astray in assuming for a group of apparently related phenomena a single definite germ. We must not expect to trace to a single original conception the various relations expressed in extant Latin by a case-ending or a mood form: the progress of language has been from the vague to the definite, not the reverse. Contrary to the usual assumption, inflectional terminations do not give definiteness to an inflected form; the ending is altogether vague, and the combination gets its measure of definiteness from the stem. With the same adjective termination, for instance, *Romanus* and *humanus* vary greatly in definiteness because of the difference in the stems. We have given enough illustrations, perhaps, to indicate the tendency of the book. The formulation of a system of syntactical principles is still impossible, we are told, because the principles are still so largely undiscovered. The book contains much in the way of positive suggestion towards the most promising methods for their discovery, and we predict for it a deep influence upon the work of American Latinists, however serious may be the dissent which many of its propositions are likely at first to call forth.

—Those who recollect the consternation with which well-born New Englanders heard that the President of their oldest historical society believed that John Winthrop and the other leaders in the founding of Massachusetts were no better, whether judged by moral or by intellectual standards, than Philip II. of Spain, can guess the feeling with which conservative Mexican scholars have received the publication, with the semi-official imprint of a Government press, of a work which shows that the conquerors of the Spanish-American empire were brutal and unprincipled rascals, a disgrace to civilization and a shame to their race. The author, Sr. D. Genaro Garcia, bears the name of one of the best families in Mexico, with a longer and not less worthy record than that of Adams in Massachusetts; and his volume, entitled 'Carácter de la Conquista Española' (Mexico: Oficina Tipográfica de la Secretaria de Fomento), is a most careful and scholarly attempt to throw light upon the real motives and character of the Conquistadores. In form it is a patchwork of extracts from the contemporary narratives embodying the evidence from which the author derives his opinions. Fortunately, Sr. Garcia possesses literary as well as historical instincts, and his work, although inevitably hard reading for those who are unaccustomed to the vagaries of sixteenth-century scribes and printers, is, despite its antiquated spellings and old-time phraseology, a surprisingly successful weaving together of the different accounts into a readable and coherent narrative of the events of the conquest of Spanish America, and especially of Mexico, as described by the men who knew the details at first hand. Sr. Garcia has very decided opinions, but he leaves the expression of them to those whom they most affect. Out of their own mouths he convicts the soldiers, priests, and administrators who gave to Spain her power in America, of revolting and reckless disregard of everything that ought to characterize civilized men in their dealings with what we call the inferior races. Naturally, such an attack upon the fair fame of the heroes of Spanish America could not pass unchallenged. Several eminent Mexican writers rallied promptly to the defence of the accepted version of their history, and replies and counter-attacks have followed. Out of it all comes one very promising result. Sr. Garcia has joined with another of the younger school of Mexican historians, Sr. D. Luis Gonzalez Obregon, in establishing a *Boletin Historico Mexicano*, in which they promise to print, in addition to their contributions to the discussion, the original narratives and documentary sources, accurately and without abridgment. They will begin with a new edition of Bernal Diaz's 'Verdadera Historia,' of which they have secured a fresh transcript from the author's manuscript, still preserved in Guatemala.

AULARD'S POLITICAL HISTORY OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

Histoire Politique de la Révolution Française. Origines et Développement de la Démocratie et de la République (1789-1804). Par A. Aulard. Paris: Armand Colin. 1901.

Every one who attempts to write an important work upon a period or a movement of modern times is sore beset by the bulk of his materials. He has one hard problem in choosing what he shall read, but it is less critical than the other problem of choosing what he shall present after his twenty years of research are ended. Mr. Charles Francis Adams has expressed his views regarding the limitations which are placed upon the modern historian, and the way in which the best results can be secured. The scholar who is preparing for his great book should explore the inner recesses of his subject, publishing from time to time critical essays or monographs on special topics. Then, after he has finished his preparation, let him offer to the public in concise form, and without parade of intermediate processes, the fruit of all his diligence. His mature opinion, his summing-up, after he has mastered a certain portion of history, will be his profitable addition to existing literature.

We mention this standard because M. Aulard can fairly claim to be tried by it. No movement in ancient or modern times has been the theme of so many books as the French Revolution. Even if we accept the dates taken in the present volume, 1789-1804, and leave aside the military annals of the Empire, it embraces such an enormous amount of writing that first-hand investigation at every point becomes a task beyond human attainment. M. Aulard has therefore confined himself to the political progress of France from the meeting of the States-General to the end of the Consulate. 'L'histoire économique et sociale de la Révolution est dispersée en tant de sources qu'il est actuellement impossible, dans le cours d'une vie d'homme, de les aborder toutes ou même d'en aborder les principales." But while the social and economic aspects of the Revolution are thus baffling to the historian who uses only original authorities, the course of politics can be followed out by one man, if, like M. Aulard, he be a giant of industry.

"J'ai commencé, en 1879, par étudier les discours des orateurs, et, depuis quinze ans, dans mon cours à la Sorbonne, j'ai étudié les institutions, les partis, la vie des grands individus. J'ai donc eu le temps matériel d'explorer les sources de mon sujet. Si la forme de ce livre sent l'improvisation, mes recherches ont été lentes, et je les crois complètes dans l'ensemble. Je ne pense pas avoir omis une source importante, ni avoir émis une seule assertion qui ne soit directement tirée des sources."

The last statement is a bold blast, but it is not boastfully intended, nor will it seem incredible to those who have for years watched the editorial labors of M. Aulard and his frequent articles. He makes no secret of thinking his "documentation" perfect, and probably no man of our age is so well equipped by knowledge to sketch the political history of the French Revolution. His chapters in the 'Histoire Générale' have already extended his reputation beyond France, and paved a way for the volume in which he gives, without a show of pedantry or effort, the results of his long reading.

Like Mignet, Louis Blanc, Thiers, Lamartine, Carlyle, Taine, Sybel, and all the others, M. Aulard has his point of view and his method. Or, rather, his method is that which every critical historian of our day seeks to observe. He makes an honest and impartial study of the texts the groundwork of his opinions, and keeps his personal preferences out of sight, so that he can concludes his preface with such words as these: "Quant à l'état d'esprit où je me suis trouvé en écrivant ce livre, je dirai seulement que j'ai voulu, dans la mesure de mes forces, faire œuvre d'historien, et non pas plaider une thèse. J'ai l'ambition que mon travail puisse être considéré comme un exemple d'application de la méthode historique à l'étude d'une époque défigurée par la passion et par la légende." To have worked since 1879 on the French Revolution without meeting views which one would take pleasure in confuting would be an unheard-of experience, and M. Aulard holds strong opinions. Yet we have seldom found him departing from a tone of strict impartiality towards individuals. By way of ex-

ception, he alludes sharply, on page 46, to Saint-René Taillandier's 'Les Renégats de 1789,' and on page 115 he says that the criticism of the Constitution which Louis XVI. drew up after his return from Varennes was much more subtle than Taine's.

M. Aulard sympathizes with the ideals of the Revolution, and is attached to the aims which are foreshadowed in the Declaration of Rights. The Revolution, properly defined, is the endeavor to secure equality of rights and national sovereignty. On the 4th of August, 1789, after the *séance royale* and the storming of the Bastille had laid bare the weakness of the crown, the whole feudal fabric was destroyed by the abolition of privileges. During the construction of the new state, the two principles of equal rights and national sovereignty were more often invoked than any others. Voltaire used the words democracy and republic as though they were synonymous. M. Aulard distinguishes sharply between them. He associates "democracy" with the idea of equal rights, and "republic" with the idea of national sovereignty. Neither of the two conceptions was realized at once—that is, in the autumn of 1789—for the Constituent Assembly required a property qualification from voters, and stopped short when it had changed an absolute into a limited monarchy. The political history of the Revolution is, according to M. Aulard, the story of the vicissitudes through which the principles of equal rights and the principle of national sovereignty passed between the meeting of the States-General and the establishment of the Empire. His division of these fifteen years is conformed to four separate stages in the development of the democracy and the republic. The first covers the period of the Constituent and Legislative Assemblies, when the democratic and republican party was being formed. The second coincides with the sessions of the National Convention, when the Monarchy was overthrown by the Republic and the true spirit of the Revolution triumphed over the obstacles erected by the Constitution of 1791. The third is the age of the Directory and of the bourgeois Republic. The fourth is the period of the Consulate, which M. Aulard terms "le république plébiscitaire." There are no digressions into the social, economic, or military history of the Revolution, and one seeks in vain for any love of picturesque events. The storming of the Bastille is simply an affair which had profound political consequences, the march to Versailles is dismissed with two lines, and the *coup d'état* of Brumaire is described with the same baldness which the London *Times* observes in reporting a common burglary or murder.

By far the greater part of M. Aulard's work is occupied with an account of the changes through which the Revolution ran prior to the beginning of the Directory. Indeed, the interest centres in the years 1792-95, or between the suspension of the King on the 10th of August and the repeal of universal suffrage. The Constituent Assembly and the National Convention stand for such different conceptions of the political *summum bonum* that we are led to ask how M. Aulard regards each, in itself and in its relation to the progress of the Revolution. He applauds the Convention rather than the Constituent. The men of 1789 failed to grasp the meaning of the forces which they aroused, or, worse still, they played false with their avowed principles. While they professed the most democratic sentiments, they distrusted the common man, and, by drawing their false distinction between active and passive citizens, they gave the lie to the Declaration of Rights. They acted behind a veil, and it was the boast of radical orators that they would tear away this emblem of bourgeois selfishness. The rapid spread of democratic doctrines among the masses through the clubs and by the newspapers brought the middle class face to face with a fact which its representatives in the Constituent unduly neglected. The folly and bad faith of Louis XVI. prevented the creation of a strong national monarchy. The bourgeoisie hastened to snatch political privilege for itself. The masses were at the same moment stirred by the fierce onset of events and by the proclamation of equality. Accordingly, the legislation of the Constituent was but a stop-gap, and for M. Aulard's purpose the main fact of this opening era was the rise of a democratic party which refused to be satisfied with limited citizenship and unequal rights.

Nevertheless, the cry for a republic was not raised until a surprisingly late date. M. Aulard distinguishes between republican sentiment of a loose kind and an active propaganda. He claims to have investigated the matter minutely, and he can find no trace of a republican sect or group when the Revolution began. There were those who felt stirred by republican aspirations, but they believed that the dimensions of France excluded her from comparison with the city states of Greece and mediæval Italy. The Monarchy, too, had always been associated with the rise of the nation, and the embryo republicans were all nationalists. Camille Desmoulins was an avowed republican of the theoretical stamp before Robespierre or any other prominent leader declared against the monarchical régime. However, he stood alone, and not till the autumn of 1790 did a republican party come into existence. It was small at first, and somewhat obscure until the flight to Varennes brought it recruits. Even after the war with Austria broke out in 1792, the destruction of the throne was not a certainty.

Measured by M. Aulard's conception, the 10th of August was the culminating day of the Revolution, for universal suffrage was then decreed, and, on the suspension of Louis XVI., monarchy was virtually abolished in favor of the Republic. The lines of equal rights and national sovereignty converge to the summer of 1792, and then the Republic enters at birth upon its struggle with Europe and the royalist districts of France. Although the Girondists disavowed all share in the scheme for establishing federalism, they were thought to accept it privately, and after their arrest nearly two-thirds of the departments rose against Paris, the Convention, and a system of centralization which reduced them for a time to nothingness. M. Aulard defends the Terrorists against the charge of having deserted the Declaration of Rights when they violated the liberty of the press, private freedom, and the principle of popular election. He recalls the critical circumstances of 1793, and praises the Convention more for having proclaimed liberty of conscience, and separated Church from State, than he blames it for having resorted to emergency measures. A passage from his criticism of the Terror will go far towards showing the trend of the whole book:

"Les chefs de ce gouvernement violèrent souvent le principe de la liberté individuelle; ils firent couler le sang; ils persécutèrent des Français; ils étouffèrent la liberté de la presse; ils établirent une dictature tyrannique; ils en vinrent, ces démocrates, à supprimer presque toutes les élections populaires. Mais ils ne se résignèrent à ces violences que forcés par les événements, que pour amener le triomphe ultérieur de ces principes de 1789 dont l'Europe monarchique poursuivait la ruine. . . . Cette victoire une fois remportée, ils avaient tous l'intention, qu'ils annonçaient sans cesse, de faire le contraire de ce qu'ils firent en l'an II., c'est à dire d'organiser la démocratie républicaine dans la liberté, l'égalité et la fraternité. Les plus violents d'entre eux s'accordèrent à présenter à l'opinion ce régime terroriste comme un expédient provisoire."

Into M. Aulard's history of the Directory and Consulate we are unable to enter, but we can, at least, present one or two of the general statements regarding the Revolution which he places at the end of his last chapter. The Revolution, he thinks, was not caused by any individual hero, by Mirabeau, Danton, or Robespierre. It was largely anonymous, or one can better say that the French nation was the hero. The personnel of the period—Mirabeau perhaps excepted—was not higher than that of political life in France to-day, and the decline of talent after the Terror was an accident which assisted Bonaparte. The secret of his success was the imperfect education of the French. They were not far enough advanced to exercise their sovereignty. The leaders of the Convention saw this, and instruction of the people was their programme. Napoleon, on the contrary, feared the spirit of enlightenment, and as despot did all in his power to retard it. Yet, despite the imperial reaction which abolished liberty for the time, and equality in part, the social effects of the Revolution remained and were diffused through Europe. "Et c'est ce qui explique qu'après sa chute, quand ses résultats furent contestés par les royalistes revenus d'émigration, ce Napoléon Bonaparte qui avait désorganisé l'œuvre politique de la Révolution autant qu'il l'avait pu, parut être et put se dire l'homme de la Révolution."

M. Aulard's 'Histoire Politique' equals a volume of the 'Histoire Générale' in size and length. We have accordingly touched the fringe of it, and no more. It, in turn, touches only the most important subjects among thousands which the study of the French Revolution suggests and involves. M. Aulard, having devoted years of unstinted labor to the political history of the movement, selects its two largest aspects, and keeps them before him from first to last. The book is finely proportioned, and in learning it is the work of a master. Its attitude towards the political problems of the Revolution will not appeal to every one. For ourselves, we must avow a higher admiration of the Constituent than M. Aulard professes. But he cannot be taxed with the vice of special pleading, and he rightly depicts the Revolution in the light of accomplishment rather than of failure.

BROWNELL'S FRENCH ART.

French Art: Classic and Contemporary Painting and Sculpture. By W. C. Brownell. New and enlarged edition, with

forty-eight illustrations. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

We reviewed this book at some length upon its first appearance, and while combating some of its doctrines, and pointing out what we conceived to be its errors of judgment, endeavored to do justice to its quality as a dignified and subtle piece of criticism and a valuable addition to the literature of art. Apart from its enlarged and handsomer form and the presence of illustrations, the interest for us of the present edition is in what the author, after nine years, has chosen to add and not to add; and the light these things throw upon his point of view.

What he has added is a supplementary chapter entirely devoted to Rodin, who had already been treated with an enthusiasm in somewhat marked contrast with the cool and analytical manner of the rest of the book. The result is a curious disproportion in what purports to be a general work, and this disproportion is clearly marked in the list of illustrations. Twenty-seven plates suffice to illustrate the whole of French painting, while thirteen are made to cover the whole of French sculpture from Claux Sluters to Rodin, no artist having more than one work reproduced. With the advent of "the new movement in sculpture" all is changed. There is one plate after Aubé, there are two after Dalou, and no less than five illustrate the work of Rodin himself. To put it arithmetically, the importance of the "new movement" to the importance of the whole of French sculpture outside it is as 8 to 13, while the importance of Rodin is to the importance of all other French sculptors together as is 5 to 16. The number of pages of text devoted to the "new movement" and to the older sculpture gives a still more startling ratio. By this test the importance of the "new movement" is to the importance of all earlier works as is 52 to 49, and the importance of the work of Rodin to the importance of all other French sculpture together is as 44 to 57! At this rate one begins to feel that the book might be properly entitled 'French Art—Especially Rodin.'

On the other hand, Mr. Brownell has nothing whatever to add to his account of French painting, saying: "Except in sculpture, and in the sculpture of Rodin and that more or less directly influenced by him, there has been no new phase of French art developed within the decade—at least none important enough to impose other additions to the text of a work so general in character." The last chapter of the section of this book which deals with painting is devoted to "Realistic Painting," and one of the last artists dealt with is Claude Monet. Now it is perhaps true that no new and important phase of French painting has been developed since Monet, or no new phase of which the importance can, as yet, be measured; but it seems to us that French painting, of recent years, has shown a decided reaction against Monet, and a reaction the direction of which can be partially ascertained; and that the direction of that reaction does not bear out the prophecies for the future with which Mr. Brownell closed his account of French painting nine years ago.

We gave, in our review of the first edition of 'French Art,' our reasons for thinking that Mr. Brownell had not entirely comprehended the true nature of the revolution wrought in the methods of painting by Claude Monet, and that he overrated the novelty of some aspects of Monet's practice. We are still of that opinion, but—a more important matter—we think that these last years have clearly proved that he overrated, also, the intrinsic importance and the permanence of the impressionistic revolution. Monet is, as Mr. Brownell clearly recognizes, the latest in a series of naturalists—a series that begins, if you like, with Courbet, and includes Manet and Bastien; and Monet's contribution to art is really a contribution to science—to the science of visible aspects. This, we say, Mr. Brownell clearly recognizes, and he therefore sees that "whatever the painting of the future is to be, it is certain not to be the painting of Monet," because art cannot permanently rest in the scientific alone, but must "again become creative, constructive, personally expressive." Yet he thinks that Monet's method must to some extent be followed.

"No one hereafter," he says, "who attempts the representation of Nature—and, so far ahead as we can see with any confidence, the representation of Nature . . . will increasingly intrench itself as the painter's true aim—no one who seriously attempts to realize this aim of now universal appeal will be able to dispense with Monet's aid. He must perforce follow the lines laid down for him by this astonishing naturalist. Any other course must result in solecism; and if anything future is certain, it is certain that the future will be not only inhospitable to, but absolutely intolerant of, solecism."

He even hints that "the future is pregnant with some genius that will out-Monet Monet, and that painting will have to submit hereafter to a still more rigorous standard than it does at present"—suggesting "the claims of binocular vision."

What light has the experience of ten years past thrown upon the truth of these prophecies? It is notorious that the visible influence of Monet has almost entirely disappeared from the walls of French exhibitions, and even from our own; that today Whistler is infinitely more influential than Monet; that blackness rather than light is the fancy of the hour, and that "tone" is elevated to the position of the one thing needful. Whistler's principles and practice have ever been purely æsthetic, ever anti-scientific; and Whistler is the hero of the day. We do not believe that the Whistlerian gospel, any more than the gospel according to Monet, will prove permanent—both are phases of the restlessness and the experimental temper of modern art; but the suddenness and the completeness of the reversal are certainly significant. What we believe them to signify is, that the long reign of naturalism is at last at an end; that photography and Bastien-Lepage have at last taught us that the representation of Nature is *not* the painter's true aim; that "solecism" will not be the bugbear of the painter of the future. When the dust of the battle of the "movements" has cleared away, we believe it will be found that the great painters of the latter part of the nineteenth century are not the Manets and the Monets and other semi-scientific experimenters, but Corot and Millet, Rossetti and Watts and Böcklin, and our own LaFarge—men who have been content, outside of all schools and movements, to create something beautiful, or to express something significant, using just so much science and so much Nature as they found fitted to their ends, and no more.

Mr. Brownell takes great pains to explain style and to be just to the classic spirit, but we think it is evident that he takes so much pains precisely because he is naturally unsympathetic to stylistic and classical art. He is distinctly cool toward Ingres, and admits Baudry to serious rank only on account of the opinions of others. He tries to be fair to Paul Dubois, but it goes against the grain. As painting and sculpture become, first more romantic, and then more naturalistic, he becomes more at ease with them and more enthusiastic, and when he reaches Monet, he thinks a basis for all future painting has been established. Rodin is an absolute realist in theory, and in practice a prodigious modeller of the *morceau*; a master of anatomy, with occasional starts of Romanticism *à outrance*, which lead to formless attempts at pure expression, like his "Balzac." Therefore, to Mr. Brownell, his work is worth all the rest of French sculpture together.

No one has written better of French art than Mr. Brownell, or has seen more clearly the fundamental importance in that art of the sense of form and measure; the desire of style; the classic spirit. Yet this admirable analysis of the nature of French art seems to have been written by a critic whose personal sympathy is with everything in that art which is least French.

The Wessex of Thomas Hardy. Written by Bertram C. A. Windle, F.R.S., F.S.A. Illustrated by Edmund H. New. John Lane. [1901.]

Travels Round Our Village. By E. G. Hayden. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. [1901.]

The topography of Mr. Hardy's novels has long been a favorite theme of magazine articles. His works are especially likely to allure the curious to such an inquiry because his fictitious names of places have just enough basis in fact to make their identification a pleasing exercise, while the research involves a number of agreeable excursions in a region of England little known to the tourist, and possessing certain peculiar and striking features. Mr. Hardy has recognized and made concessions to his readers' curiosity in his Wessex maps, such as were printed at the end of the 'Well-Beloved'; and in his preface to the last edition of 'Tess' he tells us that—

"the description of these backgrounds . . . has been drawn from the real. . . . In planning the stories, the idea was that large towns and points tending to mark the outline of Wessex, such as Bath, Plymouth, the Start, Portland Bill, Southampton, should be named outright. The scheme was not greatly elaborated, but, whatever its value, the names remain still. In respect of places described under fictitious or ancient names—for reasons that seemed good at the time of writing—discerning persons have affirmed in print that they clearly recognize the originals; I shall not be the one to contradict them; I accept their statements as at least an indication of their real and kindly interest in the scenes."

Some men impose phrases on the world; Mr. Hardy has imposed a geography of his

own. The whole of southern England has fallen under his spell. He has, as it were, recreated the old kingdom of Wessex; before his novels the name was confined to the vocabulary of antiquarians; to-day we are all familiar with such phrases as "a Wessex custom," "a Wessex peasant," so that "the dream-country has, by degrees, solidified into a utilitarian region which people can go to, take a house in, and write to the papers from."

There will always be some difference of opinion as to Mr. Hardy's power to represent faithfully the English yokel as he lives and, above all, talks; his touch of the fantastic, here, now and again, leads Mr. Hardy astray. But no writer of fiction has ever surpassed him in ability to call up vividly before his readers certain haunting types of scenery, such as "the swarthy and abrupt slopes of Egdon Heath," which he loves even better than the fertile valleys around it.

"To recline on a stump of thorn in the central valley of Egdon, between afternoon and night, where the eye could reach nothing of the world outside the summits and shoulders of heath land which filled the whole circumference of its glance, and to know that everything around and underneath had been from prehistoric times as unaltered as the stars overhead, gave ballast to the mind adrift on change and harassed by the irrepressible new. . . . Who can say of a particular sea that it is old? Distilled by the sun, kneaded by the moon, it is renewed in a year, in a day, or in an hour. The sea changed, the fields changed, the rivers, the villages, and the people changed, yet Egdon remained."

Though he gives us now and again smug smiling valleys with lush grass, countless cattle, and rosy dairy-maids, Mr. Hardy is more at home in the stony Isle of Slingers, or in those strange earthworks that abound in Dorset, which he makes the background for the gloomy side of Wessex life.

Mr. Windle's tours in Wessex took as their basis Casterbridge, known on the ordinary map as Dorchester. Starting thence in all directions, he tracks the roads, villages, inns, and manor-houses that Mr. Hardy had in mind—the names he finds are often hardly changed at all. Mr. New's beautiful drawings reproduce the charm, often of a sombre kind, that haunts these wide downs with their Saxon barrows. He is one of the younger generation of illustrators whose work is known as that of the "Birmingham school," deeply influenced by William Morris. His work is accordingly more decorative and conventional and consequently more severe than that of such illustrators as Pennell or Railton, and to the untrained eye seems over severe. But no one could have been better chosen to reproduce the scenery of Wessex, and the architecture of the old Jacobean mansions and older churches that adorn that region. Mr. Windle is a Fellow of the Society of Antiquarians as well as of the Royal Society, and it is seldom that a novelist finds so distinguished a devotee to expound his geography and antiquities. The book is one that will delight all antiquarians, and especially those who love rural England and the novels of Thomas Hardy.

The scene of Miss Hayden's studies in village life is laid in Wessex. The name of the village is not given, but the description of its surroundings and inhabitants would fit almost any Wiltshire or Dorsetshire hamlet. Miss Hayden's sketches are devoted to certain village types, and the tales of their struggling lives are pathetic and interesting. Her book reminds one continually of those articles on country life that are so dear to readers of the *Spectator*, and some of them are reprinted from that review. The attitude of the Wessex peasant to the Boer war which he so little understands, his helplessness and pathetic, because misplaced, reliance on "the Government," his weary and rheumatic old age maintained on two shillings a week and two loaves of bread, the hopeless atrophy of agriculture—all these features of that English peasant life which varies so little from Land's End to John o' Groat's, are faithfully reproduced by Miss Hayden, who writes with some humor and a pleasant style. Her recipes for Old-English dishes and wines will not appeal to the American palate, and the book as a whole is likely to have more circulation in England than here. The illustrations are decidedly poor, though here and there we have noted an exception.

The Print-Collector's Handbook. By Alfred Whitman. London: G. Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1901.

Printer and publisher have done their best to give this book an attractive setting; heavy paper, large, clear type, ample margins, full-page illustrations, attest the appeal made to the eye of the connoisseur in book-making. It was, however, with some curiosity, after the first brief glance over its pages, that we turned to the preface for a hint as to just the class of readers the book was intended to reach. The first lines state that it is meant for beginners in print-collecting, but also that it hopes to satisfy "those who have devoted some time and attention to the pursuit of their hobby." It is divided into ten chapters, seven of which deal with processes, masters, and famous examples of engraving, one with the money value of prints—in its place an instructive and readable catalogue—one with the resources of the British Museum, and one with methods of housing a collection of prints. These titles stamp the work as eminently practical in its design; it is not a history of engraving, nor to any considerable extent a criticism of the relative merits of schools, masters, or methods. The author conceals in great measure his personal preferences.

The advice which is given in the first chapter, "Hints to Beginners," is excellent, and is developed in logical sequence; but it would seem as if the bulk of the information must have been already acquired by any one determined to be a print-collector, in the inevitable visits to print-shops before the determination had been reached; whereas the one great difficulty which confronts the collector of considerable experience even, the selection of the best impression, or the original impression as against the restrike, is so inadequately treated as to leave the beginner with his perplexity scarcely diminished. Surely this treatment could have been improved, and made an actual help to the collector by specific illustration. Then, amid the warnings against traps for the unwary scattered through this first chapter, and given a special place at the end of the chapter on color-prints, we fail to find anything about the one which claims possibly the greatest number of victims, the commercial device known as the "signed proof." It began with etchings, but has now been extended to lithographs, wood-engravings, color-prints, drypoints, mezzotints, photogravures, and even half-tone engravings; and the only reason why it is not found on line and stipple engravings is, that when these processes were most in vogue, the device had not been invented even for etching. This device of the signature was supposed to furnish the buyer with a visible guarantee that his proof was one of the earliest pulled from the plate, or at least one which the artist considered a thoroughly satisfactory impression of his work in its best state. Yet few collectors have made much progress in acquiring prints that date no further back than 1860, without becoming aware that in many cases unsigned impressions are earlier and better than the signed and "remarqued" impressions in the hands of dealers. The writer remembers still the look on the face of an American etcher, whose plate had been sold to a dealer, when the eight-hundredth proof was sent in for signature, which was duly affixed with an exclamation that need not be repeated here, since it would open up a phase of the subject not now under discussion.

The plain conclusion of all such warnings is, that until the amateur has acquainted himself with the history of the individual plate, and gained a precision of judgment that enables him to determine the quality of an impression on its own merits, independent of such factitious aids as signatures, remarques, lettering, and the like, he is more or less in bondage to those devices which often ensnare the expert. The owner of that eight-hundredth proof may not have been so much worse off than his neighbor with the six-hundredth, but what value did the purchasers of sundry impressions from an actually ruined plate receive, all of which were duly signed and exposed in print-shops a few years ago? Our author's protest against so-called "states," which are really "progress proofs," has been made before, and will bear repeating again and again. In connection with it a warning might have been added against that not infrequent alteration of states which consists in rubbing out the indication of one, and substituting another that may be considered more desirable. Here again knowledge of the plate is the single safeguard against deception. This can be obtained in most cases only from long and careful study in museums, or from accurate *catalogues raisonnés*. Such suggestion is, indeed, made in the pages of the first chapter, but what valid excuse can be brought for the omission of anything like a bibliography from a handbook for beginners? Is it really a hand-book without this indispensable sign-post?

The second chapter, on "Etching," contains references to Hamerton, Binyon, and Wedmore, with mention of two catalogues of Rembrandt's etchings. The third chapter, on "Line Engraving," refers to Cust's 'Dürer Prints,' while Bartsch's name appears occasionally, and Mrs. Frankau's monograph on eighteenth-century color-prints winds up the list of designated authorities—a brevity hardly stimulating to the beginner. Nor do these chapters lead him far into a knowledge of the technical processes of the various kinds of engraving. The "pin and candle" illus-

tration does not explain very thoroughly the action of a tool upon metal, a matter of prime importance, though the enlarged illustrations (which are, by the way, the most valuable in the book) do something towards remedying this defect.

Both the beginner and the amateur of experience will find a certain consolation for the deficiencies that have been noted, in the admirable descriptions of those particular qualities in the prints selected for illustration which rightfully arouse the enthusiasm of the lover of the art. These terse characterizations, woven into the threads of an equally succinct narrative of the historical development of engraving, form, together with the chapter on the money value of prints, the real stuff of the book, and may well inspire the beginner to pursue the paths marked out for him, with just expectation of increasing pleasure.

Of the illustrations we cannot speak with like commendation. The selection may be passed over, as the reason for giving the largest number to mezzotint is sufficiently clear. The enlargements have already been noticed with approval; the collotype renders fairly well the general effect of stipple and mezzotint engraving, without reaching in any way the *quality* of the original; it is even better for lithographs. But what is to be said of the ordinary half-tone, in which method nearly seven-eighths of the illustrations are reproduced? The author, it is true, makes an apology for them on page 15, but the implied contention that the use of such reproductions will help to answer any of the questions put by the would-be collector, is utterly futile—barring, of course, the elementary one of composition. This, in more than half the examples given, belongs not to the engraver but to the painter whose work the former interprets. The purpose of merely suggesting the composition would have been attained more directly, if the half-tones had to be used, by inserting them in the text on a smaller scale, to the greater convenience in handling, since the brief text is now overwhelmed and hidden by the mass of unserviceable illustration.

In 1880 Georges Duplessis published his popular history of engraving in a small quarto volume of 578 pages, adorned with just about the same number of illustrations (73) as that contained in Mr. Whitman's handbook; the price was also about the same. Most of these illustrations were done by the well-known Amand-Durand process. It is hardly too much to say that almost any one of these would be of greater service to the beginner than the whole batch of half-tones in the Handbook. Mr. Whitman would be, we fancy, the last person to deny this, and we can only regret that his publishers failed by overmuch material decoration to make his work what it professes to be—a handbook. Doubtless the English collector is a very different being from the French and German student, and must be trained by different methods, but we cannot help feeling that the modest work of Lippmann, with its 110 illustrations, sold at the Berlin Museum for seventy-two cents, has fostered an interest in engraving quite as far-reaching as that which will attend the use of the present work; if for no other reason than the practical one that it slips easily into the pocket.

Wild Life Near Home. By Dallas Lore Sharp. With illustrations by Bruce Horsfall. The Century Co. 1901.

This book, made up of original field observations interpreted by a broad knowledge of biology, and graced by sentiment that does not outrage science, deserves to be singled out from the work of mere compilers and of enthusiasts who, intoxicated with country air, write what they feel instead of what they see. Mr. Sharp's sketches treat principally of the habits of birds and mammals, but also include those of certain reptiles, amphibians, and fish, thus embracing some types of all the groups of vertebrate animals. The text is illustrated by cuts that have happily caught the characteristic attitudes and diagnostic markings of their subjects. Altogether, the book gives somewhat the same kind of sound and entertaining instruction about these animals that the work of the late Hamilton Gibson gives about plants and insects; though it is less valuable from the purely artistic standpoint, and, owing to occasional carelessness of style, perhaps also from the literary. It is unusually free from errors. The so-called "freezing" of crows' eyes, however, is really the effect of a germ disease, and the discovery of a nesting winter wren in Southern New Jersey seems unaccountable.

About a third of the space is devoted to birds. Mr. Sharp does not isolate them from their natural setting, but tells where to find them, and treats of their relations to other animals and to their surroundings. He believes that the encroachments of civilization on rural neighborhoods and wilder regions do not necessarily banish birds, but that most birds have adopted man and seek his vicinity, forsaking deep woods to build along cart paths, in orchards, and sometimes even in street railway poles. He has a pleasant chapter on bird morals vs. the Ninth Commandment, describing various deceptive actions by which parents try to protect their nest.

"In the pines at this season one never gets nearer a jay than field-glass range—near enough to hear him dash away, screeching defiance. But here were these two gliding among the branches above my head as cautiously and softly as cuckoos, searching apparently for grubs, yet keeping all the time to the one spot. . . . At this juncture, I chanced to move my feet. The birds stopped instantly; but on my becoming quiet, they went on scattering the needles and bark chips again. Then I raised my glass. They paused for a second, and continued, though now I saw that their picking was all at random, hitting the limb or not as might be. They were not hunting grubs; they were watching me; and more—they were keeping me watching them.

"It was a clever little ruse. But it was too good, too new, too unjaylike for my faith. There was a nest against one of these pines. . . ."

The chapter on the buzzard is a contribution to exact knowledge of this bird's habits. It contains a study of buzzards seen at their worst and at their best: scuffling clumsily together over the fragments of an unclean feast, and wheeling through the upper air in majestic flight.

Mr. Sharp's sympathy with animals, and his sensitiveness to the aspects of inanimate nature, which is evident though not obtrusive, are intertwined. A stormy winter twilight in the fields is made more dreary by the procession of crows beating wearily over to spend the bitter night in their pine roost, or by a solitary quail signalling to reassemble what may be left of the covey after a day's shooting. The strangeness that touches even familiar things under the moonlight and shadow of an October night is deepened by rustling and footsteps of wild creatures astir, and March is transformed by the voice of the earliest frog.

"For me there is no clearer call in all the year than that of the hylas in the break-up days of March. The sap begins to start in my roots at the first peep. There is something in their brave little summons, as there is in the silvery light on the pussy willows, that takes hold on my hope and courage, and makes the March mud good to tramp through."

The book makes a good plea for interest in animals less attractive than birds. One sketch describes the lizard Sceloporus as it appears in the pine barrens of Southern New Jersey, an alert and not unfriendly little beast, pleasing in spite of its scales and reptile head. This is the best chapter on the lower vertebrates, as the sketches of the rabbit and the muskrat are on the higher. Mr. Sharp may not look into the souls of animals as Mr. Seton-Thompson does, but he writes in a straightforward, convincing fashion. He shows the rabbits threading their labyrinth of roads, couched in their lonely "forms," and playing at night in a clover field; and tells how he saw one mother defending her young from a cat by flashing blows dealt from her powerful hind feet as she bounded back and forth over his body. A little scene odd enough to be remembered shows several muskrats at supper one bright November night, on the edge of a pond containing a village of six domes. After a course of fresh-water mussels from the bottom of a deep pool, they brought from the meadow great mouthfuls of the mud-bleached ends of calamus stalks, and, climbing upon a bit of plank against the shore, proceeded to wash them for a salad. It was a pretty sight, the author says, to see the little fellows humped on the edge of their plank, sousing the calamus blade by blade in the moonlit water, and scrubbing it clean with their paws.

Thoreau says, in reference to learning the art of seeing, that if you wish to find arrow-heads you must "think arrow-heads" before you can distinguish them among the stones of the ploughed field. Mr. Sharp's descriptions ought to give an attentive reader images so clear that he will be able to "think" these common wild neighbors and recognize many of them when he meets them in the field.

The Stars: A Study of the Universe. By Simon Newcomb. London: John Murray; New York: Putnams. 1901.

Professor Cattell, editor of "The Science Series," in which 'The Stars' forms No. 9, could have made no choice of a writer on this most comprehensive of subjects better fitted than Professor Newcomb, whose life has mainly been spent in the study of these bodies. His book is well worth reading. Yet, past master that he is, he has found the task far from easy, so complex and extensive is the general field of inquiry, and so wide-scattered through endless volumes of periodicals in a half-dozen languages are the original investigations that must be critically searched.

While Professor Newcomb may be quite candid in saying that he has failed to sur-

mount these difficulties satisfactorily to himself, his shortcomings are far from obvious and abundant. One great charm of his book, especially to the investigator, is that he so often supplements the theories and researches of others by most valuable criticism, estimates, and suggestions of his own. Of the distribution of the stars in space, perhaps the most intricate problem of all, he says (p. 318):

"One reflection may occur to the thinking reader, as he sees these reasons for deeming our position in the universe to be a central one. Ptolemy showed by evidence which, from his standpoint, looked as sound as that which we have cited, that the earth was fixed in the centre of the universe. May we not be the victims of some fallacy, as he was?"

Professor Newcomb gives much attention to the labors of Sir John Herschel at the Cape of Good Hope, and not less to the later Americans, Gillis and Gould. To the last he assigns highest rank as the "father of modern American astronomy." His 'Uranometria Argentina,' now nearly a quarter century old, is a masterpiece of science. The unflagging energies of Sir David Gill, his Majesty's astronomer at the Cape, have raised the Royal Observatory there to the first rank; and modern stellar astronomy, in especial that of the southern celestial hemisphere, has been most significantly advanced by his labors. Within recent years, while his unequalled researches into the distances of the stars and their positions on the celestial vault have been vigorously prosecuted, he has undertaken, also, with the able coöperation of Mr. Frank McClean, a spectroscopic census of all the bodies that are beyond the effective reach of the more abundant northern instruments. The work, too, has been carried on in such fashion as to supplement in an important degree the equally valuable and highly accurate work of the most active American observatories—Harvard, under Pickering's, and the Lick, now under Campbell's capable direction.

Careful readers of 'The Stars' will not omit to thank Professor Campbell for his generous contribution to the embellishment of this important volume in the late Professor Keeler's marvellous photograph of the trifid nebula in Sagittarius, taken with Mr. Crossley's three-foot reflector. No better frontispiece was possible. The few half-tones scattered through the volume are invariably excellent, and we wish it were possible to say the same of the line engravings. But nearly all of them are, in the lettering particularly, so blurred as to constitute a decided blemish in a book otherwise perfect in mechanical execution. The typography and paper are worthy of adoption as models—the latter especially for its absence of that eye-tiring gloss usually thought requisite for perfect half-tone impressions

That Professor Newcomb has kept the lay contingent well in mind is evident from the very readable paragraphs here and there interspersed among those more substantial ones that will appeal chiefly to the expert in things stellar. Characterizing that almost sensational innovation initiated by Sir William Huggins more than a third of a century ago, whereby the spectroscope enables us to measure the motions of stars toward the earth or from it, Professor Newcomb says (p. 11):

"No achievement of the intellect of man would have seemed farther without the range of possibility to the thinker of half a century ago than the discoveries of invisible bodies which are now being made by such measurements. The revelations of the telescope take us by surprise. But if we consider what the thinker alluded to might regard as attainable, they are far surpassed by those of the spectroscope. The dark bodies, planets we may call them, which are revolving round the stars, must be for ever invisible in any telescope that it would be possible to construct. They would remain invisible if the power of the instrument were increased ten thousand times. And yet if there are inhabitants on these planets, our astronomers could tell them more of the motions of the world on which they live than the human race knew of the motions of the earth before the time of Copernicus."

Among the best chapters in the book is that on the motion of the sun, in which the author concludes that the "apex of the sun's way," as it is often technically styled, or the stellar direction in which our sun and his family of planets are moving, is that of the constellation Lyra, and practically towards its brightest star, which everybody knows as Vega. And nearly twenty kilometres (or about twelve miles) in every second of time is the likeliest modern value of our speeding Vega-ward through space.

Other lucid chapters treat entertainingly of variable stars; also of new stars and their causes, not neglecting Nova Persei, the latest addition to the list. Professor Newcomb accepts the hypothesis that these latter are due to "some cataclysm of a rather extraordinary kind." More statistical are the chapters following, on the parallaxes of the stars, and on stellar systems, including that epoch-making discovery known as the spectroscopic binary, of which about fifty systems are at present known. Though the companion stars can never be seen by any telescope, yet their existence is a certainty. Another excellent chapter, though brief, is that on nebulæ; finely illustrated also from the recent photographs of Common, Keeler, and Roberts.

Appropriately following are chapters on the constitution of the stars, critically discussed in the light of the laws of modern physics, and on stellar evolution, or the life history of stars, concerning which Professor Newcomb says (p. 223): "The general fact that every star has a life history—that this history will ultimately come to an end—that it must have had a beginning in time—is indicated by so great a number of concurring facts that no one who has most profoundly studied the subject can have serious doubts upon it." The author follows the mature views of Sir William Huggins, based upon critical study of spectra. We may quote also these significant sentences from the chapter on stellar evolution (p. 225):

"Facts are accumulating which converge to the view that forms of substance exist which are neither matter nor ether, but something between the two—perhaps primeval substance from which matter itself was evolved. In this ethereal substance is stored an almost exhaustless supply of energy, the withdrawal of which results in the condensation of the substance into matter."

We have left little space for the closing chapters, rather speculative and technical, on the structure of the heavens, the Milky Way, and the apparent clustering and distribution of the stars. Answers in scientific form are not yet forthcoming to most of these great questions; but we may hope for more light when the completed charts of the International Astrographic Survey of the heavens shall have been carefully studied. Professor Newcomb makes a judicial presentation of the consensus of modern opinion, though little more than the first step toward a definitive solution can yet be said to have been taken. The Kepler of the starry hosts is doubtless yet unborn.

We note but few typographical lapses: *triphid* (pp. xi. and 182) should be as in the frontispiece (*trifid*); *Sir* David Gill (p. 47); p. 167, the first discovered spectroscopic binary is Mizar, or *Zeta* Ursæ Majoris, not *Xi;* p. 194, the algebraic formula lacks an obvious addition, while the last line on p. 257 also requires a small correction not so obvious. This admirable book would be bettered by a brief chapter summarizing the cosmogony; it is worthy, too, of a fuller index; and the addition of systematic bibliographies would have enhanced its value greatly, to the student and the investigator especially.

Anna Karenin. By Leo Tolstoy. Translated from the Russian by Constance Garnett. In two volumes. McClure, Phillips & Co. 1901.

There was room for a good translation of 'Anna Karenin,' which has not yet been sufficiently appreciated in this country because previous translations were both awkward and careless. How far Mrs. Garnett's is an improvement upon the old may be gathered from a couple of examples. First, the Englishwoman (p. 177):

"'Well, master, when summer's here, mind you don't scold me for these rows,' said Vassily.

"'Eh?' said Levin cheerily, already feeling the effect of his method.

"'Why, you'll see in the summer time. It'll look different. Look you where I sowed last spring. How I did work at it! I do my best, Konstantin Dmitritch, d'ye see? as I would for my own father. I don't like bad work myself, nor would I let another man do it. What's good for the master's good for us too.'"

Mr. N. H. Dole has thus translated the same passage (p. 159):

"'*Nu! Barin* (Lord), I don't like to do slack work,' said Vasili in his *muzhik* dialect. 'What is good for the master is good for us.'"

Either through want of familiarity with the "muzhik dialect," which, by the way, Tolstoy does not mention here, or for some other reason known to the translator alone, Mr. Dole abridged Tolstoy in this passage. But here is another in which he also perverted Tolstoy's ideas (p. 168)):

"'Why wasn't the field harrowed?' demanded Levin.

"'Oh, it'll come out all right,' replied Vasili, taking up a handful of seed and rubbing it between his fingers.

"It was not Vasili's fault that the field had not been harrowed or the seed sifted; but Levin was not less provoked."

The new version has the following instead (p. 177):

"'Why is it you have earth that's not sifted?' said Levin

"'Well, we crumble it up,' answered Vassily, taking up some seed and rolling the earth in his palms.

"Vassily was not to blame for their having filled up his cart with unsifted earth, but still it was annoying."

Because Mr. Dole's translation is faulty, however, it does not follow that Mrs. Garnett's is impeccable. It is certainly closer to the original than any that has come to

our notice, yet it can hardly be called a "literal" translation, though the English, in many places, is clumsy enough for that. The magical simplicity of Tolstoy's style in 'Anna Karenin' evaporates, and the smooth polish is lost, in her English. A number of blunders, too, have crept into the work, in spite of the great care with which Mrs. Garnett apparently approached her task. We will give a few instances taken at random: "Zaiskivaya," which means "courting favors," is translated "hesitating" (page 177). "Tatars" is, in Mrs. Garnett's English, "waiters." It is quite true that many of the waiters in Russian restaurants are Tatars, but a Tatarin is not necessarily a waiter. Where Tolstoy speaks of "life" Mrs. Garnett prefers to have him speak of "*daily* life," and where Tolstoy says the coachman was washing the carriage near the well, Mrs. Garnett has the coachman "washing the carriage wheels" (p. 174). The Russian text of what follows is perfectly simple and clear, but it sounds ridiculous in the new translation: "You're very much of a piece . . . You have a character that's all of a piece, and you want the whole of life to be of a piece, too . . . " (p. 47). The Russian reads thus: "You are a very pure man . . . Yours is a pure character, and you want factors of purity to constitute the whole of life. . . . "

With all its shortcomings, this is a conscientious translation of Tolstoy's masterpiece, and if all the works of the great Russian were to be rendered as scrupulously as this, it would be a great boon to English readers.

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WHAT PUBLIC LIBRARIES ARE DOING FOR CHILDREN
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England and the War of Secession.....*By Goldwin Smith*

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 28, 1901.

The Week.

Secretary Hay made the leading speech at the annual dinner of the Chamber of Commerce last week. To those who had kept account of his doings and sayings as Minister of Foreign Affairs during the past three years, his words seemed very appropriate. They were the substance not merely of things hoped for, but of those already seen. They were welcomed for the assurance they convey that the general policy with which Mr. Hay's name has been identified in the McKinley Administration will be continued under that of his successor. Upon that point he left nothing to be desired, and if his expression of it was rather more blunt than we usually expect in a discourse on foreign affairs, it was probably made so by design. It was perhaps not necessary for Mr. Hay to emphasize the fact that President Roosevelt is incapable of bullying a strong Power or of wronging a weak one; but since he has done so, we are bound to presume that he had the warrant of his chief in using just these expressions. They are more characteristic of the President than of the Secretary, and they will be welcomed, not because they were particularly needed, but because everybody can understand them. They are self-explanatory, and need neither gloss nor repetition. They apply first of all to the Powers of Europe, but they do not stop there. Mr. Hay paid marked deference to the republics of Central and South America, and reassured them, so far as words can go, that we have neither intention nor desire to encroach upon their territory or their rights, nor to overlook their claim to an equal place with ourselves in the community of nations. Perhaps the pleasantest impression left upon the minds of Mr. Hay's listeners was the belief that he would remain in the place which he has so acceptably and so honorably filled.

The Ship-Subsidy Bill, which has not yet been divulged by Senator Frye, seems to be already in a staggering way. According to a Washington telegram in the *Times*, the decision of the Reciprocity Convention the other day against Reciprocity has recoiled with considerable force against the subsidy scheme. Any person having the sense of humor must see that it would be rather jocose to vote money to promote foreign trade after killing a measure whose object is to increase the volume of our imports and exports. Aside from this inconsistency, however, it is evident that the Western Senators and Representatives are coming to Washington more decidedly adverse to the subsidy scheme than they were in the last Congress. The fact is, that their constituents have found out that it is a measure to tax the many for the benefit of the few, and the poor for the benefit of the rich. The workingmen's organizations, in particular, have recognized this feature of the scheme. They think that there are ways enough to accomplish this end by means of Trusts and combines, without tapping the national Treasury for the same purpose.

The movement for free hides in Massachusetts is a formidable one. Every argument of the commercial sort runs in its favor. We do not produce hides enough for our own use. About 25 per cent. of our consumption must be imported. The tax is a burden of $2,000,000 per year upon the tanning and shoe-making industries. It adds 5 to 8 per cent. to the cost of every pair of shoes worn by our own people. The duty (15 per cent. ad valorem) is not needed by the Government for revenue. In fact, it was not imposed for revenue. It was put into the Dingley tariff for the purpose of making the bill look more attractive to the farmers and cattle-growers. Hides had been free of duty for twenty-five years, and the American farmer had never imagined that he was injured by that fact. He had never raised an animal for the sake of its hide, nor does he do so now. It is doubtful if he ever received one cent more for an ox by reason of the duty on hides. If there has been any gain from that source, it has gone to the large butchering and packing companies. On the other hand, the American duty on hides has benefited the tanning interests of Canada by giving to the latter an advantage of 15 per cent. in the purchase of the raw materials. All the commercial and financial considerations point to a repeal of the duty as one of the steps to be taken by Congress. One political consideration, however, may outweigh everything else. If the tariff question is opened for one thing, it may be opened for any number of things. If free hides are a desideratum, is not free wool equally so? And what about lumber, iron ore, and coal?

The terrors and costs of modern warfare have been described with great fidelity by the Polish author Bloch, at whose instance, it is said, the Czar of Russia was moved to call the Peace Conference at The Hague. If M. Bloch had to write his book now, he would find some additional material of great value in the current report of the American Secretary of the Interior, who tells us that our pension list contains 4,000 names in excess of any previous year, and that the number of claims pending at the beginning of the present fiscal year was 403,569. About one-half of these were claims for increase of pensions from persons already on the rolls. The amount disbursed for pensions during the year (the thirty-sixth after the end of the civil war) was $138,531,484. Even more remarkable than this aggregate showing is the piling up of pension claims as a result of disabilities incurred in the war with Spain. About 20 per cent. of all the men enlisted have filed claims for a war that began only three years ago, whereas only 6 per cent. of the soldiers of the civil war had filed claims in 1872, eleven years after the beginning of that war. Many claims were filed for disability a few days after the claimants had been examined by army surgeons for discharge from the service, and had been found absolutely free from ailment of any kind. The history of one volunteer regiment which served six months is cited in the Secretary's report, where 477 claims for disability have been filed, out of a total enlistment of 53 officers and 937 men—50 per cent. of claimants in three years, as compared with 6 per cent. in eleven years after the beginning of the civil war. These terrors of war do not come within the scope of M. Bloch's volume because the nations of Europe do not tolerate fraud in their pension rolls.

Mr. H. O. Havemeyer, after a delay of several months, has secured the official ruling of the Board of Classification on the question whether a bas-relief is a "manufacture," and taxable at 50 per cent., or "statuary" at 20. The piece in dispute was a bas-relief in marble, by Mino da Fiesole, one of the most charming masters of the Italian Renaissance. Under a ruling of Appraiser Wilkinson, bas-reliefs were held by the Custom-house to be "manufactures," while sculpture wrought in the round, provided it was "the professional production of a statuary or sculptor," was "statuary," in the eye of the Dingley law. The application of this principle would clearly produce amazing results. In the eyes of Appraiser Wilkinson and of the Custom-house of the chief port of a civilized nation, the Parthenon frieze, for instance, would be a "manufacture." Again, Mr. St. Gaudens's superb Shaw memorial on Boston Common would be, so far as the horse and the main figure were concerned, "statuary"; but the noble background of marching negro troops, being a relief, would be a "manufacture." Fortunately, Mr. Havemeyer, though it must have amused him to find Mino's professional status more than in doubt, and

his work classified with "manufactures of agate, alabaster, . . . coral, carnelian, . . . jet, malachite, marble," took the situation seriously, and appealed from the Appraiser's decision to the Board of Classification. Their decision that an Italian bas-relief of the best period is not a manufacture, but a work of art, is, if somewhat obvious, most commendable; for the Custom-house has, from beginning to end, shown a tendency to make the barbarous tariff on works of art doubly oppressive by unskilled and illiberal interpretation of its terms.

A proper protest is entered by a Republican newspaper against the assumption by some representatives of the Republican machine that "the organization" polled fully five-sixths of the votes cast for Mr. Low in this county. The New York *Press* analyzes the votes cast for Republican candidates in New York County at recent elections, recalling that Roosevelt polled about 112,000 for Governor in 1898 and McKinley about 153,000 for President in 1900. It estimates that fully 5,000 voters not Republican cast their ballots for Roosevelt in 1898, while it supposes that even the machine leaders will admit that McKinley received tens of thousands of independent and Democratic votes. In 1897, when Tracy ran as the straight Republican candidate for Mayor, he received about 55,000 votes in this county. The *Press* concludes from all this that the Republican machine vote is somewhere near 50,000, and that the rest of the 115,000 votes which Mr. Low received came from anti-Platt Republicans, Independents, Independent Democrats, and straight-out Democrats. The outside figure which it thinks can be claimed "with fairly decent grace" for the Republican vote this year, machine and anti-machine, is 115,000, which would leave fully 50,000 to the other elements in the Fusion movement.

We do not see any sound argument which can be made against the appeal of the recent State Conference of Charities for an amendment by the incoming Legislature of the transfer or legacy tax, so far as it affects bequests to charitable societies. A general statute provides that "the real property of a corporation or association organized exclusively for the moral or mental improvement of men or women, or for religious, Bible, tract, charitable, benevolent, missionary, hospital, infirmary, educational, scientific, literary, library, patriotic, historical, or cemetery purposes, or for the enforcement of laws relating to children or animals, or for two or more of such purposes, and used exclusively for carrying out thereupon one or more of such purposes, and the personal property of any such corporation or association, shall be exempt from taxation." It was in pursuance of the principles here enunciated that, when the policy of a transfer tax was adopted in this State, legacies in favor of societies thus exempted from taxation were expressly freed from subjection to the new tax. This exemption continued until a statutory revision of the laws in 1900 incorporated a provision that "the exemptions enumerated in section 4 of the tax law, of which this article is a part, shall not be construed as being applicable in any manner to the provisions of article 10 thereof." This provision has been found to remove the former exemption from the transfer tax of bequests to charitable societies. It is perfectly clear, however, that the public never supposed this change was being made by the Legislature of 1900, or an earnest opposition would have been provoked. No special attention appears to have been called to the amendment when it was pending at Albany, and certainly the people interested in charitable movements had no idea of what was being done. Some of them have contended that the change in the law does not require the imposition of the tax upon charitable bequests, but the question has been carried to the highest tribunal, which has decided that it does. The Court of Appeals has not concealed its judgment that the legislation is inequitable, the prevailing opinion saying that "whatever we may think of such an assault upon charitable transfers, we must recognize it."

One step forward in submarines is marked by the success of the *Fulton* on Saturday in keeping a crew submerged in perfect comfort for fifteen hours. This is probably unprecedented, though it has long been certain that life below water through the hours of daylight (at night, of course, the submarine can safely come up to breathe) could be made tolerable. In some of the French experiments, however, the men came up much distressed after being down only six hours. The officers on board the *Fulton* assert that they could have lived under water a week; though if machinery were being operated and the boat in motion, the conditions would be obviously different. And even if you can give your crew plenty of air to breathe, the chief problems connected with the submarine—equilibrium, perfect control, and intelligible sight of the point of attack—yet remain to be mastered. The highest promise of this new naval construction is in connection with harbor defence, in which it may well prove a potent aid, both actually and in its moral intimidation of a hostile fleet. Certainly enough has already been accomplished to justify the Navy Department in continuing its experiments with the submarines; though it must not be forgotten that we may soon have an automatically propelled torpedo, dirigible by wireless electricity—and then it would be good-bye to the present submarine type of boat.

Mr. Charles A. Conant, Special Commissioner of the War Department, on Money and Banking, has just returned from the Philippines, where he has been investigating currency conditions. He announces that the monetary plan suggested by the Civil Commission a year ago will probably be recommended again this year. It will be recalled that when the United States first took over the islands, it found there a silver standard which had succeeded a nominal gold standard about 1875. Gold had been driven out by the Mexican dollar, and the use of such dollars was legalized in 1876, those in circulation being made a legal tender. At the time of the American occupation, therefore, there was no gold in the islands, and the standard was an arbitrary one, fluctuating in value partly with the price of silver bullion, and partly with local demand and supply. The importation of Mexican dollars had been abolished in 1876, but after the American occupation this prohibition was abrogated, and an arrangement was effected by the Philippine Commission for the exchange of Mexican dollars against those of the United States at the rate of two for one. The dangers of such a situation are obvious. If, as Mr. Conant advises, the plan suggested a year ago should be adopted, the first step would probably be the issue of a silver peso of about the same content as the Mexican dollar, but redeemable at 50 cents in gold. This mode of reforming the currency would be akin to that adopted by Japan under similar circumstances some years ago, which is probably the best solution of the currency difficulties in the Philippines.

The fighting between Colombian factions on the line of the Isthmian railway somewhat complicates the duties of our Government. We are bound by treaty to keep communication open between Colon and Panama. This is at present done by three detachments of United States marines, stationed, respectively, at Colon, Panama, and midway between. The situation is ticklish just to this extent, that the attempt of our troops to prevent fighting on or near the line of the Panama Railway might result in a collision with either the Government forces or the revolutionists. But the danger of trouble with the Government troops is slight, for our marines have been landed with its full assent. Captain Perry apparently feels that the bombardment of any town on the Panama line is constructively an obstruction of traffic. It is on this principle chiefly that Lieut.-Commander McCrea of the *Machias* has prevented a Colombian gunboat from shelling the insurgents out of Colon. Such a position of strict neutrality is clearly a difficult one to maintain through a partisan war, and recurring acts of interference with the military movements of either party

might result in serious complications. But, since the forces on either hand are small and the spectacular raid on Colon may any day end with the ejection of the insurgents, there will probably be little time for trouble to brew. The attitude of the American commanders has been wholly correct and impartial. In their hands it is unlikely that a delicate situation will develop into a dangerous one.

The London *Spectator*, in a spirit of friendship, proposes that England shall give her public instead of her tacit assent to the Monroe Doctrine, with the expectation that the other nations of Europe will follow her example, thus removing all cause for future irritation on the subject. But the *Spectator* knocks the whole plan into smithereens by the innocent requirement that the United States shall first define the Monroe Doctrine. No American statesman is bold enough to attempt that feat. Some of our greatest men have sought to define it in the forum of debate where they were not responsible for any results to flow from their words, but no one has ever ventured to give it a definition applicable to all cases; and we venture to say that no one living could be drawn by horse power to an inkstand where he should be compelled to write such a definition. Daniel Webster once gave a comprehensive statement of the Doctrine by saying that a case for its exercise (meaning a case for our interference in the affairs of another American state) "must be danger to our security, or danger, manifest and imminent danger, to our essential rights and our essential interests." But if this were inscribed on parchment as our understanding of the Monroe Doctrine, England and all the Powers would say: "We have always believed in that. It is a doctrine of universal application. W apply it to our own affairs daily. We could not keep house without it. We thought that the Monroe Doctrine was something peculiar to America—something not known before Monroe's time—but now it appears to be as old as the hills and applicable to all ages, countries, and climes." Then we should be just where we were before the *Spectator* conceived its happy solution of the difficulty. The *Spectator* means well, but we want to keep not only the Monroe Doctrine in pickle, but all the definitions of it that the exigencies of politics may require.

The permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague has decided that it is incompetent to consider the Boer appeal for intervention. No other decision was possible; for, in the first place, the Boers were not among the signatory Powers, to whom alone the Arbitration Convention applies. At the time of the Peace Conference, in fact, the Transvaal had, except with the consent of England, no international standing. Since that time Great Britain has become the *de-facto* administrator of the Boer territory. Quite apart from the question whether the Boers had any standing before the Court, that tribunal does not receive *ex-parte* pleas, nor any case of arbitration, unless "the object of the dispute" and "the extent of the arbitrator's powers" are agreed upon and duly formulated by both parties to the dispute. It will be remembered that during the session of the Peace Congress similar appeals from the Armenians, the Finns, and the Macedonian Committee were rejected as beyond the scope of the conference. The Hague Court, whatever may have been the private sympathies of the individual judges, had no choice but to follow this precedent and its own charter.

The announcement that France has definitely invited the other European Powers to send delegates to a conference upon ways and means of suppressing the "white slave" traffic is gratifying proof of a national and international awakening in regard to this infamous system. The conference has been planned for some months, notice of the French Government's intention having been given by Senator Bérenger at the meeting of the National Vigilance Association in Amsterdam early in October. The plan of the French Government is that there shall be a general discussion of the existing laws, with a view to suggesting methods of strengthening them from the international point of view. It is hoped that some uniform, drastic, and effective method of dealing with the agents may be devised, and as the German Emperor has taken a great personal interest in the matter, it is thought that in Germany, at least, some valuable results may follow. That the need for restrictive measures is still great, is apparent to any reader of the Continental press. An organized exportation of Polish women to the Argentine Republic has lately been uncovered, and one or two of the criminals have been caught. In Hungary and Bohemia, too, the horrible traffic has been steadily carried on, while the luring of English girls of good family into Holland, Belgium, and France goes on as steadily as it did when Mr. W. T. Stead made his extraordinary revelations in the *Pall Mall Gazette*, years ago.

For many years the selection of new plays for the Théâtre Français was intrusted, mainly, to a reading committee composed of *sociétaires*. Of late, and especially since the retirement of M. Got (now dead), there has been increasing dissatisfaction with the manner in which this committee has exercised its prerogatives. Complaints have been frequent among authors that the members of it were actuated chiefly by a desire for personal aggrandizement, and that a play had no chance of being accepted if it was not rich in opportunities for all the principal performers. In many cases pieces were so cut and mangled, to suit the leading players, as to be barely recognizable by their original creators. Only recently, a play that had been in the hands of the committee for years, and had been rewritten and remodelled to a considerable extent, to meet the requirements of this one and that, failed so ignominiously upon its production—chiefly on account of the absurdity of some of the emendations—that the reputed author declined to be held responsible for it. This result was nothing more than might reasonably have been expected from the deliberations of actors, each of whom was intent upon his own individual interest. The wonder is that the system should have avoided an open breakdown as long as it did.

Perceiving the folly and scandal of it, M. Leygues, Minister of Instruction, recently decreed that hereafter M. Claretie, the intellectual head of the theatre, a keen critic, an elegant writer and accomplished scholar, should have the sole power of choosing plays for performance, thereby putting an end to the jealousies and intrigues which had distracted the committee, and fixing the responsibility upon a single person, who could be replaced at pleasure if he should prove incapable. Instantly the actors were in revolt over this alleged invasion of their rights and reflection upon their acumen and integrity. The thought that they had been relieved from an irksome and difficult duty, for which they were not fitted and which ought not to have been imposed upon them, never occurred to them. They could see nothing but the affront to their dignity, and think of nothing but the way to avenge it. Their final resolve is worthy of sulky children. Hitherto it has been the custom to appoint certain members of the company, in rotation, to superintend the staging of new plays. Now the actors refuse their assistance. They say that, if M. Claretie is to choose the plays without help, he may have the privilege of staging them also. And so matters are temporarily at a deadlock. If M. Leygues stands firm, however, the conflict can have but one termination. The players certainly will be beaten, as they deserve to be. Already there is a proposal that *sociétaires* shall be retired compulsorily at the end of twenty years' service, and more stringent measures of reorganization might be adopted, if necessary. There is no reason to fear that an infusion of new acting blood would do any permanent harm to the constitution of the Français.

FACILITATING TRADE.

How strong, and often malign, may be the prejudice connected with old battle-cries, was shown again at the opening of the Reciprocity Convention in Washington on November 19. To some delegates, free trade was evidently a dragon hidden somewhere in the hall, and ready to rush upon them if they were unwary. So they got up to crush every argument in favor of reciprocity with the ready charge that it was only free trade in disguise. On the other hand, manufacturers like Mr. Farquhar, who are thinking earnestly of the foreign market and how best to get to it, could regard their opponents only as the embodiment of a bigoted protectionism, "gorging itself on the spoils of the weak." So the Convention seemed at once to be in for a renewal of ancient battles and old recriminations.

The lame and impotent resolutions adopted the next day mark the culmination and failure of the movement to induce the Republican party to do something this session for American trade. The resolutions themselves ought to be set as an example of bad logic to children in the public schools. It would certainly be a poor student who could not pass with honor an examination requiring him to point out (1) how the tail of the resolutions eats up the head; (2) how the wrong conclusion is drawn from correct premises; and (3) how what is openly asserted in one resolution is covertly denied in its neighbor. The process appears to have been to allow the man who wanted foreign trade to write one clause, and the man who hated foreign trade to introduce the amendments which nullified it. Thus, the Convention highly resolved that it was in favor of "opening up by reciprocity," and by "special modifications of the tariff, opportunities for increased foreign trade," but "only where it can be done without injury to any of our home interests of manufacturing, commerce, or farming." There it is! You may do it, only on condition that you don't do it!

We take it for granted that this sounds the death-knell of all the reciprocity treaties. Mr. McKinley negotiated them and believed in them; President Roosevelt and Secretary Hay will urge their ratification; great manufacturers and exporters will press their acceptance by the Senate, but that body has the grave ready into which they are to be tumbled without even the rites of Christian burial. And the reason is clear. The Republican party is afraid of the discussion. It shrinks from revealing its internal differences of opinion on this subject. Moreover, it knows that the clutch of selfish interests is upon its throat. It is of the nature of protection to make its greed blind and angry, and protection is now renewing its old threats to the Republican party if any attempt is made to diminish its pound of flesh, nominated in the tariff, by the twentieth part of one poor scruple. In view of all this, the Republican party has had the cowardice of its lack of convictions, and its leaders have practically said, "What, invite a party split when we are comfortably in the enjoyment of all the offices? No such folly!"

The real folly, however, lies in the determination to do nothing. This is tantamount to serving notice on the country that the power which it has given the Republican party is not to be used except in a timid, hand-to-mouth fashion. It is not to be employed to fortify the country against the coming of an evil day. But the evil day in trade and agriculture will surely come. Its arrival cannot, in fact, be much longer delayed, unless the fat years are to be multiplied by special miracle in our behalf. Let the chill fall upon our industry which the law of averages makes us certain will fall ere long; let scanty crops coincide with low prices for them, as may easily be the case next year or the year after; and then let it appear that we are cut off from our foreign market by the neglect of the Republican party to follow the advice and urging of President McKinley—and what will be the result? Who will look foolish then? The economic effects will be disastrous, but the political effects may be simply appalling.

There are two kinds of statesmanship—the far-sighted, and the bat-blind. Party leaders may seek power for two ends—either to lie at ease in the patronage pen, with their snouts near the trough, or to put office and party control to large and creative use in inaugurating wise and far-reaching national policies. To the latter course the Republican party was invited by its unexampled opportunity, as by the utter demoralization of the Opposition, and was urged to it by the enlightened and progressive minds within its own ranks. It appears to have decided, for the present, upon the "great refusal." It will do nothing but enjoy the goods which it thinks it has laid up for many years. Its chosen watchword is that of the lotus-eaters—"Let us alone." But the history of the rise and fall of parties has been written in vain if this somnolent statesmanship is not destined ere long to a rude awakening. If there were no Opposition party, it would be necessary to invent one, in order to enact at Washington a trade policy corresponding to the needs of the time and the demands of the country.

The Governor-elect of Iowa, Mr. Cummins, gave fitting expression, at the New York Chamber of Commerce dinner last week, to the sense of boundless pride in our national resources and opportunity which pervades the Central West. Out there they are fully ready for a "fair field and no favors" in the world's competition. They know that they can feed the world and make machinery for the world, and they look with growing impatience upon that cowering timidity of many interests in the East which dreads and hampers foreign trade. We are prepared to go out for the conquest of the world, yet we fall a-wrangling whether we shall reduce our duty on pinchbeck jewelry by 5 per cent.! We are building bridges in Africa and India, invading England, frightening Austria, and disturbing Germany with our expanding and victorious trade, yet we squabble over a few pairs of stockings! Well, it is all very petty and ridiculous, but we pin our faith to natural forces which are sure to triumph in the end, despite the puny men who get in their way. And we confidently expect that rejoicing America, going forth like a strong man to run the race of industrial competition, will not much longer submit to the weights and clogs fastened upon its limbs by short-sighted or selfish men.

A SHIPPING TRUST.

The gentlemen connected with the formation of Trusts do not habitually take the public into their confidence until their plans have been carried out. It was therefore not to be expected that any announcement would be made as to the persistent rumors that the control of the White Star Line has been acquired by Americans. Whatever technical denials of particular statements may be made about the existence of a gigantic Shipping Trust, however, a report from trustworthy sources is current in shipping circles which throws more light on the actual situation than any number of denials of carefully selected rumors.

It appears that, in order to carry out an agreement with the Canadian Grand Trunk Railway, a service of two steamers a week is to be maintained between Portland, Me., and Liverpool. This service, it is alleged, is to be made up from the fleets of the Leyland Line, the Atlantic Transport Line, the Dominion Line, and the White Star Line. In other words, here are four companies which do not openly admit that they are part of any shipping combination, but which are actually combining their fleets in order to form a connecting line between the Grand Trunk Railway and Liverpool, and to make a line of sufficient importance to require two steamers a week. The fact that the Leyland Line takes part in this service indicates that it is in the syndicate, and the same may, perhaps, be said of the White Star Line and of the Atlantic Transport Line. But whoever is or is not in the syndicate, the important fact is that an international combination exists, including at least four hitherto independent lines. And this is the same Atlantic Transport Line whose President sent to the Commissioner of Navigation a recently pub-

lished letter arguing for an American subsidy.

It is interesting to note the relation between this combined line and the plan for a subsidy which was pressed so urgently in the last Congress, and which is to be brought up again in Washington within a few weeks. Here is a line of ships, all foreign-built, ostensibly engaged in our foreign commerce from the port of Portland, but really a part of a line of transportation from British America and Canada to England—that is, foreign ships engaged in foreign business. Yet the single device of putting the title to these ships in a company, and the putting of the nominal title to 51 per cent. of the stock of that company in the names of United States citizens, would require our Government to pay a heavy subsidy to every ship for every voyage under the plan of subsidy proposed. This Portland Line has an unmistakable connection with the plans of the subsidy seekers—just as unmistakable as the plan of a certain large ship-building Trust which was put before investors, a year ago, when the Subsidy Bill was being pushed in Washington, but which was withdrawn when the bill was dropped in the Senate. The combining of the fleets of foreign companies in the Portland Line also shows that the foreign steamship companies, which were said to be fighting an American subsidy, have merely been preparing to share in such a bonus as the American people shall find it in their hearts to donate.

The contrast between the plans of this great shipping combination—which is inspired and controlled by Americans, if not wholly composed of Americans—and the pitiful cry of the same Americans for Government aid would justify most satirical comment. But there is a side of the subject too grave to be treated lightly. Great business combinations are with us, for better or worse. They exist in defiance of the policy of the law, and in many cases in defiance of its letter. They avoid legal attack by making their most important arrangements through secret contracts on which no legal authority can lay its hand; but when their combinations have been effected, they can dictate terms to their competitors, and often to the public. Foreign commerce is a most inviting field for such combinations. If the great shipbuilding companies and the great shipping lines have not been drawn into a combination, or are not now drawing into a combination, they are throwing away opportunities which are being seized upon in every other field of business. But facts which leak out indicate that there has been no such neglect of opportunities, and that one of the chief reasons for secrecy is the plan that has been brewing to induce the United States Government to make an annual contribution to the profits of such combinations. To accomplish this, the component American companies must continue to act in the rôle of infant industries until the Subsidy Bill has passed. Now, business combinations existing in accordance with law, or by avoidance of it, are one thing, and combinations made profitable by Government assistance are a very different and more serious thing.

We cannot say, however, that we are surprised that combination should take the latter form. So many resolutions have been passed by political conventions, and so many speeches have been made by statesmen, in favor of *some kind* of subsidy, that capitalists who are alive to their opportunities could not fail to see the double advantages offered by a Shipping Trust. In our view, they are much less to blame for the subsidy scheme than the politicians who tell them that there is a large surplus in the Treasury to be applied to some vague public purpose, through the pockets of private individuals.

The piling up of a surplus in the Treasury is perhaps the greatest menace to American institutions to-day. It offers a temptation to all the greedy and unscrupulous characters in the nation to bring forward plans for disbursing it through channels which they control. River-and-harbor and slack-water navigation schemes are multiplying beyond precedent. Battle-ships and big guns are looming up in astounding number and size. We shall presently have proposals for new pensions and additions to old ones. The amount in the Treasury can never be so large that there will not be found sufficient outlets for it. All the schemers will marshal themselves behind the Ship-Subsidy Bill, and will claim that their plans for disposing of the surplus are just as good and just as much entitled to consideration as those advanced by Senators Frye and Hanna; and in this they will be quite justified.

POLITICS IN STATE INSTITUTIONS.

At the Charities Conference last week Mr. George F. Canfield, President of the State Charities Aid Association, read a paper on the influence of politics on State and city institutions. The conclusions which he reached are founded upon reports received in answer to inquiries sent throughout the State asking information on this particular point. It is gratifying to learn, from the answers received, that the charitable institutions supported in whole or in part by the proceeds of taxation are, for the most part, "free from the influence of bad politics." By bad politics is meant the kind which seeks places in these institutions for the sake of getting positions for "henchmen" or making profits by supplying goods to the institutions. The other kind of politics, which finds its way into the boards of managers, and is considered by most people not very censurable, consists in the general practice of filling all vacancies as they occur in the boards with persons belonging to the party in power, instead of reappointing, regardless of their political affiliations, those whose terms have expired. This kind of partisanship does not necessarily lower the standard of management of the institutions, but neither does it tend to elevate it. If nothing worse, it tends to lessen the interest of one-half of the community in the management; and this is a manifest harm to the State.

The effects of partisanship in the administration of public charities have been exhibited within recent years in a striking manner in the State of Indiana. The political majority in Indiana has oscillated from the Republicans to the Democrats and vice versa ever since the civil war. Party spirit has been intense, sometimes to the point of riotous behavior, and as a consequence every scrap of political patronage has been utilized for all it was worth, and even much more than it was worth. With every change of the political control, there was a change of the officers, attendants, and laborers of the institutions—not all at once, because the institutions could not be carried on without a certain number of experienced hands, but gradually and surely. Of course, the new appointees were selected not for their fitness, not for their knowledge of the needs of the patients in the hospitals and asylums, but for their party service and their "pull." The result was a degradation of the service so infamous and a series of scandals so glaring and outrageous and continuous that both parties agreed to uproot and cast it out for ever. From time to time we have commented on this reform in Indiana, which put the administration of public charities on a non-partisan basis, and made the avenue to appointment, in all subordinate places, dependent upon competitive examination.

Although the present Governor of Indiana has shown some signs of backsliding, it is perhaps safe to say that its charitable institutions are now as free from partisan influence and contamination as those of any State in the Union. Those of New York, according to Mr. Canfield, are in very encouraging shape, but they are not beyond the reach of amendment. One of the local reports says that the superintendent of the almshouse is an inefficient saloonkeeper, and that his aim is to keep as many relatives and friends employed there as possible. Another says:

> "No superintendent is elected for more than two terms. Partisan influence controls and out-door relief is also affected. Numerous instances have come to our knowledge in which voters undeserving of relief have made upon overseers of the poor demands upon the ground of past political support and of threatened opposition in the future in case their demands are not complied with. In purchasing supplies, they are compelled by political considerations to distribute their orders to

storekeepers who charge full retail prices and often supply inferior articles, when good supplies can be purchased in bulk of wholesale dealers at a large saving to the county. Most of the county superintendents of both parties have been in the habit in a greater or less degree of using the almshouse as headquarters for their political followers, where expensive dinners and entertainments were furnished at public expense."

In another place the practice existed, on the part of the superintendent, of distributing favors in the purchase of supplies in return for votes. This practice had become established, and was acquiesced in as "a regular thing," but it happened that "a Christian gentleman was elected who served without fear or favor, purchasing goods where he could purchase them cheapest." The consequence was that at the next election he "got left." The politicians had no further use for him.

In short, the finding of the investigation is that the administration of public charities in New York is for the most part good, being free from partisan influence, but that badness exists in spots, and that here it is due to the sluggishness of local public opinion. It is a noticeable fact that in the places where the superintendents and overseers of the poor are inefficient and dishonest, "it is more frequently the public and the taxpayers than the inmates who suffer." Reduced to percentages, it is found that the bad effects of politics in the institutions, so far as the welfare of the inmates is concerned, is represented by 15 to 20 in the 100, and so far as extravagance and wastefulness of the public funds are concerned, by a percentage of 35.

The conditions existing in the city of New York are susceptible of much improvement, yet Mr. Canfield awards high commendation to Mr. Keller, the present Commissioner of Charities. Although a Tammany man and a pretty stiff partisan, he has given us the best administration of that department the city has ever had. But there still remains much to be done in the way of eliminating the baleful influences of politics. No radical changes are recommended in the methods of managing the State institutions, their condition being on the whole satisfactory. It is suggested, however, that the boards of managers should consist of not less than seven members each, and that the term of office of not more than one member should expire in any one year; since, with a slowly changing body, no State administration can appoint a majority of the members, and thus there will be less political pressure for places under them. The civil-service rules should be extended to the county institutions, and means for enforcing them in those places should be devised. Finally, we need a steady and enlightened public opinion, for the creation and sustenance of which we have excellent organs in the State Board of Charities, the State Charities Aid Association, the charity organization societies existing throughout the State, and in various publications devoted to the interests of charity. Altogether the outlook is cheering to those who give their time to charitable work without pay, and who find their reward in the happiness of the needy and the afflicted.

TOURNEBUT.

PARIS, November 8, 1901.

'Tournebut' is a natural sequel to the 'Marquis de la Rouërie.' It is another chapter in the insurrection of Brittany against the Revolution, as painful, as interesting as the first. It is, so to speak, the dying flame of the revolt, as it extends from 1804 to 1809 in the time of the Empire. Here again M. Lenotre has found many inedited documents; he has, besides, had the good fortune to procure for his work, which has not a prepossessing title, a preface by the popular Victorien Sardou.

Many people have, I suppose, been surprised by this title: "Tournebut." What is Tournebut? Explanation is at once in order, as the name hitherto has had no historical associations. There was, in the Department of Eure, on the left bank of the Seine, not far from Gaillon, an old castle, called the Château de Tournebut. Though its high façade could be seen from the river, Tournebut was really not on the line of transit, either by water or by land, from Rouen to Paris; it was surrounded by woods and between the river and the high road, and therefore very isolated. In the first years of the seventeenth century it belonged to the family of the Maréchal de Marillac, and tradition will have it that, in the course of the struggle between Marillac and Richelieu, false money was fabricated in the castle. Marillac was executed in Paris in 1632.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century Tournebut was the perfect type of the old castles, where there was hardly any trace of luxury or wealth, with immense rooms and very little comfort, enormous walls, hiding-places, high roofs covered with tiles. It was inhabited in 1804 by the Marchioness of Combray, the daughter of a president of a court of law in Normandy. She was a widow, had two sons and two daughters; she possessed, besides Tournebut, large domains in the neighborhood of Falaise. She was a very imperious and courageous person, and determined, even fanatical, royalist. Her authority over her dependents, farmers, servants, was boundless. All the attempts of the royalists of the western part of France against the Revolution had ended in signal failure; some of them had submitted; but there remained still in 1804 a number of malcontents. The civil war had dwindled to the proportions of mere brigandage. There were still, however, constant communications with the *émigrés* and the princes in England; but the chief exploits of the last leaders of the Chouannerie consisted in holding up and plundering, on the high road, the diligences which carried the bags of gold and silver of the collectors of taxes.

M. Lenotre's new volume begins with the dramatic episode of the conspiracy of the famous Georges Cadoudal, the man of whom Napoleon was most afraid, and who had resolved to take his life. All the details of Cadoudal's arrest in Paris, of his terrible defence against the detectives who arrested him, of his trial, and of his execution are well known and belong to history. Cadoudal had organized a plan of communication with the *émigrés* in England, through Normandy, by means of a series of hiding-places between Paris and the Channel Coast. After his death, the man whom the Chouans of Normandy considered as his successor, and whom in their communications they called the "great Alexander," was the Viscount Robert d'Aché; he was hiding in Paris at the same time as Georges Cadoudal. He had, like him, been denounced by a traitor named Querelle, but he succeeded in escaping from Paris, travelling in disguise and changing his clothes several times, and finally took refuge at the house of his old friend, Madame de Combray, at Tournebut. He remained there fourteen months, under the name of Deslorières, without attracting the attention of Fouché's vigilant police. In his retreat, however, he never ceased to conspire against the Government, and tried to remain in communication with the royalists in England, exasperated by the death of the Duke d'Enghien, of Georges Cadoudal, and of Pichegru. Madame de Combray led apparently the most quiet life. She played at cards or at tric-trac all day long, with friends or visitors, generally with her notary. Nobody could have suspected that her house had become a nest of conspirators. She was living with two daughters. Her two sons had emigrated; one of them was serving in the army of the Princes, the other living in England.

In the year 1795, a certain M. Acquet, Chevalier de Férolles, had come to Madame de Combray with a letter of recommendation from a refractory priest (such was the name given to the priests who did not accept the civic constitution of the clergy). He gave himself out as "Agent General of his Majesty," cited Charrette, Frotté, Puisaye, as his intimate friends. He was really a mere adventurer, and he colored with a royalist tincture his exploits, which consisted chiefly in robbing the tax-gatherers on the high road. He was very well received by Madame de Combray, and seduced one of her daughters so as to make a marriage inevitable. He was the worst of husbands; his wife left him, and instituted proceedings for a legal separation. Acquet became the bitterest enemy of all the Combray family, and his active hatred found in time the most complete satisfaction. He knew very well that Madame de Combray was hiding royalists in her château. He became the voluntary spy of Fouché, and followed eagerly all the movements of Madame de Combray and her friends.

Madame Acquet became, after her separation from her husband, the mistress of a certain Le Chevalier, an ardent royalist, a sort of "héros de roman," and she took part in all his enterprises, and dressed sometimes in man's clothes. Le Chevalier seems to have been the chief organizer of an expedition which resulted in a highway robbery in the wood of Quesnoy, five leagues from Caen, not far from the castle of Donnay, where Madame Acquet was living at the time. The sum of 60,000 francs fell into

the hands of Le Chevalier and seven men, his accomplices. For a long time all the researches of the police were vain; but the arrest of Le Chevalier in Paris, where he audaciously paraded as an agent of the Princes, finally put Fouché's agents on the right track. A detachment of gendarmes was sent to Tournebut. Madame de Combray was arrested with her son and sent to the Conciergerie at Rouen. The police hoped to find D'Aché at Tournebut, but this extraordinary man discovered some secret refuge. For two days Madame de Combray was cross-examined by the Prefect. She avowed that she knew D'Aché, but denied knowing where he was. Tournebut was searched in every part, and it was ascertained that this venerable castle was in fact full of hiding-places and capable of receiving an army of conspirators. D'Aché, however, could not be found.

Madame Acquet had disappeared. She was, however, after many incidents, arrested and sent also to the Conciergerie at Rouen. She had been denounced by one of her accomplices. Once in prison, she made a complete confession. She told all she knew of D'Aché's plans, of his journeys to England, of the organization of the plot. She formally accused D'Aché of having been the cause of all her misfortunes, of having advised and planned the robbery of the public funds in the attacks on the diligences. She accused her mother, Madame de Combray, of having transported some of the funds to Caen. She was prepared to die on the scaffold, and had already cut her hair. She tried to hang herself, but was prevented in time.

It was decided that the theft at Quesnoy should be tried before a special court at Rouen. In 1807 there were as many as thirty-eight people, men and women, in prison during the preparation of the case. But D'Aché, the successor of Georges Cadoudal, was still at large. A letter was sent to Madame de Combray, announcing to her the downfall of Napoleon and the arrival of the King, ending with these words: "Write at once to M. D'Aché a letter which he may give to his Majesty. I will see that it is put in his hands." Madame de Combray fell into the trap and wrote in answer that D'Aché was generally in the neighborhood of Bayeux. But D'Aché was not to be found on such vague information. He was still at liberty ten months after the robbery at Quesnoy. All his accomplices were in prison. He himself led the life of a fugitive, lived chiefly in the woods, found everywhere friends willing to conceal him for days, chiefly royalist ladies, till he became the victim of a certain Madame de Vaubadon, who, according to public opinion, was his mistress. D'Aché was killed by four gendarmes, after a great struggle, under circumstances which have remained mysterious to this day. Madame de Vaubadon was obliged to leave Caen, as she was popularly considered an accomplice of the gendarmes, if not their leader.

Of all the other "dramatis personæ" of this truly horrible drama, the only interesting one is Madame de Combray, who never had any part in the highway robberies, and who was led away solely by her admiration for D'Aché and by her royalist fanaticism. Her daughter, Madame Acquet, died on the scaffold. Her family and her friends made incessant efforts to obtain pardon for herself, but she remained in prison till the return of the Bourbons in 1814. She went back to Tournebut and found it in a very dilapidated state. She never left her old castle till she died in 1823. She was eighty-one years old.

Correspondence.

MR. CHARLES F. ADAMS'S ADVICE TO THE BOERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It seems unlikely that men who are fighting for national existence and who have been made more desperate by the burning of their homes and the deaths of their wives and children in prison camps, will lay down their arms in deference to any historical example, however apposite. But is the historical example adduced by Mr. Charles Francis Adams really apposite? Had the Confederates anything like such a field for guerrilla warfare as the Boers have? Were the Southern whites in general sustained by anything like the patriotic and religious spirit of the Boer? There is a third and a still more important point of difference. The demeanor of the Federal Government, its generals, and the Northern people generally towards the vanquished Confederates was generous and magnanimous. They did not insolently insist on abject and humiliating submission. Nor did the Federal press and platform pour a torrent of bloodthirsty insult and menace on the fallen. There was no hanging for "disloyalty" or driving of friends and kinsmen to attend the executions. Nor was Ben Butler sent to govern the conquered South with arbitrary power, though he could not have been more hateful to the Southerner than Milner is to the Boers.

Milner avows that, as Governor of the Cape Town Colony, he sided with the British "Loyalists," as they call themselves, against the Dutch. Has he, then, a moral right to hang Dutch sympathizers with the Boers as traitors? Equity.

November 25.

THE SOUTHERN SYMPATHIZERS WITH TAMMANY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While the good people of New York city are feeling jubilant over the result of the late election, that part of the Southern forces which gave its moral support to the Tammany candidate, and which urged "the Southern colony" in your city to vote the ticket that would perpetuate in power the present corrupt administration, are now, with some of the Southern politicians, mourning over the overthrow of their ancient ally. Thus, according to the Savannah *Morning News*, the State Treasurer of Georgia considers the result of the New York election as a national calamity; the Governor of Georgia, according to the same paper, expresses similar views, and gives it as his opinion that the worst Democrat is better than the best Republican. Such views are probably in harmony with the spirit that caused, at the late election in Alabama, the disfranchisement of 95 per cent. of its colored voters, on the assumption that a vote in the hands of the most ignorant and debased white Democrat is safer to the politician than one in the hands, for example, of a Tuskegee graduate. A Sojourner.

Savannah, Ga., November 20. 1901.

MALAHACK AND BALLYHACK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In one city of New England, and more than half a century ago, the phrase "Go to Ballyhack" (or "to Balahack") was in use among the young, as a general rejoinder. If memory does not mislead me, the expression "Don't Balahack it now," seems familiar, too.

Mallyhack, I never heard, but the discussion in the *Nation* reminded me of the old use, and I have waited, hoping some one else might recall what may be the older form. Balahack suggests an origin on this side, possibly. Old England.

Wokingham, Eng., November 12, 1901.

Notes.

Mr. T. W. Higginson's speech at Winchester, England, as Harvard's representative, has prompted Mr. A. R. Waller to translate for Christmas publication, through H. Wilford Bell, Hastings House, Norfolk Street, Strand, London, Mme. Th. Bentzon's paper on Mr. Higginson, "Un Américain Représentatif," which appeared originally in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and afterwards in her "Questions Américaines." A small volume will be the result.

Messrs. Scribner have nearly ready 'The Great Persian War and its Preliminaries: A Study of the Evidence, Literary and Topographical,' by G. B. Grundy, M.A., Lecturer at Brasenose College.

Fresh announcements from John Lane are 'Jane Austen: Her Homes and her Friends,' by Constance Hill, with illustrations by Ellen Hill; 'A Field of Clover,' fairy tales by Laurence Housman; 'Later Poems,' by Mrs. Alice Meynell; and Bacon's essay, 'Of Gardens.'

The Elston Press, Pelham Road, New Rochelle, N. Y., has lately suffered loss by fire of the entire impression of a folio edition of 'Piers Plowman.' The handpresses and type, however, having been saved, the work has been begun anew and completed in a limited edition of 200 copies. It is to be followed, before the holidays, by 'The Tale of Gamelyn' (fourteenth century), in as many copies, and the Sonnets of Shakspere reprinted in the original spelling from the first edition of 1609.

Forthcoming in Small, Maynard & Co.'s pocket "Beacon Biographies" are 'Hamilton,' by Prof. James Schouler; 'Longfellow,' by Prof. George R. Carpenter; 'Edwin Booth,' by Charles Townsend Copeland; and 'S. F. B. Morse,' by Prof. John Trowbridge.

It never rains but it pours, and so already we have the season's second edition of Lamb's 'Tales from Shakspere' (London and New York: Raphael Tuck & Sons). But it has a distinction quite its own, being in two large octavo volumes elaborately illustrated, and supplied by Dr. Furnivall not only with a general historic-bibliographical introduction, and special introductions for each Tale, but with supplementary "sketches" for "Love's Labor's Lost" and "The Merry Wives," as well as for four of

the five tragedies not told by Charles Lamb. These sketches make no pretence to compare in literary form with the Tales, and are, in fact, hardly calculated for the young at all, except so far as they have in mind "the young person" and eliminate what is objectionable. Perhaps this combination of talents may end in a reclassification of the Tales out of "Juvenilia." There are two frontispieces—the Droeshout Shakspere and a photogravure of Dr. Furnivall; a portrait group of Charles and Mary Lamb; and numerous illustrations by Harold Copping, full-plate and in the text, above the average in quality, and the best very good indeed. The typography is bold and clear.

There is a Lilliputian army of good books which can with difficulty be more than enumerated, such as the delectable series in embossed buff leatherette issued by the Century Co., now augmented by the 'Odes of Horace: Translations from the Latin by Various Authors, Selected and Edited by Benjamin E. Smith,' sometimes in duplicate or triplicate, as when Milton and Goldwin Smith compete over the Ode to Pyrrha; and by 'Lincoln: Passages from his Speeches and Letters, with an Introduction by Richard Watson Gilder' and a portrait. Then there is Mr. John Lane's purple and gold "Lover's Library," with its 'Love Poems of Robert Burns' and 'Love Poems of Mrs. Browning,' including the Sonnets from the Portuguese. On a larger scale, by the way, though still handy, is the same publisher's reprint of Mrs. Browning's 'Casa Guidi Windows,' with a rather chilling introduction by A. Mary F. Robinson (Mme. Duclaux), and a view of Casa Guidi. Mr. Lane further extends his "Flowers of Parnassus" with Pope's 'Rape of the Lock,' with Aubrey Beardsley's grotesque illustrations; and Tennyson's 'Dream of Fair Women,' with illustrations by Percy Bulcock. Finally, he concludes his tiny edition of George Borrow with 'The Zincali,' an account of the Gypsies of Spain. Here the compression trenches decidedly upon the readability of the text. Scarcely up to the standard of the generality of the foregoing, yet still presentable, are Gray's 'Elegy [and Other Poems]' and Matthew Arnold's 'Sweetness and Light' proceeding from H. M. Caldwell & Co. ("Remarque Edition"), along with 'Selections from Fénelon' and 'Wit and Wisdom of Sidney Smith,' this last in a very attractive limp chamois binding.

In 16mo form is the new Oxford India Paper Dickens, begun with 'A Tale of Two Cities,' with Phiz's illustrations (H. Frowde); but the compact volume really embraces also 'A Child's History of England.' It is hardly to be believed that nearly 850 pages are so compactly bestowed. The seventeen volumes contemplated in all will thus exact but a little more than a foot of space upon the shelf.

Fleming H. Revell Company have thought Mrs. Sangster's 'Winsome Womanhood,' of which we spoke last year, worthy of a dress in keeping with gift-books, and have accordingly reproduced it somewhat sumptuously, with pale tinted borders, and impressionistic portrait studies from life by William Buckingham Dyer.

Mr. Howells has sat in judgment on his 'Italian Journeys' for a new edition with Mr. Joseph Pennell's illustrations (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). He has pruned it of youthful faults of affectation, and offers it as much worthier of credence than before. Mr. Pennell's designs appear to have suffered at some stage in the reproduction, and are only occasionally at his best level.

Flaubert's 'Salammbô,' translated by J. W. Matthews, has been attractively brought out by Doubleday, Page & Co., in the nineteenth-century series of French novels edited by A. R. Waller in conjunction with Arthur Symons. Flaubert's portrait serves as frontispiece.

An anonymous translation of a once popular set of stories by Eugène Sue is issued, under the title of 'The Seven Cardinal Sins,' by the H. M. Caldwell Company, in five presentable volumes. Such an attempt at revival can hope for little better than a feeble *succès d'estime* with the few who still remember the vogue of Sue's greater novels some two generations ago. The ambitious pretensions of their special pleadings have long since been superseded; and the somewhat vulgar bourgeois epicureanism of the present collection is equally out of date in tone, if not in spirit. Entertainment they may here and there present, as in the story of 'Gluttony,' with its descriptions of dainties even more appetizing than the Gargantuan feasts of 'L'Ami Fritz.' The language offers so few difficulties that a more perfectly equipped translator would easily have avoided the error of mistaking *Luxure* for Luxury; but the present *traditore* has possibly forgotten his catechism.

Although not a book to be taken with great seriousness, yet the 'History of American Art,' by Sadakichi Hartmann (Boston: L. C. Page & Co.), is in some respects a better work than might have been expected. There is considerable catholicity of judgment shown in it, and there are a good many bits of shrewd judgment and of acute characterization of individual artists. On the other hand, the arrangement is confused and confusing, the statements sometimes reckless in the extreme, and there are pages of "wild and whirling words," not to say of absolute nonsense. Dignity, balance, and reserve are certainly not its qualities, but it might almost be recommended, in the absence of anything better, if it were not for certain passages with regard to the sculptor Saint-Gaudens which are not only untrue, but are calculated to do the more harm as they are disguised under the semblance of praise.

From the same publishers comes 'Beautiful Women in Art,' translated from the French of Armand Dayot by H. Twitchell. The plates show us many beautiful women, many pretty women, a number that are neither one thing nor the other, and some that are downright plain. Some are great works of art that are not portraits, some are portraits that are not works of art, and some are both at once. There is a running commentary of text that need not be read with seriousness. The print and paper are good, the binding gay (not to say gaudy), and the whole forms a gift-book which to those who like that sort of thing will be just what they like. Both these books are in two volumes.

So long as birds build nests will the thoughts of young married people in the cities turn to the making of country homes. This truth has been appreciated by Mr. J. P. Mowbray, who, under the title 'The Making of a Country Home' (Doubleday, Page & Co.), draws a pretty picture of an adventure of this kind. He declares that the story is the record of an ordinary man's successful efforts, and there is no doubt concerning the possibility of success under the conditions here given. At all events, Mr. Mowbray's story is probable, and told so agreeably as to justify his hope that it may "encourage and stimulate other ordinary men who have the capacity to long for a home."

The arrangement of Mr. H. W. Huntington's 'The Show Dog' (Providence, R. I.: Remington Printing Co.) is simple and excellent, the dogs being described in their alphabetical sequence, beginning with the Airedale terrier, the biggest and certainly not far from the least desirable of its kind, and ending with the Yorkshire terrier. There is a good illustration (and often more than one) of every breed of dog described. The text begins with the origin and uses of each breed, followed by the "standard" and "scale of points adopted by the specialty club of that particular breed," concluding with the "Comments," which give the general information of use to the large body of mankind that takes no particular interest in "show dogs." There is, apparently, no dog that is not treated in the work, and the numerous illustrations, which are all portraits, are very good, indeed. The last few pages contain excellent advice for the "treatment of the dog, in health and in sickness"—brief, sensible, and plain, and applicable alike to the highest bred and most useless toy terrier and the cur of low degree.

'A Synopsis of the Mammals of North America and the Adjacent Seas,' by Daniel Giraud Elliot (vol. ii. of the Zoölogical Series of Publications of the Field Columbian Museum), an illustrated octavo of 471 pages, is a work of much interest for the mammalogist. Its text is entirely descriptive and technical; the illustrations are mostly of skulls and dentition. The volume is intended only for the expert, makes no attempt to bring up the synonymy, and contains nothing of popular interest. Absence of keys to the subdivisions of the mammalia makes it less available for those not well versed in the subject. Excepting minor errors, like Didpodomys for Dipodomys, Nycticejus for Nycticeius, and Stynegeri for Stejnegeri, the book makes a very good appearance.

A stupendous mass of discoveries are made yearly in higher mathematics; but, for the most part, they may be wholly neglected, as far as any treatment of practical problems is concerned. This does not seem to be the case with Hilbert's new substitute for the calculus of variations, the application of which to simple problems of integral maxima and minima is explained in Dr. Charles A. Noble's Göttingen doctoral dissertation, entitled 'Eine Neue Methode in der Variationsrechnung,' to which it seems worth while to draw attention.

In the *National Geographic Magazine* for November is a suggestive study of the sex, nativity, and color of our people, illustrated by diagrams. There are numerous geographical notes, including two on Alaskan names—Kodiak, as the Geographic Board now spells it, and Cape Nome, which is simply a draughtsman's interpretation of the marks ("? Name") put against the

cape on the original manuscript chart made on the Franklin rescue-ship H. M. frigate *Herald* in 1845-'51.

The *Geographical Journal* for November contains an account of a journey in Oman in southeastern Arabia, which is interesting as showing the natural capacity of the people, especially in their admirable mountain roads and hanging gardens irrigated by artificial underground water-courses. A certain strength of character is also indicated by the fact that a feud exists between two tribes which had its origin in a horse race in 562 A. D. The name Green Mountain, which its now barren range bears, makes it probable that deforestation in ancient times has desolated the larger part of the region. Mr. Archibald Little describes a voyage in flood-time through the four great gorges of the Upper Yang-tse. Its most curious incident was the passing over the site of a manufacturing city "which is annually submerged each summer and again annually reconstructed each winter as the water subsides." He mentions also seeing a Government steamer which was carrying munitions of war from Shanghai to Chêngtu, and adds—"of which a continuous stream, including machine-guns, has been flowing west for two years past." Other articles are upon the British Association's geographical sessions, and Mr. Dickson's paper on the mean temperature of the atmosphere and the causes of glacial periods. In a note on progress in Rhodesia, it is stated that 2,734 miles of roads have been constructed.

While Germany is still timidly experimenting with the admission of girls to the secondary schools that open the way to the universities, and, of the twenty-five States that compose the empire, only three —namely, Oldenburg, Baden, and very recently Würtemberg—have introduced co-education in institutions, Sweden is already celebrating the twenty-fifth anniversary of the successful inauguration of this innovation. The famous Palmgren Gymnasium in Stockholm was founded in 1876 by Dr. Palmgren for the very purpose of demonstrating that boys and girls can be successfully educated together in the secondary schools; it has become the model for many others in Sweden, Norway, and Finland. It is a complete classical Gymnasium, a semi-classical Realgymnasium, and a scientific Oberrealschule. The attendance averages 200, about equally divided as to sex, in ages from six to twenty years. Not only are boys and girls taught in the same class, but they are seated together. The total teaching force is seventy-five, of whom half are women; the latter teaching in the higher as well as in the lower classes. Originally founded as a private undertaking, the school has gradually won the approval of the authorities, and in recent years has received some $2,000 annually from the state. The quarter-centennial of this, the first co-educational secondary school in Europe, has attracted the general attention of European educational circles.

By a slip of the pen last week, we attributed otherwise than to Macmillan, for this market, the pretty Dent edition of Thackeray's 'Vanity Fair.'

—The Life of Mary Rich, Countess of Warwick, in the "Saintly Lives" Series (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.), affords an instructive, if not entertaining, glimpse of family life in the seventeenth century. As one of the fifteen children of Richard Boyle, Earl of Cork, Mary Boyle, before her marriage with Charles Rich, passed her early girlhood in Ireland on Lord Cork's estate at Youghal. There, too, was born her brother, Robert Boyle, the most illustrious of the clan, closely associated with the founding of the Royal Society. Of him we hear too little in this memoir. The Boyles were a scattered family, and their alliances and fortunes are a bewildering piece of history. When Charles Rich succeeded to the Earldom of Warwick, the saintly life as practised by his wife was well begun. It is a most sober record, this life of a wealthy countess in the gay reigns of Charles the First and Second. The episode of the Protectorate did not affect the fortunes of the Warwicks, whose sympathies were on the whole Puritan. They lived a well-ordered, peaceful existence at their beautiful house, Leighs Priory in Essex, and the surprising lack of incident in this volume proves how happy they were in standing aside from the making of the troublous history of the times. The Riches have died out, and Leighs Priory is a ruin; the great estates of those earlier Warwicks who had no stake in the Midlands having been divided and dissipated. The tale of their fortunes does not make exciting reading, but the antiquarian and historian of the seventeenth century might do worse than glance through these pages. Pious and eminently worthy of esteem as was Mary Rich, it is her father Lord Cork's figure that gives force and value to the earlier chapters of the book, which fall off in interest when Mary usurps the foreground.

—Persons who are in the way of writing French will find the 'Concise French Grammar' of Mr. Arthur H. Wall (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde) convenient, owing to its embodying the effect of the *Arrêté* of July 31, 1900, so that, for example, they not only must, as formerly, write, "Cette dame est *toute* gracieuse," but *may* write, "Cette dame est *toute* aimable." We do not think, by the way, that the permission to write "Ces dames sont *toutes* aimables" for "Ces dames sont *tout* aimables" will be felt to be an advantage by anybody; but some of the old rules were certainly intolerably senseless. We observe that Mr. Wall says that "neither rules nor explanations are of much practical value" in guiding us to the preposition that ought to accompany an infinitive following a verb. That, perhaps, depends upon how much "much" means. We are certainly dominated in the matter by psychological principles of association which to a certain extent follow formulas. No rule can be given which will dispense with the necessity of learning the construction of each verb along with its signification. To trust to any rule would be much like trusting to the English or Latin for the precise import of the word. But as nobody would deny that the recollection of the Latin meaning does help us to remember the meaning of a corresponding French or English word, so rules can be given which will aid very much in retaining the French construction, even when it is exceptional. Without doubt, subconscious rules there are in the minds of people who talk French, sometimes without their being able to say two minutes later what preposition they had employed. The little volume of two hundred and fifty pages well deserves recommendation, and is wholly free from the nonsense that fills the pages of Girault-Duvivier and even Bescherelles—nonsense not without its utility, however.

—The sixteenth number of Cornell Studies in Classical Philology ('The Epigraphical Evidence for the Reigns of Vespasian and Titus'), by Homer Curtis Newton (Macmillan), differs from other publications in this series in that they are devoted mainly to questions of a philological character. The author has gathered more than three hundred and fifty inscriptions, which he has arranged under twenty-eight different headings—as satisfactory a classification as we have a right to expect in view of the diverse character of the material employed. The basis of selection is chronological. Twenty-nine inscriptions refer to the censorship; twenty-two to the Jewish War; thirty-seven are from mile-stones and bridges; twenty relate to the erection of buildings. There are seven military diplomas which grant privileges of marriage and citizenship, and two state letters of the Emperor Vespasian. All these vary in length and in importance, from the text of the inscription of the College of the Arval Brotherhood and the famous *Lex de Imperio* to the few words of trifling value on a tombstone or wall inscription. The various classes are accompanied by brief explanatory statements, and although there are abundant footnotes, there is no attempt at writing a commentary, or indicating what special value each inscription has in the study of the history of the period. The text is printed in ordinary type, but the abbreviations are not regularly filled out, and in consequence the Latin can be read only by one familiar with epigraphic symbols. The most impressive lesson of this excellent thesis is that epigraphy holds an important place in the study of the history of Rome, inasmuch as it is seen to correct generally accepted theories; to determine with certainty many disputed points, and to supplement the knowledge we already possess by adding innumerable facts which can be obtained from no other source.

—When the dream-day of the Americanist comes true, and university students abandon the study of Assyrian cuneiforms in order to listen to the professors who will expound the meaning of the more picturesque Mexican hieroglyphics, there will be a place high in the list of American patrons of learning for the name of Joseph Florimond, Duke of Loubat. It is not easy to estimate fairly the value of services rendered, as his have been, to a branch of learning which has as yet attracted the attention of very few students whose work is recognized as worthy by other scholars. There have been more than enough of imaginative lovers of the curious and the uncertain who have printed books about American antiquities, and who enjoy the distinction of ventilating ideas which nobody can contravene. The subject, nevertheless, remains worthy of investigation, despite the character of those whose pseudo-scholarship has made it a by-word. Whatever the significance of the puzzling picture-writings of Central America may be, so long as their meaning is not known, American scholarship, which has contributed so freely to the solution of the prob-

lems of the older world, will not have done its duty to its own. It is, indeed, less than ten years since the materials for definite and satisfactory study of the earliest American records have begun to be accessible to students in America. Of the pre-Columbian codices, all but one have now, however, been reproduced by chromo-photography, and, with a single exception, this has been done entirely at the expense of the Duke of Loubat, who has carefully placed his facsimiles in all the larger libraries. The next step is to find out what these eight or nine picture-books mean. A beginning has already been made, and it may confidently be stated that a few well-established facts have taken the place of the guesses and suggestions of a decade ago. Dr. Seler of Berlin, who occupies the chair of American linguistics, ethnography and antiquities, endowed by the Duke of Loubat, has succeeded in showing how these documents should, in all probability, be read, and he has demonstrated the general character of their contents. His detailed analysis of the Aubin Tonalamatl, or 'Book of Good and Evil Days,' published in 1900 as an introduction to the Loubat facsimile of that document, brought the discussion of these problems forward to a point where the main principles of their interpretation may be considered as well established. He is now at work upon a similar examination of the Codex Fejérváry-Mayer in the Liverpool Public Museums, the reproduction of which completes the facsimiles issued by the Duke, until such time as he can arrange with the Vienna Hofbibliothek for the use of the Codex preserved there, the only one not accessible in exact modern facsimile. Dr. Seler is slowly establishing the exact meaning, as well as something of the connotation, of the separate symbols. Each new point means additional light upon the underlying significance of the whole, and this in turn gives the investigator a better appreciation of the habits of thought, the ways and the customs of the American peoples who evolved these most puzzling of human documents.

—By the sudden death of Bernhard Getz, the Attorney-General of Norway, on the 1st of November, not only his own country loses one of its foremost sons, but Europe one of its leading contemporaneous jurists. His name will for ever be linked with the reintroduction of the system of trial by jury into Norway, for during the union with Denmark the old talesmen system was entirely obliterated and a bureaucratic system, with judges (appointed by the King) dispensing law both *in jure* and *in judicio*, replaced it, and it took many years of severe political fighting to bring about the establishment of trial by jury in criminal matters. Getz was the chief author of the jury law, and, by allowing himself to be transferred from the University, where he had since his twenty-sixth year been teaching law, and had been engaged in scientific labors of the highest merit in the field of criminal and civil law, he assumed charge of putting the new system in force. Nothing could more clearly prove his high standing in the estimation of his countrymen than the fact that, although belonging to the Conservative party, he was thus chosen to superintend the introduction of a reform which the Liberal party had for years been striving for. Trial by jury once firmly established, Getz was relieved of his duties in connection with it in order to devote his time and efforts exclusively to preparing new laws, more especially a criminal code, which is expected to be shortly approved by the Storthing, and a code of civil procedure, which as yet exists only in a draft. The former of these works, which not only embodies what is best in the criminal legislation of other countries, but also advances new and original ideas, places the Norwegian penal legislation in the front rank of the world's present development in that line. Besides these signal achievements, Getz was the prime mover in a great variety of criminal reforms in his native country; and this has influenced legislation both in the other Scandinavian countries and in Europe at large. He combined with scientific acumen and a judicial mind a noble character, and a sense of fairness often thought to be incompatible with the highest justice. He was a man of wide interests, and was a member of the committee appointed by the Norwegian Storthing which will shortly award the Nobel peace prize.

SCUDDER'S LOWELL.

James Russell Lowell: A Biography. By Horace Elisha Scudder. In two volumes. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901.

In advance of Mr. Scudder's biography it seemed hardly possible that he could make a life of Lowell so interesting and important as the book he has produced. For the very reason that Lowell's Letters as edited by Mr. Norton were so good, it seemed that, without drawing largely upon them (which presumably Mr. Scudder would not do), his book must suffer in comparison with Mr. Norton's. That it does so from one point of view is not to be denied. It does not give us another instalment of the same kind of pleasure. But it was not to be expected that it would. It does, however, give abundant pleasure of another kind. It is an excellent biography. As such, it adds a considerable number to the letters published in Mr. Norton's volumes—many of them as good as any published there; some causing us to wonder much why Mr. Norton left them out. Here and there we have parts of the Norton letters which Mr. Norton omitted, and which sometimes impress us as the best wool of the sheep. In general, Mr. Scudder does not so much appear to be gleaning after Mr. Norton as to be reaping new though narrower fields. But he has availed himself of many sources besides Lowell's Letters. Of these the most important are Lowell's published works, with an occasional foray, never once reprehensible, on the unpublished things.

To a large extent Mr. Scudder's biography is an intelligent comment upon these, while, by keeping them continually in our mind, and often sending us back to them for a fresh impression, he assures us a volume of enjoyment that is extremely full and rich. Incidentally we have Lowell's writings related to the changes and vicissitudes of his life, and primarily we have the course of that life and the attendant spiritual growth—if "development" would not be a more proper and less question-begging word. It is important to observe that Mr. Scudder's sympathies go out somewhat more cordially to the later and more conservative temper of Lowell's mind than to the earlier and more radical, but in the main he makes himself remarkably translucent to the poet's personality and thought.

Our confidence in the dominance of hereditary traits has had its ups and downs since Buckle's flouting of it, but there was a good deal in Lowell's ancestry to prepare for him the sources of his various powers. The poet part was prophesied by his mother's love of ballads and old songs, and by strains of blood that came down from Orkney Islanders, with their salt wind to savor it. There are hints of possible connections with Sir Patrick Spens, whose distinction ballad-wise is of the best; and Minna Troil, who walks the pages of Scott's 'Pirate' like a thing of life. Had there been any truth in the charge of Anglomania brought against Lowell in his latest years, the disease would clearly have been inherited from his grandmother Spence, who remained a Tory till her death, and on every Independence Day put on black, fasted, and lamented "our late unhappy differences with his most gracious Majesty."

The child's paternity of his manhood in Lowell's case was not remarkable, or the evidences of it were not treasured up for Mr. Scudder's use. The impression of his college life is even less favorable than heretofore. He read and wrote poetry to a degree that made the direction of his talent sufficiently plain; but his conceit of his acquirements and abilities was insufferable, and so, too, his habit of summoning his friends to share the ardor of his self-appreciation. It was a doubtful venture for him when his parents went abroad during his last year in college and left him to shift very much for himself. His father proposed a sliding scale of cash rewards for his fidelity and success in his studies, but he was not to be taken in so base a snare. His rustication shortly before the end of his college course was the penalty for gross neglect of his college duties, culminating in a too conspicuous gayety at college prayers over his election as class poet, which had just taken place. This prevented his reading the poem on class day, and into the printed form he introduced a condemnatory passage on Emerson's Divinity School address. The offence was greater because, while rusticating at Concord, he enjoyed Emerson's hospitality. Worst of all was the letter he wrote to Emerson to justify himself. He deserved that "impulse from a vernal wood" of which he wrote so feelingly in his later years. Of course, we must remember that the Emerson of 1838 was not quite the Emerson whom we revere. Mr. Scudder reminds us that "in 1838 Emerson had published little." But he had published 'Nature,' the Phi Beta address of 1837, and the Divinity School address—three things which he did not at any time surpass. In due time Lowell wrote in glowing praise of the Phi Beta oration: "What crowded and breathless aisles, what windows clustering with eager heads, what enthusiasm of approval, what grim silence of foregone dissent." But it now looks as if we had here an emotion manufactured in tranquillity. We miss the current notion, which we had supposed a sound one, that Lowell's Concord tutor, the Rev. Barzillai Frost, sat for the

portrait of Parson Wilbur in the 'Biglow Papers.'

The year following Lowell's Concord penance was one of vacillation; the ministry and the law attracted him by turns, while his literary passion made him about equally indifferent to both. But Mr. Scudder admits us to the deeper meanings of an agitation which began in 1837, and lasted for two years. In his junior year "Lowell had met and had fallen fiercely in love with a beautiful girl," and his enforced separation from her drove him to wild and suicidal thoughts, and broke up his mind into a cross-sea of warring purposes, making a toy and well-nigh a ruin of his will. After the false dawn came the true—his love for Maria White—which began in 1840, and, until her death, in 1853, was the most potent inspiration of his life. It is impossible to overrate the influence of this lovely woman upon Lowell. Their engagement was an idyll in which "the Band"—a circle of admiring friends—took joyous part; their marriage, with its small and great vicissitudes, was one of perfect sympathy, yet made so by the sweet compulsion of the wife, whose thoughts and aspirations and ideals became the husband's by a kind of fond adoption, not quite his very own.

Mr. Scudder's ample chapter, "In the Anti-Slavery Ranks" (following one on "First Ventures," which abounds in the peculiar charm of such ventures), is a suggestive comment on this aspect of Lowell's life. His sympathy with Lowell's anti-slavery works and ways does not bring him quite to Lowell's feeling of their "infinite satisfactions." He is even a little jealous of their distraction of the poet from "his own noble calling." But the fact would seem to be that Lowell's anti-slavery zeal, inspired by Maria White, not only saved him from going hopelessly wrong on the main question of his time, but made the poet in him more than he would otherwise have been; the operation in this case being partly matched in Whittier's. It is not only that the 'Biglow Papers' were the best product of the younger, as the second series of them and the Commemoration Ode of the older, man, but that they stirred a nature, not readily self-stirred, to an activity which did not stop with the immediate end. Lowell's feeling for Garrison was one of exalted admiration, finding its best expression in the poem—

"In a small chamber, friendless and unseen."

The incident which occasioned this poem was fruitful of another couched in more humorous form, for Mr. Scudder's reproduction of which we are truly thankful. His disposition to save that which was lost has other good examples, but Lowell's "Infant Prodigy" of our later politics, which might well have been one of them, is not. It is interesting to find Lowell placing Garrison's name at the head of his list of gift-copies of his 'Conversations with the Poets.' But, as time went on there was clearly some detachment—less from Garrison than from the methods of his work—until, in the later fifties, we find Lowell thoroughly political in his anti-slavery ideals, and tolerably complacent with the baser elements that were coming in to swell the tide of the Republican vote; in like manner with Emerson, who said, "We must fetch the pump with dirty water if clean cannot be had."

The 'Fable for Critics' and the 'Biglow Papers' have a chapter to themselves, in no wise disappointing, except for those who crave one more discussion of the New England dialect, from which Mr. Scudder has judiciously refrained. It was a piece of singular good fortune for the abolitionists that Hosea got the laugh, which had been at their expense, debited to their pro-slavery opponents. The 'Biglow Papers' did something to obscure the 'Fable' in popular estimation, and 'Sir Launfal' was a rival to them both. Mr. Scudder notes "the subterranean passage connecting the 'Biglow Papers' with 'Sir Launfal' "—"the holy zeal which attacks slavery issuing in this fable of a beautiful charity." No one will charge Mr. Scudder with overrating the 'Fable.' But he is able to fortify his own with Lowell's opinion of its transient quality as a spurt of intellectual effervescence. Very pathetic were Lowell's hopes of its financial proceeds, of which his friend Charles F. Briggs was to be sole beneficiary. "It is to be feared," says Mr. Scudder, "that Mr. Briggs's golden eggs were addled." But why not state the simple fact that the net gains were melted down into a little silver plate, which Mr. Briggs's daughter now cherishes as of priceless worth?

The ravelled sleave of Lowell's lesser literary cares, together with his personal sorrows and anxieties, is knit up in a chapter on the "Six Years" from 1845 to 1851. We next have "Fifteen Months in Europe"; the return voyage with Thackeray and Clough for shipmates their most genial incident. Mr. Scudder calls his next chapter "An End and a Beginning," and the title is extremely apt. The end was of the first Lowell, spontaneous, eager, productive, passionately enlisted in the century's greatest and most unpopular reform; the beginning was that of the second Lowell, perhaps a wiser, certainly a sadder man, far less spontaneous and exuberant, much more conservative, and remote from common, homely ways. There was cause enough for the sadness. In 1853 he had already lost three of four children, and in that year the Alpine shepherdess went seeking for her missing lambs. Perhaps the temperamental change in Lowell was mainly to his maturity from his early prime; but the loss of the wife's influence was more significant. In due time he rebuilt his family altar, and the second wife was worthy of her place as his co-minister thereat, though one defect of her sympathy was tragical: she did not enjoy Lowell's humor! The second series of 'Biglow Papers' was written under the interdict of her disapprobation.

There was for Lowell a region of thick darkness bordering on the death of his first wife. To learn how his invention failed, we need only turn to the appendix and compare with 1848, his *annus mirabilis*, the slim product of the years 1851-1858. Meantime, the Harvard professorship was taken up and pursued with faithful devotion to its appropriate tasks. Always needing the spur of an external stimulant, the intellectual life of Lowell owed much to the *Atlantic Monthly*, the *North American*, and, passing from small things to great, the Civil War. Here was pressure for a naturally sluggish will, strenuous when once aroused; here was the conversion of what might otherwise have been his "drowsy days" to days of splendid and efficient intellectual activity. He became a great political essayist, economizing so the apprenticeship which he had served on the *Anti-Slavery Standard*. The prose writer gained steadily upon the poet, and the gain was in the direction of a less poetic prose, with less of that coruscation which dazzled the reader more than it illuminated for him the writer's thought. His first political writing in the *Atlantic* was a postscript to an excellent but very quiet article by Parke Godwin, without any note of warning. The discriminating reader must have wondered what had happened to the essayist, and have surmised the intervention of a bottle of champagne or a brisk morning walk. Lowell's growing appreciation of Lincoln is an important trait. A good many will be grieved to learn that the great Lincoln passage in the "Commemoration Ode" was not a part of it when it was first read by its author, but was written subsequently. The "Ode" was the product of a certain fury of obsession, under the stress of which the most of it was written in one day, 523 lines in six hours. 'The Cathedral' marks another episode, on which we would gladly have had some more elaborate comment.

There are many aspects of Mr. Scudder's serious and satisfying work that cannot be alluded to within the limits of our present space. Among these are the poet's growing sense that "there is something magnificent in having a country to love," showing itself increasingly in his contempt for those who dragged her garlands in the mire; the Spanish and English missions, less important as we see them in this large perspective than they seemed to Lowell at the time. It is amusing to find how fully he was sympathizing with the Irishmen when they were pelting him with coarse abuse; how touchy he was to any slighting word about America when he was being charged with Anglican preoccupation; and how securely one who had so long skirted the coasts of Bohemia, steered his adventurous craft through that Philistia which abounds in dangerous reefs and shoals. The final impression is that Lowell's personality was remarkably subtle and elusive and complex; that between his temperament and his conscience there was much opposition; and that he most deserves our praise because he subjected the former to the latter in an heroic manner and to a significant degree, while still it was the temperament, not simple, but sensuous and impassioned, which assured us the poet, and assures now the afterglow of a perennial satisfaction and delight.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Tory Lover. By Sarah Orne Jewett. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901.

The Battle Invisible. By Eleanor C. Reed. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1901.

A Friend with the Countersign. By B. K. Benson. Macmillan. 1901.

The Ruling Passion: Tales of Nature and Human Nature. By Henry van Dyke. With illustrations by W. Appleton Clark. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

A Man of Millions. By S. R. Keightley. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1901.

The Benefactress. By the author of 'Elizabeth and her German Garden.' The Macmillan Co. 1901.

It must be a mortal temptation to the veteran in other fields who beholds the country houses of the writers of the American historical novel, to take a hand and

prove that he, too, can play that fashionable game. One's *amour propre*, hardly less than one's pocket, is concerned in the competition. To such a temptation did Miss Jewett succumb when she wrote 'The Tory Lover,' which answers all the tests of that type of composition. The scene is Berwick, Me., in 1777. The heroine is a charming New England maiden of good lineage, set off by a background of spacious colonial mansion, lavish hospitality, and devoted retainers; her miniature, in the style of the period, adorns the front page. The hero, Roger Wallingford, is lucky in love and in nothing else. After passing through the conventional phase of unjust suspicion, imprisonment, and a visit to England, he is restored to his sweetheart by the sub-hero, in whom we encounter the historical personage essential for the local color. This is Paul Jones of the good ship *Ranger*, who, resourceful as D'Artagnan and unselfish as your genuine sub-hero, puts up with a career of glory without love, and helps his rival to Mary Hamilton's hand. "I could throw my hope of glory down at your feet now, if it were of any use," he cries; but a little later he meets the hero in distress. " 'Thank God, I have it in my power to make you amends!' he exclaimed. 'God bless you, Wallingford! Wait here for me one moment, my dear fellow,' he said with affection and disappeared"—to send in the heroine. The figure of Paul Jones is drawn with spirit, and so is the voyage of the *Ranger*. There is a rather unsuccessful attempt at an historical mystery over an Irish colonist of remarkable learning and exquisite manners, whose name, it appears, is one to conjure with, though it is not confided to the reader. Miss Jewett's name is a guarantee of conscientious work, but we hope that her undoubted success in turning out a novel of the prevalent kind will not induce her to change her *genre*.

Miss Reed's short stories of New England life have a certain style of their own. They are not artistic triumphs in the short-story type, but they have pathos and humor and not too much dialect. They are slightly sentimental, as New England stories, when they are not sordid, are apt to be. The life that they depict is, as usual, of a narrowness that is terrifying. We have no doubt that such a sketch as that called "Patience and Prudence" is done to the life. "Transplanted" is a painful but convincing study of a selfish New England girl of the period, whose ambition is to graduate at a school and outdress her neighbors—an ambition to which she does not hesitate to sacrifice her mother's life.

'A Friend with the Countersign' is a story of the civil war, with the war features constituting the dominant element, and the indispensable love-making of the average novel subordinated to a somewhat perfunctory part. Like a former book by the same author, 'Who Goes There?' of which this is substantially a continuation, although having an independent interest apart from its forerunner, it deals with the career of a soldier who has a genius for obtaining information vital to his commander's plans of campaign, and whose bodily hazards and severe mental strain in the course of his ventures within the enemy's lines offer the materials of a stirring narrative which borders sometimes upon the sensational, though without transcending the bounds of probability. Indeed, the story has all the characteristics of a record of actual experiences, aside from a few especially dramatic occurrences and eccentric personages; and the particulars of campaigns in Virginia in the period of Meade's headship of the army are presented with historical verisimilitude, as if they were transcripts from diaries and letters of men in the secret service. So there are little touches in illustration of peculiarities of manner and temper of Union generals with which army traditions are familiar, even though grave history omits notice of them. In view of the odium which has been brought upon the spy service by its often worthless statistical information, especially in the first period of the war, it is well that recognition should be given in literature to the genuine importance of the sacrifices of the rank and file of scouts, whose work was too obscure and confidential to be known by the world. 'A Friend with the Countersign,' by its simplicity and restraint and its many effective pictures of the battle line from the standpoint of the man in the ranks, makes a good beginning in this direction.

Dr. van Dyke's preface explains the scheme of his book, which, in short stories and through characters "chosen for the most part among plain people, because their feelings are expressed with fewer words and greater truth," tells about some of the "ruling passions" of life. The chief of these passions Dr. van Dyke says is romantic love, "Nature's masterpiece of beneficent selfishness"; but others play important parts, and guide and control the lives of men and women. Each story has for its basis the development, and influence on the lives of its possessor and others, of one of these overmastering elements of humanity. While it is often love that inspires the doings of the characters drawn by Dr. van Dyke, some of the stories end in happy nuptials, which are directly due to the possession and exercise by the hero or heroine of the qualities of truth, steadfastness, and courage. The scenes of most are laid in Canada, and in perhaps the strongest one, "A Lover of Music," the hero is a Canadian who has fled to the Adirondack woods, thinking he had killed a fellow-workman. "The Reward of Virtue" tells how one Patrick Mullarkey, who, "from the turned-up toes of his 'bottes sauvages' to the ends of his black moustache," was a Canadian Frenchman, was recompensed for giving up the use of tobacco. The abandonment of this vice was brought about by one "demoiselle Meelair," who was being guided by Patrick, and who began her work by telling him, when she observed him smoking, "that tobacco was a filthy weed, that it grew in the devil's garden, that it smelled bad, terribly bad, and that it made the air sick, and that even the pig would not eat it." This and more of the same kind not influencing Patrick, the next day "Mees Meelair" came to him as he was smoking his pipe after lunch, and thus spoke: "Patrique, my man, do you comprehend that the tobacco is a poison? You are committing the murder of yourself. Then she tells me many things—about the nicoline, I think she calls him, how he goes into the blood and into the bones, and how quickly he will kill the cat, and she says very strong, 'The man who smokes the tobacco shall die.'" The third day "Mees Meelair" brought forward other ineffectual arguments; but on the fourth—her text being, "The tobacco causes the poverty"—she showed Patrick that if he stopped smoking long enough, the money thereby saved and the interest thereon would amount to an enormous sum, and make it feasible for Patrick and his wife to accomplish the ambition of their lives by visiting Quebec, seeing the grand city and the shops, and going to the "asylum of the orphans to seek one of the little found children to bring home with us to be our own; for M'sieu knows it is the sadness of our house that we have no child." So Patrick stopped smoking and at once became the victim of a series of misfortunes, culminating in the destruction of his house and his money by fire. Seated with his wife by the ruins of his home, Patrick sought and found consolation in the resumption of smoking, and his reward came a year later when Angélique presented him with twins.

"A Friend of Justice" is the story of a dog, pathetic, and with a verisimilitude as strong as the narrative is fascinating to those who know of the hard summers and harder winters and lives of the dwellers on the bleak north shore of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. To admire Dr. van Dyke's descriptions of nature and of wild animal life it is not necessary for the reader to be ignorant of the places described, or of the habits and natures of their native inhabitants. He never tries to tell about things of which he has a partial knowledge or none, and his statements, especially those concerning trees, flowers, birds, and animals of the countries whereof he writes, will stand the test of expert criticism. All of this accurate knowledge is conveyed in the language and with the indescribable feeling that so few possess the power of using. The concluding story, "The Keeper of the Light," is a beautiful one, and an appropriate ending to a volume which is fully up to the high standard reached by the preceding works of Dr. van Dyke.

The 'Man of Millions' is distinctly a readable book. In the first place, it is well written, though by no means equally well printed. In the second place, the plot and characters are not without considerable interest. The hero, it is true, is a somewhat unconvincing compound of the Returning Prodigal and Monte Cristo. As the former, he melts into repentance under a few months' fire from the eyes of the heroine, a really charming young woman. As the latter, he has wealth untold, and enemies to punish, but meets his match in Ah Sin, who, being a Heathen Chinee, is more readily credited by the reader with the diabolical cruelty necessary to the plot. The other villains are old and tried friends in fiction, and scarcely require comment. The boy who saves the situation is rather an obnoxious person, and the reader resents his not having been long ago sent to a public school, as befits an English boy of fifteen. His league of blood is an echo of 'Tom Sawyer,' his fight of 'Tom Brown.' Yet the description of his rescuing the hero from the jaws of death is breathlessly thrilling. Very good, too, in their way, are the two scenes where the typical stage curate, who is "a man for a' that," proposes to the heroine, and where he roundly rebukes the hero. There is humor in the

account of the coroner, and real pathos, if not of a very novel order, in the secondary heroine's renunciation of the much-loved Percival. Scattered throughout the book are some clever epigrams, *e. g.*, "Friendship is the child of strong emotions"; "Marriage is sometimes the final testament of acquiescent despair"; "Love forms a small part of our lives; it makes a tremendous part of our literature."

"Elizabeth" has exchanged her name for that of Anna, and her "German Garden" for a German forest. At the opening 'The Benefactress' introduces us to the same enthusiastic sunny heroine as in the three preceding books, with the same delight in nature, the same sense of humor, the same incongruity in her German surroundings, and, above all, the same idea that Happiness and Duty are identical. The opening is by far the most attractive part. When Anna realized that "that was what one needed most, of all the gifts of the gods—not happiness—oh, foolish, childish dream! how could there be happiness so long as men were wicked?—but courage," she may have become a finer character, but she ceased to be the old Anna-Elizabeth. Whatever one may think of the moral clearly set forth on the front page in the motto, "One [*i. e.*, woman] needs guidance and the companionship of man," there is no doubt that to enforce any moral at all is quite a new development on the part of our author. Elizabeth existed beautifully, adored by her Man of Wrath and her three babies; her example was about as instructive as that of a butterfly. Anna, it is true, had from the first more unselfish yearnings. Yet nothing in the delicious humor of the opening chapters prepares us for the strenuous Spartan maiden of the close. The beginning is pure comedy, sometimes even farce; the end is tragedy or, at best, a Reconciliation-Play. The English sister-in-law, who disappears after the seventh chapter, is inimitable, perhaps next to the old parson the best character in the book. The German local color in the early descriptions is laid on with an unsparing hand by a keenly humorous artist; whether Germans would admit its truth is another question. The main idea of the home for distressed ladies is at first laid before the reader as a huge joke. It is not till the plan is actually in working that the author and reader come round to the serious and cynical views held by Axel, the unimpeachable hero. With a certain amount of impatience we realize, half way through the book, that Anna's scheme is foredoomed to failure, because the watchword, "Marriage above everything," must be proclaimed. Uncle Joachim voiced it at the beginning; the whole plot vociferates it loudly before the end. We lay the book down and cry out, Ichabod. We have gained a new "Tendenz" novelist, but we have lost the light-hearted Elizabeth, and the glory of the German garden is departed.

BOOKS FOR THE YOUNG.—II.

Mr. Oliver Herford's 'More Animals' (Scribners) proves that this humorist can not only invent a *genre*, but maintain it. Drawings and rhymes may even be thought to surpass the first series, and it is again hard to choose which is best. Mr. Herford's subtle playing to the adult gallery hardly diminishes the attractiveness of this book for children, who will readily listen to the reading of it in the twilight hour, and feel a fascination in its overmeanings. There is the Frog who "shows with each gymnastic spasm The convert's fresh enthusiasm"; the Camel, whose great girth mercifully forbids him to crawl through the needle's eye, else "Rich men might climb the golden stairs And so leave nothing to their heirs"; and, as for the maligned man-eater, if a list could only be made of those he might feed on, "No home, I'll venture to remark, Would be complete without a shark."

'Neighbors of Field, Wood, and Stream,' by Morton Grinnell (Frederick A. Stokes Co.), seeks to make natural history interesting to young readers by personifying animals, and letting them act out or relate in conversations their own life-histories. The author is a sportsman; consequently his best chapters are those about game animals—such, for instance, as the experience of Sora the Rail in the tide marsh where gunners are making big bags, and the exciting hunts of Rex the Setter, who tells how the delicious scent of the quail throws him into a nervous tremor, and roots him to the ground until his master comes near enough to get a shot. Outside the sportsman's province, however, Mr. Grinnell appears less at home. A book that aims to give instruction in zoölogy ought not to contain such mistakes as the statements that the raccoon cannot swim, that the house-wren's "clutch" of eggs numbers twenty, and that the toad is a reptile. In attempting, moreover, both to instruct and to entertain, he often steers a middle course between fact and fancy, losing the accuracy of one and the charm of the other. He associates the animals in unnatural groups, and makes them say and do things incongruous and even absurd. Imagine a bluejay's calling a chickadee a "black-headed bacillus." He cumbers his pages with moral lessons, many of which are unwarranted by the facts of biology, and some of which are distressingly labored; as where the tanager whose nest has been blown down comments on the gayety of an unsympathizing neighbor in the words, "Laugh and the world laughs with you; weep and you weep alone." Though the book contains a good deal of information about animals, it appears to be largely a compilation, and, like the subjects of some of its illustrations, is poorly stuffed.

A gay cover, bright-gold edges, plenty of Robinson pictures, and some of them colored, with a handful of the well-seasoned old stories, Andersen, Grimm, and Arabian Nights—in short, 'The Reign of King Cole,' by J. M. Gibbon (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan)—what more could a child wish for in a holiday book? To be sure, he must come to it fresh and unsophisticated, for that *enfant terrible*, the knowing child, might think it a grievance to find the identical old stories in his new book.

The observation that there is nothing new under the sun is more tiresomely true of fairy stories than of anything else; yet Mr. Andrew Lang finds the means to provide each year a book skilfully seasoned with enough of novelty to give the well-known themes fresh zest. His many-colored volumes are now so widely appreciated that one needs to say no more of this year's 'Violet Fairy Book' (Longmans) than that it is a worthy companion to the others. Many of its tales come from the still secluded countries of eastern Europe—that home of story and song; and all, it is easy to see, owe much of their charm to the taste with which they are retold.

'The Punishment of the Stingy' (Harpers) is the title of a group of Indian stories by George Bird Grinnell, who has lived among several Western tribes, and attempts to tell their mythical tales exactly as they have been passed along from father to son for generations. It is hard to believe that Mr. Grinnell's translation has not given a smoother literary form to some of the stories; but in others, again, the terse and somewhat broken style is convincingly Indian. The thorough originality of these stories will please young people who have grown tired of every-day fairy tales; while, in reading, they cannot fail to learn something of the primitive life of tribes whose ways are so remote from ours.

'A Real Queen's Fairy Tales,' by Carmen Sylva (Chicago: Davis & Co.), are really less fairy tales than charming little essays for children put into story form. Carmen Sylva herself is not hard to recognize in "The Helpful Queen," and who so like as she to that delightful fairy with the snow-white hair whose business was to make children happy? In short, without suffering loss of interest as stories, these tales bring to a child's comprehension much of the maturer philosophy of the good Queen, whose very attractive portrait, accompanied by a biographical sketch by George J. B. Davis, forms a fitting prelude to the book. It is a pity that a volume which carries so high-bred an air in essentials should be defaced by an "eye-splitting" cover, and ugly colored borders to the pictures.

'Round the World to Wympland,' by Evelyn Sharp (John Lane), is a collection of modern fairy-stories, old-fashioned in the sense of sparing that too obvious wit or moral which so often mars the latter-day tale. That the author refrains from smartness, and is content to use the serious tone approved by sensible children, is almost recommendation enough; but besides this she has the gift of imagination, and can make a story move right along. As for the "Wymps," they are merely rechristened elves or pyxies. The road to "Wympland" will hardly be found by reading this book, and all thoughts of further search had better be given up, since we are allowed to infer that naughtiness is the key to unlock the gate of that undiscovered country.

The 'Swedish Fairy Tales' of Anna Wahlenberg (McClurg) are also modern, and make use of brownies, goblins, etc., only for adornment and to point their morals. They are a little too ingenious to make the best impression on children. One of the five titles in the book, moreover, heads a sketch which has no trace of claim to be called a fairy tale.

A dozen fanciful yarns are wound together into 'Stories of Enchantment' by Jane Pentzer Myers (McClurg). Indian lore tinges two or three; others have a touch of negro mystery; one looks backward and sees a dim vision of old Egypt, while mediæval Ireland colors yet another. So there is no monotony of scene.

Br'er Rabbit finds his analogue in the

wonderful hare of Mr. George Bateman's 'Zanzibar Tales' (McClurg). The lion and the hyena replace Br'er Fox and Br'er Wolf, but the two African stories are plainly the same, though one is told in Georgia and the other in Zanzibar. The roc of Arabian Nights fame and capable "Puss in Boots" have also their reminders among these tales. Indeed, the strong family resemblance they bear to other folk stories is the readiest assurance of their genuineness. For the rest, they are amusing and well told, and delightfully independent of any instructive purpose.

Much curious information is to be found in Mr. Cleveland Moffett's 'Careers of Danger and Daring' (The Century Co.). Tales of actual work done by real men are more thrilling than the exploits of Jack the Giant-Killer or any other hero of childish fiction, because the well-known conditions in which these feats are performed bring more vividly to one's imagination the very real risks encountered. Any child can look up at Trinity steeple and form a better notion of the difficulties to be met in climbing that dizzy height to regild the cross at its point, than of Jack's daring when he climbed his magic bean-stalk. And when one visits the menagerie and hears the lion roar, the tamer becomes a more wonderful man than the slayer of one of those giants whom none of us have ever seen. Indeed, the book, with its heaping up of perils in sea and air and mine, among burning buildings and vast machines, is too exciting for a nervous temperament, and should be taken in small doses, like poison, if it is not to bring bad dreams.

Just opposite, and rather to be chosen as a sedative, is 'Lem, a New England Village Boy,' by Noah Brooks (Scribners). One is tempted to use a certain old-wife's phrase, and sum up the book's character in two words—"dreadful ordinary." They would describe to a nicety the hero, his surroundings, and his adventures, as well as the style in which all this humdrum is narrated.

Mr. Tudor Jenks's 'Galopoff, the Talking Pony' (Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Co.), is a simple little story, which children will probably enjoy. Talking horses have been popular from the days of Homer down, and the smaller the steed, the more it appeals to the childish mind. This pony is a nice pony, and the children who own it are nice children, even though the illustrator has chosen to represent them as sadly overdressed little misses. For mild, innocuous interest the book may be safely recommended.

TOLSTOY AND HIS PROBLEMS.

Tolstoy and his Problems: Essays by Aylmer Maude. London: Grant Richards; New York: A. Wessels Co.

Of the making of books, with the ever-popular name of Tolstoy neatly tucked into the title, there seems to be no end. The present venture consists of nine articles, on subjects more or less connected with the famous Russian author. A page of notes following the title-page contains Count Tolstoy's favorable opinion on three of them; and in a preface the writer states the motive for his work by explaining that Tolstoy's views are difficult to understand and to reconcile with one another; that readers find it puzzling to discern from which side Tolstoy approaches his subject, or to make allowances for the "personal equation." Mr. Maude offers himself as the interpreter of Tolstoy's oracular utterances, and a guide to the devout wayfarer in the labyrinth. One of the articles has served as a lecture, and now appears in print for the first time; the other eight have previously appeared in various magazines, but have been revised for this volume. Mr. Maude himself is one of Count Tolstoy's most fervid "adepts"—fervid to the degree of seriously endeavoring to live the life which (as he frankly admits) Count Tolstoy advocates but does not pursue, and to the extent of pronouncing anathema and the greater excommunication (in all brotherly love) upon all persons who differ from him in his estimate of his "Master's" precepts, practice, and influence, as he understands them. Hence, the reader of this volume will feel that the best possible case is being made out for the Russian sage, and must accept Mr. Maude's admissions like the above—however unexpected—as thoroughly valid and incontrovertible.

The book opens with a biographical article on "Leo Tolstoy," accompanied by a judicious explanation of contemporaneous European history, and allusions to the Count's wife, her opinions, and views, which are illuminating as well as interesting. Mr. Maude describes how Tolstoy began to ask himself, "What is the meaning of my life?" and to read the sacred books of all ages and countries in search of an answer. Tolstoy, he says, "had always admired many passages in the Gospels, but had found much that perplexed him. He now reread them in the following way (the only way, he says, in which any books can be profitably studied): he first read them carefully through to see what they contained that was perfectly clear and simple, and that quite agreed with his own experience of life, and accorded with his reason and conscience." Mr. Maude proceeds to state and expound the "Five Commandments of Christ" which Tolstoy has deduced as the rule of life for himself and all men. A divine discontent with everything and everybody, including himself, would seem to be the keynote to Tolstoy, and nothing better illustrates it than the attitude which he is described as now assuming in regard to his splendid relief work among the peasants during the terrible famine of 1891-'92, conducted with money sent to him from America chiefly: "He felt that such activity of collecting and distributing money, 'making a pipe of one's self,' was not the best work of which he was capable. It did not satisfy him. It is not by what we get others to do for pay, but rather by what we do with our own brains, hearts, and muscles, that we can best serve God and man." Yet Count Tolstoy toiled with all his faculties, physical and intellectual and spiritual, for the famine-stricken, until he fell ill himself and had to be nursed by his wife; and unless he had been a divinity, with the power of being omnipresent and of producing miraculous food from heaven, it is difficult to see how he could have done any good at all without "making a pipe of himself" for foreign money.

The second article, "Talks with Tolstoy," is scrappy, not particularly new, important, or interesting. The following passage is, perhaps, the most significant, as illustrating his methods and confusion of thought, when one bears in mind that he exalts Christ and the Gospels as the rule of life: "He had one day been reading a book by a learned German professor tending to show that, as an historical personage, Jesus Christ never existed. This delighted Tolstoy. 'They are attacking the last outworks,' said he, 'and if they carry it, and demonstrate that Christ was never born, it will be all the more evident that the fortress of religion is impregnable."

We may pass lightly over the chapter: "What is Art?" which served as a preface to an English version of that work. It is amusing to find the disciple assuming that his Master is, practically, incomprehensible, and explaining him at immense length. In fact, he makes a very just statement (p. 99), as to Tolstoy's careless and obscure style, and mentions, as a good illustration, 'Life.' He refers again to this work, on pp. 103, 139, and on the last-mentioned page says of it (he has already made the same accusation at length and with more detail elsewhere): "An American version of one of Tolstoy's philosophical works repeatedly converts the Russian double negative into an English affirmative, thus making Tolstoy affirm precisely what he wishes to deny." It is worth while to remark of this criticism, that the translation in question was made directly from a manuscript furnished by Count Tolstoy, and, at his request, submitted to a noted Russian philosopher, a friend of his, who perfectly understood both English and Tolstoy's views, in order that the latter might see whether the author's ideas had been correctly grasped and rendered. The philosopher remarked that Count Tolstoy had neither a philosophical mind nor philosophical training; but he heartily endorsed and praised the translation, and made not a single suggestion as to alteration; neither did Count Tolstoy, on receiving the book. The simple explanation of Mr. Maude's criticism is: either the copyists (members of Count Tolstoy's family), who prepared the manuscript, erred; or Tolstoy himself diametrically changed his views and his statements, in the interval which elapsed between the publication of the English version and the appearance of the Russian, some time later. In view of his habitual mental attitude of lightning change (his wife stated that it took place every two years, and that he was apt to rewrite a book, from the opposite point of view, at the last moment), it seems entirely unimportant whether he used the negative or the affirmative at any given time. Either version will suit his "adepts."

"How 'Resurrection' Was Written," and the introduction to 'The Slavery of Our Times' (showing how the principle of non-resistance is related to economic and political life), will be found mildly interesting to the members of the cult; while "After the Tsar's Coronation" and "Right and Wrong" have nothing whatever to do with Tolstoy, being merely divagations of Mr. Maude; the latter imitated at distressing length and obscurity from a passage in one of Tolstoy's books, in which the latter confesses a wrong-doing of his favorite sort publicly, and hazily denudes his soul.

The most interesting articles in the vol-

ume are: "War and Patriotism" and "The Doukhobors." The former has no connection with Tolstoy, except that it is an argument, on his text of non-resistance, against the Transvaal war, in the form of a letter to John Bellows, a Quaker of Gloucester. The connection between Tolstoy and the Doukhobors is the refusal of the latter to bear arms, their adoption of Tolstoy's doctrines, in great measure, and the well-known incident of the latter's publishing 'Resurrection,' to pay for the emigration of the Doukhobors to British Columbia. Mr. Maude endeavors to be perfectly fair, and succeeds, except that he should have included the arguments of the Russian Government and Church against the emigrants, to afford a complete view.

The Practice of Typography: Correct Composition. By Theodore Low De Vinne, A.M. The Century Co. 1901.

This handsome little volume is companion to that published last year with the same leading title, but dealing with processes of type-making and kindred matters. Mr. De Vinne's present all-comprehensive subtitle reads: "A treatise on spelling, abbreviations, the compounding and division of words, the proper use of figures and numerals, italic and capital letters, notes, etc., with observations on punctuation and proof-reading." Scattered by the way under these several sections are handy tables of endings in -able and -ible, -or and -er, -sion and -tion, -ance and -ence, -our (English), -ize and -ise; with tables of signs, of abbreviations of the names of States and of books of the Bible. Valuable appendixes contain comparative lists of variations in spelling, compiled from four American and three English dictionaries, with indication of the generally accepted syllabification and stress (this fills more than seventy pages); and rules and examples for the division of words in French, Italian, Spanish, and German (guidance not to be found elsewhere, so far as we know).

Our master printer's chief aim has manifestly been to provide for the craft an authority which (in default of any other existing, or likely to exist) will tend to solve doubts in the compositor's and proof-reader's mind, and to promote that uniformity which would free the printer's art from so many vexations and from so much wasted labor. Each printing-house is now a law unto itself, and yet Mr. De Vinne is persuaded that the general practice among those who care for the niceties of printing accords with his precepts and classifications—and by "printing" we must understand the only subject considered in this book, viz., "undisplayed text composition."

The difficulty of a harmony such as is sought to be attained lies in an author's right to have his way if any controversy over typography arises—especially if he publish at his own expense. But the author who, before writing or committing his manuscript to the printer, masters these chapters, will have his ignorance and his eccentricities alike removed to a degree which will make his parabolic curve practically coincide with the asymptote of the printing-office. In fact, our excuse for dwelling upon a work which is technical from one point of view, is our sense of its immense importance as a literary drill-book.

"During the last fifty years," says Mr. De Vinne, "there has been no marked improvement in the average writer's preparation of copy for the printer, but there have been steadily increasing exactions from book-buyers. The printing that passed a tolerant inspection in 1850 does not pass now."

Use of the typewriter has in that period been a boon to the printer; but typewritten copy cannot rise higher than its source, while it is (in our experience) peculiarly liable to conceal its own errors, besides giving a false security to compositor, proof-reader, and copyholder, both slackening their watchfulness and disposing them to trust what is "printed." How often have we heard the expression, "It must be right; it's reprint," in regard to what the compositor has set from printed copy—a fetish simply replaced by typewriting.

We do not maintain that every part of this book is as necessary to the writer as to the compositor and his allies; but on the other hand there is nothing in it which every intelligent, to say nothing of every cultivated, man would not be the better for knowing. We should consider it most fortunate if instructors in rhetoric in our colleges could exact of every student the reading (if possible the ownership) of this manual, and such an examination as would prove that its fundamentals had been mastered.

Chapters 15, 16, and 17, on Punctuation, Proof-reading, and About Copy, are particularly commendable, in connection with those on Compound Words and the Division of Words. Punctuation, of course, has been the subject of many separate treatises, and Mr. De Vinne has not attempted to compete with these, except in the matter of the hyphen, the most difficult of all points, and the real *crux* of any discussion, as one may see in chapter 7, on Division. The clue to an understanding of punctuation is briefly stated (our author's style is always admirably terse and clear) on page 245: "The function of points is to make expression intelligible." The syntax of our mother tongue is so open to equivocation that punctuation has with us taken on a higher and more subtle development than in any other of the world's languages; while the law of freedom which is our great Anglo-Saxon heritage has produced an apparently hopeless diversity of usage, particularly in the matter of compounding and division. The main principles, however, are easily grasped, and it is a minor and indifferent matter whether we break a line in the interest of the eye or of the ear, or that, to quote Mr. De Vinne, at page 141, in parting, "English printers divide fa-ther and mo-ther as is here shown, but American printers render the words as fa-ther and moth-er."

Women and Men of the French Renaissance. By Edith Sichel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1901.

Women in the Golden Ages. By Amelia Gere Mason. The Century Co. 1901.

At first sight it would seem unfortunate for Miss Sichel that her studies of the Renaissance were so closely preceded by M. Maulde de la Clavière's 'The Women of the Renaissance,' which was reviewed last year in these columns. The latter is, however, a study of Feminism, and though it covers much the same period and deals with the same personages as Miss Sichel's book, there is room for both writers. Moreover, there is a vast difference in their methods. Miss Sichel writes as an Anglo-Saxon and a woman; M. Maulde as a man and a Frenchman. The contrast is amusing. M. Maulde's vocabulary, when he is relating the frailties of his lovely pedants, does not include the words "wicked" or "improper"; his moralizing, which occasionally grows tiresome, is all to the effect that the mission of woman is not to be learned but to be lovable. Throughout, he is wholly lacking in that sense of reverence which (at p. 3) Miss Sichel sorrowfully finds wanting in the French nation; to which, indeed, she ascribes the weakness of that nation to-day. With Miss Sichel we pass into the atmosphere of academic treatment, and its "dry light." Not that her studies are pedantic—they are eminently readable, but were not written primarily to entertain. She goes further than M. Maulde in that she discusses the men who figured in the French Renaissance as artists, scholars, and poets, the clearest sketches being of the brilliant patrons of all of these, Francis I. and his sister, Margaret of Navarre.

The amazing universality of the Renaissance woman does not, of course, bear a very close analysis, though it was certainly based on something more solid than supports the pretensions of the modern American woman who boasts that she belongs to twenty-two literary and social clubs, and imagines that her activities are raising the general level of culture. The fact remains that the women of France were even more ready than the men to be fired by the noble enthusiasm for learning and the arts which a close intercourse with Italy developed among them. The revival of the study of Plato and the adoption by these exalted ladies of principles that they fondly fancied were platonic, are a peculiar feature of the Renaissance which Miss Sichel has strangely ignored. Her chapter on Rabelais is among the most interesting of her sketches of men, which include Clément Marot, the poet, Étienne Dolet, Du Bellay, and Ronsard.

It would have been kinder to the learned belles of the French Renaissance to refrain from reproducing their portraits from old prints; the half-dozen that Miss Sichel shows us would be a complete disillusion if we could bring ourselves to believe that women so undeniably fascinating could have been so impossibly plain. The bibliographies and historical summary are most valuable, and we can only repeat, in conclusion, that those who wish to realize the position of women and the influence they exercised as soldiers, diplomatists, and patrons of the arts, should read Miss Sichel's book as an introduction to the "very good confused feeding" of M. Maulde's longer work.

Miss Sichel's book was based on a study of the sources. 'Woman in the Golden Ages' has the air of a collection of papers written to be read at a ladies' literary club, after about as much study of the sources as is usual in such enterprises. The titles of the papers are irritating. "Sappho and the First Woman's Club," "Aspasia and the First Salon," are misleading phrases. The first four papers display a vagueness that is at any rate conscientious. We recom-

mend their writer to Benecke's 'Women in Greek Poetry' for some really precise information on a theme that needs a long rest. The final chapter, on "Woman's Clubs," contains some very sensible remarks on the need of moderation in the pursuit of club life by women. But we are inclined to think that Miss Mason is the victim of an amiable delusion if she supposes that men find women's clubs dull merely "because they have no vital part in them," or that they could be lured into these literary coteries on any terms. The separation of the interests of men and women, which she rightly deplores, is not to be counteracted by a spurious revival of the salon, for which the modern woman is almost as ill-equipped as the modern man.

The Gavel and the Mace. By Frank W. Hackett. New York: McClure, Phillips & Co.

A Handbook on Parliamentary Practice. By Rufus Waples. Second edition, enlarged. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.

It is not often that two books are published, at about the same time, which so well represent two methods so extreme that the reader fancies the two authors mutually smiling or sighing, each impressed by the extreme absurdity of the other. If we refer to the general subject of "Motions," for instance, we open in Mr. Waples's book upon this paragraph: "How are Subsidiary Motions divided? Into Declinatory, Amendatory, Dilatory, Complemental, Incidental, and Motions Relative to Voting" (p. 19). Searching similarly in the other book, we find the heading, "How to Make a Motion" followed by a quotation, "Let us then be up and doing," from Longfellow's "Psalm of Life," and by an anecdote of a Texan judge whose only law book was 'Cushing's Manual,' and who discharged a prisoner upon a motion made by his counsel and seconded by the prisoner himself. Few books on a matter-of-fact subject are on the whole more entertaining than 'The Gavel and the Mace,' and the person who has read it knows a good deal, in a desultory way, about parliamentary law. Few works are harder reading, on the other hand, than Mr. Waples's 'Parliamentary Practice.' It is as bloodless and as juiceless as a lesson in geometry, and yet many persons of exact mind would much prefer it of the two books. We should say, all things considered, that the old-fashioned Jefferson's or Cushing's Manual hits the middle ground much better than either, and gives as good a general training.

The essential point from which to approach the subject of parliamentary order —the point, namely that it is a very simple affair and is merely common sense developed into rules—is not very much emphasized by either of our authors. Yet it is the one discovery which most cheers the young legislator when it is revealed to him. Parliamentary order certainly looks much harder than is needful, if we rely on Mr. Waples to teach it to us; while it seems a little too easy in the hands of Mr. Hackett. In consulting the two upon some much-discussed question, as, for instance, the right of delegating the balloting to the secretary or some single person by unanimous consent, we have a good-enough test of the two manuals. So far as we can discover, Mr. Hackett evades the matter almost wholly, while Mr. Waples, going to the opposite extreme, absolutely denies the right of any public meeting to save time in any such way, even by unanimous consent. He gives no reason except this: "It is said that, if any one objects, the balloting cannot be thus delegated, but no one should be placed in the position where his right to vote secretly would be denied. No one should be obliged to object" (p. 154). This strikes us as much too extreme and technical, in view of the amount of time often saved by the motion. In comparing the two books, we should say that, for the determination of such especial points, Mr. Waples's book is no doubt better, but for waking up the probably slumbering brains of new legislators to vote intelligently, Mr. Hackett's book is the best. Each is well indexed, and they might well travel in pairs on the book counters.

The Lore of Cathay; or, The Intellect of China. By W. A. P. Martin. Fleming H. Revell Co.

It is certainly to the credit of American educated men living in Chinese Asia, especially, that they seriously endeavor not only to know the peoples outwardly, but to become acquainted with their mental processes. There is already a creditable array of American scholars and writers who have contributed to the philosophical understanding of the Chinese, Japanese, and Koreans. The best works on the religion, art, literature, philosophy, folk-lore, superstition, sociology, and nursery life of these peoples have been, for the most part, written by Americans. On this undoubted fact some have already endeavored to build an argument demonstrating the ability of Americans, as of Englishmen, to deal successfully with Asiatic peoples. Be that as it may, it is certain that, in the writings of Dr. W. A. P. Martin on the Chinese, we have a very informing and suggestive map of the intellect of China. Comparing this portly octavo of nearly 400 pages with the author's previous work on 'The Chinese, their Education, Philosophy, and Letters,' issued twenty years ago, and then noticed at length in these columns, we find what is virtually a new work. It is full of things old as well as things new, but the old matter has been freshly wrought over and luminously restated, with addition of much original matter, the whole being arranged in orderly sequence, withal toned and mellowed by the experiences and scholarly acquirements of a score of years.

Dividing his matter into five books, Dr. Martin shows first the contributions to the arts and sciences which China has unquestionably made, and to which Europe is as unquestionably indebted, notwithstanding that what was brought from China has been vastly improved upon in the West. Dr. Martin, like Dr. Arthur Smith, an equally vigorous philosophical writer, though with a much stronger modern touch and spirit, considers that the Chinese intellect of to-day, unnourished and undisciplined by science as it is, is nevertheless acute, vigorous, still potentially able to master what the Western man has won, and to grapple, like him, with the unknown. He thus pictures the life-long Chinese scholar: "In knowledge, according to our standard, he is a child; in intellect, force, a giant. A veteran athlete, the victor of a hundred conflicts, his memory is prodigious, his apprehensions quick, and his taste in literary matters exquisite." As it is, however, the Chinese mind normally does not see any new problems to grapple with; for, believing to the innermost fibre of his nature that things were made ages ago as good as they possibly could have been made, it seems to him nothing but pure absurdity to try and make them better. This conviction, lying so deep in the Chinese consciousness, is overmastering. Only by patiently and slowly educating new generations can it be changed and vicious notions extirpated. Nevertheless, the existence in such a country of such a thing as a national mind is itself an evidence of a susceptibility to change. So far from being hopelessly stereotyped, Dr. Martin sees that the Chinese mind has advanced from age to age with a stately march, absorbing heterogeneous elements with marvellous accumulative power. The modifications undergone in consequence of influences operative from without as well as from within, though slow, have always extended to the whole body. Unlike India, Africa, or even Europe, which is northern, southern, and Slavic, China is a unit. Through all its members there sweeps the mighty tide of a common life. There is no such thing, for example, in China proper as Buddhism or Taoism being arrested at the confines of a particular province. By virtue of a common language and common feeling, every pulsation from the great heart of the empire meets with prompt response. This fact, while it explains the slowness of change in Chinese life, gives an unshakable foundation for the hope in which all long and patient workers in the Chinese field are one, that vital reform is possible and highly probable in China.

One need not go into extensive review of Dr. Martin's chapters on the Literature, Religion and Philosophy, Education, or History. These are all interesting and rich in information, albeit they might be improved by a more exact and orderly arrangement, by a firmer touch in criticism, and even a deeper seriousness in diction, without so much that savors of a chatty conversation. Nevertheless, this last feature is perhaps to be commended by some, and will win readers. Dr. Martin considers that Buddhism has been a preparation for Christianity—not that he would, like Sir Edwin Arnold, "purloin the ornaments of the daughter of Zion to deck an Eastern beauty," or, like Schopenhauer, "persuade Western thinkers to sit at the feet of the gymnosophists of India"; but he sees that the conversion of the Chinese to Buddhism shows at once mental hospitality and flexibility. Apart from its importations from India in mispronounced Sanskrit, Buddhism has, within the domain of pure Chinese, enriched the language as it has enlarged the sphere of popular thought, bringing them such a repertory of ideas that even to-day "half the doctrines of Christianity are introduced to the Chinese in a dress borrowed from Buddhism." The first teachers of Christianity, on coming to China, he tells us, seized on these terms as so much material made ready to their hands, sprinkled them with holy water, and consecrated them to a new youth. No missionary, papal or Protestant, has ever abandoned the Buddhist terminology. The chapters

on International Law, and Diplomacy in Ancient China, are decidedly original and very valuable contributions. Besides being the work of the expert translator and teacher of these sciences in the Imperial Chinese University, they are brightened by many modern comparisons and instances.

Other Worlds: Their Nature, Possibilities, and Habitability. By Garrett P. Serviss. D. Appleton & Co. 1901.

Mr. Serviss has meritoriously performed his task of discussing planetary possibilities in the light of the latest astronomical investigations, and 'Other Worlds' increases in interest and improves in style and presentation as its chapters proceed. Following in the footsteps of earlier writers on human interest in the worlds around us—Fontenelle, Flammarion, Proctor, and others—the present author attempts to show how wide and how rich is the field opened to the mind of man by his discoveries concerning worlds which, though in a physical sense inaccessible to him, still offer opportunity for intellectual conquests of the noblest description.

To this end the differences and the resemblances between our earth and its sister planets are emphasized; and the author, although not himself a professional astronomer, exhibits an intimate and accurate acquaintance with the researches of professional astronomers, which his long and successful experience as lecturer and writer helps him the better to elucidate. His readable chapters, while based upon facts, embody in their structure much discussion of mere theories and probabilities. It is helpful to the imagination to place one's self on these remote worlds, as he does his reader, and contemplate therefrom our earth and its swarming life. His tracing the origin and development of the various bodies in our planetary system is instructive, his picture of their present condition as individuals is graphic, and their marvellous contrasts as members of a common family are well accentuated. Not even the little planets nor the satellites are omitted from his pretty thorough presentation. The chapter on the moon is, in fact, not only the best in the book, but the most satisfactory presentment of that subject, always new and never exhausted, that has appeared in any modern popular astronomy. An additional paragraph touching on the recent work of Langley and Very would have made it even more acceptable. Mr. Serviss adopts *in toto* the late conclusions, although hardly yet verified, of the younger Pickering, in his published discoveries of vegetation, atmosphere, and volcanic activity on the moon.

Naturally, Mr. Serviss's discussion of Mars is the fullest of all; and in ruling between opposing camps, he exhibits good judgment, accepting the well-verified observations of Schiaparelli, whose patient and painstaking and masterful work is not even yet, a quarter-century from its inception, everywhere appreciated at its true value. Mr. Serviss does well to go back to Schiaparelli's own original words, so often misquoted and misunderstood, in relation to the clouds of the planet and the undoubted gemination of its canals as real phenomena of the planet's disk.

Eros (whose discoverer was Witt, by the way, not De Witt, page 132-3) is accorded the prominence that its engaging the present attention of practical astronomers merits, and from all their laborious watching we may soon hope for a new and more accurate value of the sun's distance. The interjection of "A Waif of Space" rather takes one's breath away, and suggests a touch of padding, though it will doubtless not strike all readers as objectionable. On page 23, the perihelion velocity of Mercury is said to be 29 miles in a second, and eleven pages later, 35; which does the author intend? Pages 54 and 92, the astronomer mentioned should be W. *H.* Pickering, as elsewhere; and page 280 the same, not Edward C. Pickering, should be credited with discovering the new satellite of Saturn. Page 181, the size of Jupiter's satellites needs obvious correction.

The concluding chapter, on finding the planets in the sky, will be a boon to many a star-gazer; and 'Other Worlds' as a whole, though not a book of the highest order, will nevertheless contribute more towards a live popular interest in astronomy than many university chairs.

Two Centuries' Growth of American Law, 1701-1901. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

The recent celebration at Yale had features more permanent, if less striking, than those which delighted the eyes of the great congregation of graduates. This collection of essays by members of the faculty of the Law School is such a feature; and it is only one of a series of volumes, prepared by members of the different faculties, which are being issued by the University. The design is to indicate the character of the studies in which the instructors are engaged; but, if carried out thoroughly, it must at the same time reveal the character of the instructors and that of their instruction. A hundred years hence posterity can refer to this series as unimpeachable authority for its historical judgments; and the authors may be indifferent to contemporary praise or blame, secure in a posthumous celebrity at the next centennial.

The method adopted is to divide the Law into seventeen departments, and, in most cases, to assign the treatment of each department to a different hand. Professors Baldwin and Townsend, however, have each four papers. Probably this method secures a more thorough treatment of particular departments than would be given them by a single commentator, but the result lacks unity. No doubt the professed purpose is attained. The character of the studies in which the writers are engaged is indicated; still, we do not have what can properly be called a book on the development of law in the United States. It is only necessary to compare these essays with the commentary of Chancellor Kent, in order to perceive the difference in the results attained.

Regarded as critical digests of the law of real property, contracts, torts, equity, evidence, etc., the papers will be read with interest by the scholarly members of the profession. To enumerate the changes that have taken place in two centuries is no small undertaking. To estimate them within this limited compass is almost impossible, and perhaps the most satisfactory results are attained in those papers which proceed *per enumerationem simplicem.* That upon criminal law and procedure is of most general interest, but of least encouragement. Progress in other departments of law has been far greater. Its nature and extent are to be comprehended only by a profound study of the general development of the country and its institutions; but the positive changes are well set forth in these scholarly papers.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alldridge, T. J. The Sherbro and its Hinterland. Macmillan. $6.
Annual Report of Smithsonian Institution, 1899—1900. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Arnold, Matthew. Sweetness and Light. H. M. Caldwell Co.
Bacon, E. F. Une Semaine à Paris. American Book Co. 50c.
Baillie, J. B. The Origin and Significance of Hegel's Logic. Macmillan.
Bain, John, jr. Tobacco in Song and Story. H. M. Caldwell Co.
Baum, L. F. The Master Key. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Bigelow, Mrs. Poultney. While Charlie Was Away. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Blodgett, Harriet F. Songs of the Days and the Year. Grafton Press.
Borrow, George. The Zincali. John Lane.
Branch, Anna H. The Heart of the Road, and Other Poems. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Bridgeman, L. J. Guess. H. M. Caldwell Co.
Brooks, Florence. The Destiny, and Other Poems. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Brown, Alice. Margaret Warrener. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Browning, Robert. Dramatic Lyrics and Romances, and Other Poems. (Oxford Miniature Edition.) Henry Frowde. 3s. 6d.
Buchheim, C. A., and Emma S. Goethe's Hermann und Dorothea. Henry Frowde.
Burgess, Gelett. The Burgess Nonsense Book. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $2.15.
Caballero, Fernán. Narraciones. R. D. Cortina. $1.
Cameron, Mrs. Lovett. Bitter Fruit. Brentano's. $1.25.
Castlemon, Harry. Winged Arrow's Medicine. The Saalfield Pub. Co. $1.
Cesaresco, Evelyn M. Italian Characters in the Epoch of Unification. New ed. Scribners. $2.50.
Champney, Elizabeth W. Romance of the Renaissance Châteaux. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.
Clark, J. W. The Care of Books. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $5.
Cornish, F. W. Chivalry. (Social England Series.) London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Cortina, R. D. Episodios. R. D. Cortina. $1.
Cram, G. F. Minette. Chicago: John W. Iliff & Co.
Crockett, S. R. The Firebrand. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.
Davies, D. C. The Atonement and Intercession of Christ. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Davis, W. S. "God Wills It!": A Tale of the First Crusade. Macmillan. $1.50.
De Costa, B. F. The Pre-Columbian Discovery of America by the Northmen. New ed. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons.
Delannoy, Burford. The Margate Mystery. Brentano's. $1.25.
De Vinne, T. L. The Practice of Typography: Correct Composition. A Treatise on Spelling, etc. Century Co.
Dos Passos, J. R. Commercial Trusts. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Drachmann, Holger. Nanna: A Story of Danish Love. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
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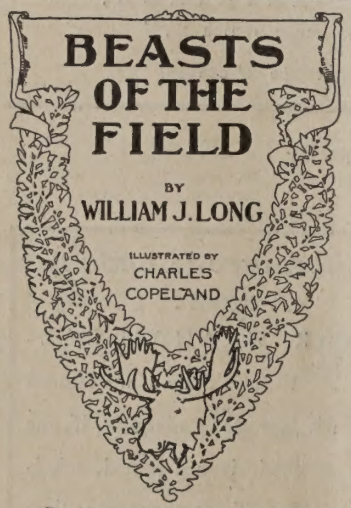

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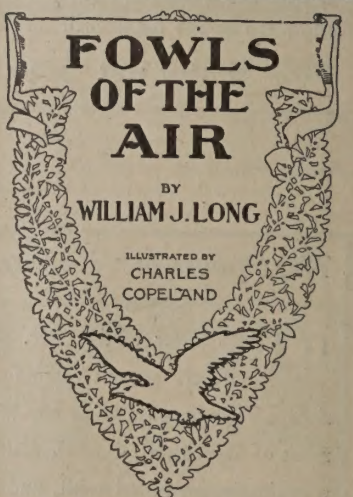

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 5, 1901

The Week.

President Roosevelt's first message is not so long by several columns as President McKinley's last one, yet we cannot help thinking that it is too long. Except in a few particulars it is lacking in definite recommendations, but these few are of first-rate importance. Rumors have been flying around ever since Mr. McKinley's death that the new President would make some decisive expression of his views about the industrial combinations called Trusts. Latterly it has been given out that he would recommend that steps be taken by Congress to compel publicity of the financial affairs of all such combinations. This he has done. He has made a very fair statement of the reasons for this requirement. "What further remedies are needed in the way of Governmental regulation or taxation," he adds, "can only be determined after publicity has been obtained by process of law and in the course of administration." The word "taxation" as here used brings to mind the fact that Mr. Roosevelt, as Governor of New York, caused the Franchise-Tax Law to be passed, and that he said in one of his messages to the State Legislature that if all other remedies for Trusts and combines failed, that of taxation remained. There is no other word half so dreadful to the promoters of Trusts as taxation, because that is something which they cannot buy off. When the public mind is once fixed upon it, lobbyists and party bosses are powerless to divert the Legislature from it. This was conclusively shown in the fight at Albany, and we cannot doubt that the President had that fight fresh in mind when he wrote the message now before us.

Another recommendation in which the President's positive character shows itself is that relating to civil-service reform. Here he is on familiar ground and his footing is sure. He says that the merit system is the true American system, since it is the one which gives a fair field and no favor to each candidate for the public service. He declares that the gain to the Government by the introduction of this system in the clerical service, in place of the old system of favoritism, has been immense. He recommends that the classified service be extended to the District of Columbia, but most of all should it be applied rigidly to the Philippines and Porto Rico. "The administration of these islands," he maintains, "should be as free from the suspicion of partisan politics as the administration of the army and navy." The consular service should be brought under the same regulation. The President recommends the passage of a law for this purpose, in accordance with the wishes expressed by many commercial bodies throughout the country. All this is worthy of Theodore Roosevelt at his best.

As instances of vagueness in the message, we may mention the paragraph which relates to reciprocity and the one in reference to ship subsidies. As regards the former, we are advised that "reciprocity must be treated as the handmaiden of protection." Does that convey any idea to an expectant Congress? It conveys none to us. Nor are we helped by being told that reciprocity should be sought for so far as it can be safely done without injury to our home industries, and that the well-being of the wage-worker is the prime consideration in our entire policy of economic legislation. Obviously somebody must decide what constitutes an injury to our home industries, and how the well-being of the wage-workers as a whole is to be promoted. The Department of State has been working on these two problems for the better part of two years, with the approval of the late President McKinley. Its labors are embodied in concrete form in a series of treaties which President McKinley had specifically recommended to the Senate for ratification. All that President Roosevelt says on this point is: "I ask the attention of the Senate to the reciprocity treaties laid before it by my predecessor." This is certainly vague. In regard to ship subsidies, there is a similar vagueness. Much is said in a general way about the need of restoring our merchant marine. We are told that many of the fast foreign steamships are subsidized, and that the original cost of American ships is greater than that of foreign ones. Finally it is suggested that our Government should take steps to remedy these inequalities. How this should be done we are not told, nor is even a hint given. For all practical purposes this part of the message might as well have been omitted.

Civil-service reformers had last week a special cause for thanksgiving in the present which they received from Mr. Roosevelt. The President has issued an order amending one of the rules so that hereafter, whenever an Indian agency is discontinued through the devolving of its duties upon the bonded superintendent of the local Indian training school, the agent who thus loses his place may be admitted to the classified service upon such tests of fitness as the Civil-Service Commission may prescribe, and receive such designation as the Secretary of the Interior may direct. The transformation of the Indian service through the merging of the former agent's duties in those of the school superintendent is steadily going on, the change having been successfully made in a score of cases. The superintendents are within the classified service, to which the competitive system applies, and the President's new order will bring the entire force of agents or acting agents under the civil-service rules. This order is not only in itself a valuable extension of the merit system, but is far more important as an earnest of what civil-service reformers may expect in future from the new President. Mr. Roosevelt has proved his attachment to the principles of the reform, and he has an understanding of the system such as no previous Executive has possessed, by reason of his experience as one of the Civil-Service Commissioners under both Harrison and Cleveland. Moreover, he has plenty of courage to carry through any extensions of the competitive system which he may deem wise. The discretionary power of the President under the Civil-Service Law is very great, and the nation is already assured that Mr. Roosevelt will employ it to the public advantage.

It is said that the Hon. William M. Jenkins, Governor of Oklahoma, is very much surprised that he should be removed from office on a charge of receiving shares in a corporation to which he had officially awarded a valuable contract. It seems that he turned these shares over to certain persons to whom he owed political obligations, and that he could see nothing objectionable in such a transaction, although he said that he could not pay such an obligation by an appointment to office, "or anything of that kind." This is a reversal of the common practice which ought not to escape the notice of Mark Twain or "Mr. Dooley." Nine Governors or Senators out of ten who had incurred political obligations would consider themselves perfectly justified in getting an office for the obliger. No matter how great or small the obligation or the office might have been, the course of procedure would have passed without special notice or comment. A payment in cash at the expense of the taxpayers is quite a different matter. In the eyes of President Roosevelt it discloses "such an entire lack of appreciation of the high fiduciary nature of the duties of his office as to unfit him [Gov. Jenkins] for their further discharge," and in this view decent public opinion will concur. It adds something to the opprobrium of the transaction that the

shares used to pay the Governor's political debts were those of a private hospital for the care of the insane, and that they doubled in value after the Governor awarded the contract.

Secretary Root's annual report urges many reforms. His scheme for the instruction of officers is most comprehensive. Besides the Military Academy at West Point, and in addition to the elementary schools for officers which should be maintained at each military post, Secretary Root recommends the establishment of five special service schools, for artillery, engineering, submarine defence, cavalry and field artillery, and medicine, respectively. He would have in addition a General Service and Staff College at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. Finally, a War College at Washington would give the highest instruction in military science to properly qualified officers, and would direct the policy of the special and general service schools. These schools Mr. Root would throw open to all persons who are fitted to profit by their instruction. Thus the elementary schools at the military posts and the General Service and Staff College would be open to officers of the National Guard, former officers of Volunteers, and graduates of accredited military schools. All such persons, by proving that they were properly qualified, might attend also the special service schools.

The significance of this comprehensive plan far transcends the education of the regular army. From the militia officers and other volunteer students who should avail themselves of the privileges of the military schools, classified lists would be made up, so that in case of emergency there would be an abundant supply of company officers. If the volunteer commissions were confined to such lists, we should be spared for the future such exhibitions of official incompetence as made the volunteers in the Spanish war —with honorable exceptions—almost a negligible quantity. In similar fashion, and consistently with Secretary Root's whole attitude towards army reform, a merit list of regular officers would be kept, on the basis of which staff and special appointments would be made. This is a measure of the first importance, and ought to mark the end of the favoritism and routine promotions which threaten to sap the spirit of the army. Henceforth an officer must do something more than survive, and in the army as elsewhere a career is opened to talent.

Secretary Root's recommendation that the lands now belonging to the friars in the Philippine Islands be purchased by the Government and reallotted under proper conditions to the inhabitants, is among the most praiseworthy features of his recent report. No action could do more to assure the Filipinos of the disinterestedness of our intentions and the benevolence of our rule than the expropriation of the monastic holdings, the existence of which has been an immemorial grievance in the islands. Of course, this expropriation could come about only by purchase, for the Treaty of Paris confirms all the privileges and rights which the friars enjoyed under Spanish rule. It is equally just that the purchase price of these 403,000 acres should be charged, not upon the Philippine Islands, but upon the United States. The right administration of these public lands could not fail to be a potent contribution towards conciliation. Commissioner Taft and Secretary Root have advocated an equitable settlement of this vexatious matter without temporizing. Congress should see that their recommendations are promptly carried into effect.

We fear that the Cuban delegates in Washington are doomed to bitter disappointment in their expectations of an early reduction of the duty on sugar, either by way of reciprocity or otherwise. They have assumed that whatever the executive branch of the Government favors, especially in the matter of foreign policy, is sure to be adopted. They have never had experience of any different kind of government. They cannot understand a government in which the legislative and the executive branches may be at cross-purposes when both are controlled by the same party—a condition of things by no means unusual in this favored land. Now it appears that Congressmen Grosvenor of Ohio and Payne of New York, two of the most influential men in Congress, the latter the probable Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, are opposed to any reduction of the duty on sugar, by treaty or otherwise. They will insist that the full protection accorded our producers of sugar from both beets and cane shall be continued. If the Republicans in Congress take this attitude in conflict with that of the President and the Secretary of War, they may raise a new issue in American politics. If no concession is made to the Cubans on the sugar question by reciprocity or otherwise, there will forthwith be a strong movement in Cuba for annexation, and this movement will extend itself to the United States, and political parties will have to align themselves in reference to it. The way to stave off annexation is to make some concessions to Cuba now in reference to the duties on both sugar and tobacco.

Mr. Ridgely's report to Congress is very much the traditional document expected from the Comptroller of the Currency. He renews the stock recommendations of his predecessors relative to greater safeguards for the business of banking, offers the usual comments on the defects of the Sub-Treasury system, and calls the attention of Congress to the necessity of extending the twenty-year charters of the banks, soon to expire. About the much-discussed question of the standard of value he has only a bare hint that, "if" the law of March 14, 1900, can be strengthened, such action ought to be taken before the matter "gets shoved to one side." On the freer issue of banknotes, he suggests that safe middle ground between the views of extremists may be found, and that progress toward more liberal legislation should be slow. An emergency circulation, based on commercial assets, is practically all he can recommend for the present, but that is a large advance upon the views of his predecessor. In his sketch of actual conditions, he alludes to the Act of March 14, 1900, as giving "new impetus to the national banking system." There is little in the figures to prove that the national system has been made more useful to the classes and sections supposed to be aided by the act of last year. Of the 742 new banks chartered since March 14, 1900, more have been organized in the Middle States than in any other geographical division, although the law was specially designed to promote the organization of banks in the West and South. Moreover, many of the new institutions are of large capital —a fact which shows that they are in the cities rather than in the rural communities where it had been supposed they were chiefly needed. Finally, the new banks have issued only a comparatively small proportion of the currency to which they are entitled.

How to tax franchise values seems to be a problem of growing public interest. The question is now most prominently up for discussion in New York, New Jersey, Ohio, and Illinois, but it is also attracting some attention in Indiana and other States The Supreme Court of Ohio has granted Mayor Johnson's motion for leave to file a petition asking the court to determine the powers of the State Board of Equalization. If Mr. Johnson's plan should be adopted, the Board would reassess the property of railways on the basis of the market value of their securities. What the feelings of railway managers would be may be gathered from expressions of opinion in Chicago and Newark. In the former city, the traction companies maintain that utter ruin would result from the taxation of their franchises on the basis of market value, and very much the same cry comes from New Jersey. It is, of course, impossible to predict the decisions of the courts in the cases now before them, and too much weight should not be given to the protests of counsel for the companies, but at least one good result of the agitation may be expected:

it should help on the movement for greater publicity of corporate accounts, and thus ultimately lead to sounder methods of taxing corporate incomes.

The formal announcement by Mayor-elect Low that Col. John N. Partridge, Superintendent of the State Department of Public Works, is to be his Police Commissioner, fulfils public expectation and will command public approval. For a fortnight past his name has been the only one which appeared to be under serious consideration for this important position, and during the whole discussion not an objection to his fitness for the place has been raised. The first thing which the Police Department needs is the application of military discipline by a man who knows by personal experience what such discipline is. This rendered it important that the new Commissioner should be a man who has had something to do with the command of troops. Col. Partridge served for more than three years in the Union army during the civil war, rising from first lieutenant to captain in a regiment of Massachusetts volunteers. A few years later he became lieutenant of a company in the Twenty-third (Brooklyn) Regiment of the National Guard of this State, and was promoted by successive steps to the colonelcy. In this capacity he commanded the regiment when it was sent to Buffalo during the troubles growing out of the switchmen's strike in 1892. For the first two of Mr. Low's four years as Mayor of Brooklyn Col. Partridge was Commissioner of the Fire Department, and he was then made head of the Police Department, so that he has already once filled practically, on a smaller scale, the same place that he is now to occupy. It is safe to say that no other citizen of New York has a better comprehension of the questions with which Mr. Low's Police Commissioner will have to deal.

President-elect Cantor of Manhattan Borough has applied the same standards of selection in his first appointment which led the Mayor-elect to name George L. Rives for Corporation Counsel and Col. John N. Partridge for Police Commissioner. Under the revised charter the place of Superintendent of Buildings in this borough is to be one of the most important offices in the whole city, and Mr. Cantor will fill it with a man who is in every way exceptionally well qualified. Mr. Perez M. Stewart knows all about the work of contractors and builders by practical experience, while he, as a member of the Assembly, has demonstrated the independence which the Superintendent of Buildings should possess. A better selection for the place could not be made. Not less welcome is the further announcement that Mr. William Martin Aiken is to become Consulting Architect for Manhattan Borough. Almost any change from Horgan & Slattery would be grateful, but this selection is peculiarly acceptable to all who are ambitious that our civic building should be worthy of a great city. For Mr. Aiken is not only an accomplished architect, but a skilled organizer, as his conduct of the Supervising Architect's Office at Washington, which was virtually his creation, has amply proved. He will have the opportunity of setting a precedent which no future administration will dare wholly to disregard. We believe that the enlightened taste of this city can never again receive so gratuitous an insult as was dealt in the appointment of the present Tammany architects.

The Manitoba Prohibition Act of July 4, 1900, which was recently declared unconstitutional by the highest court, differed from ordinary prohibitory legislation in being an attempt not only to regulate the sale of liquor, but also to prevent its use. This intention was expressed in the preamble, which in terms prohibited "all use in Manitoba of spirituous, fermented, malt, and all intoxicating liquors as beverages or otherwise than for sacramental, medicinal, mechanical, or scientific purposes." Quite in the spirit of this preamble was a clause which forbade even the giving away of liquor which had been lawfully acquired by the owner. Under the act, clubs would have been restrained from supplying liquor to their members. The Court of King's Bench of Manitoba declared that the act exceeded the powers of the Manitoba Legislature; that the attempt to suppress a legal traffic had no sufficient precedent, and that all excise legislation of so sweeping a character as to affect the general trade relations of the Dominion fell under the jurisdiction of the Canadian Parliament. On appeal to the Privy Council, the decision of the lower court was reversed, and the act declared Constitutional. The decision gives the Canadian provinces the fullest powers to prohibit liquor-selling; and since the Premier of Ontario is pledged to introduce a prohibition measure in Parliament, liquor legislation may become a prominent political issue in the near future. It should not be forgotten that the real test of the Manitoba act is to come. That the courts declare it legal does not prove that it is not ill-advised. The experience of many of our own States with less drastic laws shows that men are perfectly willing to vote for a system under which they absolutely refuse to live. Hence the experience of Manitoba can hardly be more fortunate than that of Kansas or Maine.

Monday's debate at the Pan-American Conference, now sitting in the City of Mexico, showed but too plainly that no more contentious matter can be brought before an international conference than the suggestion that the conferees settle their disputes amicably. The mere mention of a comprehensive scheme of arbitration aroused the most violent protest from a Chilian delegate. Such an attitude indicates that to touch upon really important issues would threaten the disintegration of the Conference. Chili, it will be remembered, joined in the Mexico meeting only upon the assurance that no plan of arbitration should apply to disputes already under way. Thus she withdrew from arbitration the South American problems which most urgently require adjustment; namely, the boundary disputes between herself and Argentina, Bolivia, and Peru. That Chili would utterly oppose any and all plans for arbitration was hardly to be anticipated, and perhaps Señor Martinez's outburst on Monday should not be given so large a significance. However that may be, the Mexico Conference seems to be going the usual way.

The decrease in the bullion value of the rupee, which has caused so much suffering in India, seems likely to prove of unexpected advantage to certain American importers. Section 25 of the tariff act of 1894 provides that the pure metallic value of foreign coins, as determined by the Director of the Mint, shall be used as the basis for assessing the importing values of goods whose worth is stated in terms of those coins. Secretary Gage, however, some time ago ordered that the rupee be converted into American money by reference to its exchange value. He has now been reversed by the Board of General Appraisers, which orders that the rupee be converted on the basis of its fine content. How largely importers from India may profit by this verdict becomes apparent when it is noted that the pure metallic value of the rupee is about 20 cents, as compared with an exchange value of 32 cents or more. This curious disparity is a result of the anomalous condition of the Indian currency system. In 1893 the Indian mints were closed to the free coinage of silver, and British gold coins were ordered received by the public treasuries at the rate of 15 rupees to the pound sterling. In 1899 gold coins were made a legal tender at this same valuation, but the silver rupee continued as additional legal tender to an unlimited amount. The position of the rupee is therefore that of an unlimited legal-tender coin whose issue has been discontinued, and its international value, like that of our own silver dollar, depends not on its fine content, but upon the gold par of exchange. The New York importers who will profit by the late decision are merely taking frank advantage of a defect in our existing legislation.

THE INSISTENT PHILIPPINE QUESTION.

Monday's decision of the Supreme Court will necessarily thrust our whole Philippine policy again to the fore in public discussion. It shows that questions cannot be settled legally until they are settled right; nor can they be morally. The immediate practical consequence will be to compel Congress, which has until now shirked a disagreeable duty, to walk squarely up to the debate and enactment of revenue laws for the Philippines, the existing ones having been declared illegal. But with this will inevitably come a general reconsideration of our entire national attitude in this Philippine business. We cannot argue about the tax on Philippine goods without having something to say about Philippine liberties. Into the discussion of the proper tariff policy, consideration of human rights and free institutions will surely intrude. The Philippine question is open again. It is once more the order of the day. The decision of the Supreme Court upsetting the Government's policy in respect of customs gives the signal to the friends of freedom and democracy to urge once more those compelling reasons which are drawn from the great charters of our own liberty and our historic position, and which make so powerfully for the reversal of our mistaken and misery-laden policy in the Philippines.

In legal effect, the decision of the Court is more far-reaching than would appear on the surface. It does nothing except to affirm illegal the duties collected on goods coming from the Philippines. This means, so the Treasury officials say, a loss in refunds of only about $250,000. More serious, even alarming, will seem, from the protectionist point of view, the prospect of free sugar and free tobacco from the Philippines, until Congress acts to keep out that deadly trade. Here is a noble chance for the protected interests to spring forward, as they are already doing, to propose laws to prevent the Filipinos from enjoying the advantages which the Supreme Court declares are theirs. Secretary Root hoped for certain tariff concessions on Philippine products, as the readiest means of conciliating the natives, and, by making them prosperous and contented, of reducing our military force and curtailing the enormous expense we are under. But no sooner has the Supreme Court thrown down all trade barriers against Philippine commerce than we see the angry and embattled protectionists clamoring for their immediate restoration by Congress.

There may easily be more in the case than this, however. The Supreme Court decides only questions that are before it, and on Monday it pronounced no opinion upon the validity of the tariff duties which have been levied in the Philippines upon goods coming from the United States. Yet we are bound to believe that it would have held this military tariff illegal, if a case involving it had been before the Court. Such a decision would appear to follow from the previous decision of the Supreme Court in the first Dooley case, in which the right of the President to collect duties on goods from the United States entering Porto Rico was contested. Five judges held that the military order under which duties had been collected prior to the Foraker act, "ceased to apply to goods imported from the United States the moment the United States ceased to be a foreign country with respect to Porto Rico, and that until Congress otherwise Constitutionally directed, such merchandise was entitled to free entry." It added, as if to put the case as nearly as possible on all fours with the Philippine tariff: "In our opinion the authority of the President as Commander-in-Chief to exact duties upon imports from the United States ceased with the ratification of the treaty of peace, and her right to the free entry of goods from the ports of the United States continued until Congress should Constitutionally legislate upon the subject."

We need not dwell upon the embarrassments which would attend the application of this judicial opinion to the Philippine tariff. It would destroy a large part of the insular revenues. It would compel us, under the Treaty of Paris, to concede free entry of Spanish goods in Philippine ports. It would grievously complicate our international relations in the Orient, where we have promised to grant as well as demand the "open door" for trade. But all these points must be reserved for later discussion. The great thing is that the Court has remanded the whole question to Congress. That body can no longer abdicate, in the face of supposed military necessity, or of obscurities in Constitutional right. Under the decision of the Supreme Court, Congress *must* enact a tariff for the Filipinos, and it *may* give them freedom and independence and that full national life which is their highest aspiration.

The absolute power of Congress, which our highest tribunal has now asserted, may be used in a beneficent way to extricate us from our Philippine plight. The islands are ours, heady expansionists have said, and there is no way of getting rid of them. But the Supreme Court has now held that they are but as other "property" of the United States, to be alienated if Congress so desires. Our hands are not tied. Congress has full power to heed the prayer of the islanders, at the same time that it consults our own highest interests, by granting Philippine independence at an early day. The President's message reflects the general sobering on this subject. He has got far away from the first glorying of Mr. McKinley in our acquisition of the "gems and glories of the tropic seas." To Mr. Roosevelt they are frankly "a great burden." There is not a word in his message inconsistent with our ultimate withdrawal—many words, indeed, which hint not obscurely that such may be our final goal. With this falls in the latest Filipino appeal for a promise of "the ultimate recognition of their rights" as a people. The time is auspicious, therefore, for a fresh consideration of the whole matter, freed from the old rancors and passions; and the hope may reasonably be entertained that the American Congress and people will yet be willing to retrace their steps, and take their position again on our traditional and noble principle that no government shall be imposed upon a people without its consent.

INFLUENCE WITHOUT TERRITORY.

The present troubles on the Isthmus, and the leading part which the United States has taken in the course of that Iliad in a nutshell, show what national influence really depends upon. It is certainly not the possession of territory on the spot where the influence is exerted. Indeed, in this case the suspicion of a desire for territorial aggrandizement would obviously be fatal to our good offices. The Central Americans believe that, as Secretary Hay said, we covet their land as little as we do the mountains of the moon. They see our naval force conducting itself with absolute propriety, and adhering strictly to the letter of the treaty with Colombia. Our officers and men are there for a single specific purpose—to maintain free transit over the Panama Railroad. Yet by their discretion and conciliatory attitude they not only have played a useful part, but have signally illustrated the way in which a great nation may make its name and power respected far from its own borders.

We think the instance comes happily to point the moral so often drawn in vain in the course of our recent craze for stringing islands for our national toys. We simply must have these new possessions over-sea, people argued stoutly, or else we cannot take our appropriate place among the nations. Even Professor Hart, in his excellent article in the *American Historical Review* on the Monroe Doctrine, seems unable to think of national power except as somehow conterminous with national territory. He cannot agree with those who think we might have "abstained" from our "recent conquests in the West Indies or East Indies." He uses the old phrase about its being no longer possible for us to dwell quietly at home under our own vine and fig tree, and appears to think that it is our "chain of possessions from the Pacific Coast to the Asiatic" which alone gives us title and ability to

take part in the solution of the great problems of the Orient.

The real question is, however, whether we should not have both the right and the power to pursue our true national interest there, and in every other part of the world, without owning a foot of distant soil. Does our prestige run with the land alone? Has the American flag no function of protection, and no power to impose respect, except where it flies from a staff driven into American ground? The Isthmian incident is a timely reminder of the true answer to these questions. No one is anxiously asking why we do not annex a strip of land down there, so as to make our power effectively felt and advance our interests. The thing speaks for itself. We are better off, and so are the Central Americans, for our being able to deal with this hornet's nest in eruption as impartial spectators and friendly counsellors, and not as owners at their wits' end to know what to do next.

Mr. Gladstone, in a remark of his about Italian ambitions which has been recently reported, put his finger upon the weakness of the ill-considered desire for territorial expansion and for cutting a great figure in the world:

> "Ah! if Italy would only drop that senseless Ultramontane alliance, how she might go ahead! I only wish I could do anything to help her to walk in that way. But it is the extravagance of newly discovered vigor. Why, I saw a letter in the *Corriere* the other day, saying that Italy must do so-and-so, if she wished to be a *primaria nazione*. That is what they are all thinking about. The only way to be a *primaria nazione* is to foster your self-reliance, your integrity, all the qualities that make character; and not to be always making a great effort to do something or other."

The dispute is really not unlike that between "intensive" and "extensive" farming. Many a farmer has spread himself over barren acres until he is "land poor." A neighbor, working one-tenth the amount of land under a high degree of cultivation, may be far better off. At all events, we must get it into our heads that a nation's life, no more than a man's, consisteth in the abundance of the things which it possesseth. Character overleaps boundaries, and the influence of a nation that deserves to have influence cannot be pent up within its frontiers.

We have only to look closely at the facts to see what it truly is that gives America a great name abroad. It is, in the first place, our highly developed resources, our expanding trade, rather than our expanding territory. We have natural products and manufactured goods indispensable to the world's well-being. It is our trade which cannot be confined behind the oceans that wash our shores, and that pushes outward with irresistible force. With it go American ideas. By this impact upon other nations they are led to study our social and political organization, our education, our technical equipment. These are the things, and not cannon, that are making the American foreign conquests in which a judicious patriotism has most reason to delight. And our chief duty is to see to it that we have something at home worth sending abroad; that our government become as superior as our goods—our principles as admirable as our inventions. The extension of sovereign rights over territory is a wholly secondary matter. As we see so clearly on the Isthmus to-day, the American name may be honored and honorable, the American flag "full high advanced," without having a single possession except self-possession, moderation, and a strict regard for our international obligations and the rights of others.

DEMOCRATIC REORGANIZATION.

The first meeting of a new Congress under a new President is always interesting, and there are special reasons for thinking that the session which opened on Monday may prove of consequence in the improvement of our politics. The issues of national campaigns generally shape themselves in the discussions of the Senate and House, and there are questions now pending which are certain to provoke earnest debate.

This Congress is the fourth consecutive one which has been carried by the same party—a record without precedent in the memory of men now living. The Presidency has also been carried by the same party for the second successive term, which has not happened before since Grant's reëlection in 1872—if we except the term during which Hayes filled the office through the award of the Electoral Commission. The Republican majority in each branch of Congress is now so large that the party can easily carry out any policy upon which it is united.

Meanwhile, the Democrats are utterly demoralized. Bryanism has reduced the numerical strength of the party until it no longer has a Senator in the whole North east of the Rocky Mountain region, and only a scattering body of Representatives from this great section outside New York city. The party is as weak in intellectual strength and political sense as in numbers. Senator Jones of Arkansas, the nominal leader of the minority in the upper branch, lacks both the acumen and the breadth of view which are essential, and Representative Richardson, who occupies a similar position in the House, has never made a strong impression even upon his own party. In the men thus put to the front, as well as in the rank and file, the Opposition is so weak as almost to justify the ridicule of the Republicans.

But the shrewdest leaders of the Republican party do not exult over the free hand which their organization now has. They are not glad that at the opening of a new Republican Administration the Opposition is so weak that the majority can work its will without restraint. The veterans in politics recall more than one occasion within the past thirty years when a party has appeared to be invincible, and yet within a short time has gone to overwhelming defeat. The "tidal waves" of 1874, 1882, and 1890 in favor of the Democracy each followed Republican victories in a Presidential election, while the revolution which succeeded the Democratic success in the national election of 1892 was quite as sudden and sweeping.

It is obvious that the prevailing sentiment among the Republican managers favors a do-nothing policy, which should give the Opposition a great opportunity. A politician of the Hanna type is almost sure to argue, as the Ohioan does openly, that "let well enough alone" is the best course for a party which has been given victories for years by the blunders of a Democracy that seems still to be controlled by the old blunderers. Powerful financial elements reinforce this protest of the short-sighted political managers against action which "would unsettle things," as the protected interests assert that any opening of the tariff question would surely do. A whole brood of schemes seeking great appropriations from the Treasury has been hatched, and their promoters are laboring to prevent the reduction of taxation which may and should be made, in order that the surplus may be great enough to satisfy the demands of jobbers. Questions of our future relations with Cuba and the Philippines require careful attention and generous action, but selfish interests are already rallying their forces at Washington to prevent once more the discharge of our plain duty. In short, the whole tendency of things in the dominant party is distinctly towards the adoption of a Bourbon policy of doing as little as possible, and "trusting to luck" to carry the Congressional elections of 1902 and the Presidential contest of 1904.

The first thing for the Opposition in Congress to do is to cut loose from the burden of Bryanism, and face the future. A hopeful step in this direction has been taken by the Democratic members of the New York delegation, who presented an admirable series of resolutions at the party caucus on Saturday night. These resolutions condemn "the oppressive, restrictive, and often prohibitory features of the existing tariff," demand its amendment, favor reciprocity treaties, call for "just and generous treatment" of Porto Rico and Cuba, and for the latter "the largest practicable liberty of commercial intercourse with our own country," oppose such subsidy bills as that urged in the last Congress, as well as the use in any form of public money for the exclusive benefit of private interests, oppose the establishment of any

colonial system of the European type, and demand self-government for the people of other lands now in our power "at the earliest practicable moment."

These resolutions met opposition in the caucus on the supposition that Mr. McClellan, the Tammany member who presented them, was only the spokesman of Croker, and that this discredited boss was trying to "run" the National Democratic party. We learn that there is no foundation for this theory. The resolutions really had their birth in Brooklyn, and they represent the same progressive tendencies in the Democracy of that borough which led to the nomination and election of several Gold-Standard Democrats to Congress in 1900. The matter was referred to a committee, which is to report this month, and an airing of all the questions involved ought to convince the party at large that the only future for Democracy is along such lines. Independents keenly realize the terrible misfortune to the nation of a weak Opposition, and will earnestly hope that there may be a speedy reorganization of the Democracy into a strong party.

THE TARIFF SAFETY-VALVE.

Secretary Root speaks for the Administration, no doubt, and speaks forcibly, when he urges Congress to reduce the duties on Cuban and Philippine sugar and tobacco at once. His annual report argues the matter on both economic and governmental grounds. Cuba's only possible market is in the United States; it would be easy for us to build up a much greater market for our products in Cuba; freer trade relations will be a good thing, therefore, on both sides. This may be heresy to the hide-bound protectionist, but to the business man it will come as a cheering gleam of common sense.

The case is really simplicity itself. Here we have at our doors an almost inexhaustible source of the cheapest and best sugar in the world. Americans are already the greatest sugar-consumers on earth. Why should they think themselves compelled to pay an extra and needless cent and a half a pound for this necessary of life? As the *Tribune's* Washington correspondent puts it, in a sudden access of frankness about the effect of protective taxes on the consumer, we pay for our sugar $84,000,000 a year more than it would cost if imported free. Of this amount, he truly says, $48,000,000 goes into the Treasury, and $36,000,000 into the pockets of the protected interests. But our obvious self-interest in reducing or removing the sugar tax is really two-fold. We should buy more and cheaper sugar of the Cubans; they would buy of us more machinery and cotton goods and bacon. There never was a clearer opportunity for developing a great trade, advantageous to both sides. Mr. Root states the case conclusively. His logic is unanswerable. The protectionists in Congress do not intend to answer it, but only, with their "fine brute majority," to vote it down.

They ought, however, to weigh not only the Secretary's commercial arguments, but his plea on grounds of high national policy. He paints with vigorous but not exaggerated strokes a picture of the certain fate of Cuba if we deny her the speedy relief which we have promised. Her great industry, the very life of the island as it is, finds itself in a critical situation. Unless the threatened disaster to it is averted, distress and misery will surely follow, and on an appalling scale. The good work done under our military government will be thrown away. Our troops cannot withdraw, or, if they do, will leave behind them only a scene of agricultural ruin and governmental anarchy. With reciprocity denied, no Cuban Government could live a week. All this Secretary Root sets forth, and shows convincingly that in Cuba, as in the Philippines, the stimulation of trade by tariff concessions is the only direct way to the withdrawal or reduction of our garrisons, the only means of economy, and the only measure which will at once conciliate our island wards, set them on their feet, and enable us to face them and the world as men who have kept our promises.

President Roosevelt in his message is leading Congress to the water of Cuban reciprocity with fully as vigorous a jerk upon the halter; but can he and Secretary Root and Gen. Wood and our worried exporters all together make the animal drink? That is the question. If we may believe the outgivings of the Republican managers, the question is already answered in the negative. They have determined to do nothing. If they adhere to their announced plans, the Cubans will be turned away empty-handed, the Filipinos will get nothing, and our manufacturers and farmers, with an eye on the export trade, will be told to content themselves with "the home market," already bursting as it is with their products. And all for what? All in order that the men who see their personal advantage in the tariff, which many of them consider that they bought and paid for, may not be disturbed in their little monopolies. All in order that the Republican party may, if possible, cover up its internal differences on this whole subject, lest they become sharp dissensions and lead to somebody's losing an office. Trade may be lost, and welcome; opportunities may be thrown out of the window; but if the offices are lost, what will be left for this unhappy country then?

For our part, we do not believe that this policy of silence and suppression can be followed. The Republicans of the West are not so easily frightened or gagged; and the Western Republican view of the tariff situation is that something must be done about it, and that without loss of time. This view was plumply laid before the President, the other day, by Governor-elect Cummins of Iowa, who stated it to be, in effect, as follows:

"(1.) Western Republicans want the tariff revised, either by means of a direct reduction in certain duties, or by reciprocity treaties which shall mean something tangible.

"(2.) They will not be satisfied with a 'let well enough alone' policy, or with any makeshift which pretends to reduce, but actually does nothing of the sort.

"(3.) They will not be put off with reciprocity treaties which affect non-competitive articles and goods, because they know such reciprocity is a sham.

"(4.) They are not content to sit idly by while Continental countries are raising tariff rates and shutting out American agricultural products in retaliation for the continuation of our high-tariff walls for the benefit of Eastern manufacturers.

"(5.) They will not long endure paying for home-made protected goods higher prices than those goods are sold for abroad.

"(6.) They want competition in all the goods which they consume; and if they cannot get competition at home, they want the tariff reduced, so that it may come from abroad."

This is the dangerous rumbling of the steam in the boilers with which the Republican engineers have to deal. They can open the safety-valve and relieve the pressure, or they can continue squatting upon it till they are blown up.

THE DUTIES ON BAGGAGE.

Secretary Gage's article in the December *North American Review* on the "Customs Inspection of Baggage" is excellent so far as it goes. It expresses the determination of the Treasury Department to enforce the law as it stands, without fear or favor. Rich and poor alike are compelled to bow to it. The "courtesy of the port"—that mantle to cover a multitude of smuggling—has been abolished except in the cases of foreign ministers and commissioners, Government officials, and "invalids and their companions," as also of "persons arriving in charge of their dead, or summoned home in haste by news of affliction or disaster." The baggage inspectors themselves have been more rigidly inspected, and the force more ingeniously organized, for the purpose of breaking up the old system of bribery. And the fiscal result of this new enforcement of the law is seen in collections nearly five-fold what they were. During the seven months ending September 30, baggage duties to the amount of $655,000 were turned in, whereas the corresponding period in 1900 yielded but $152,000.

All this is as it should be, *the law being what it is.* For our part, we have always desired that the full rigors of the baggage tax be inflicted upon Americans returning to their own, their native land. That is the way to make the law odious. By that means alone can the crass barbarity of the law be brought home to a certain order of pro-

tectionist intellect. We know, in fact, that it has had that happy effect in many cases. More than one smilingly complacent protectionist, as he was before, has left the pier, stripped and gasping, and crying out in a lamentable voice, "I believe in protection, of course, but this! Understand, I am a good Republican, but if there is any way of making the party smart for this sort of thing, why, count me in!" This is, to us, a delightful way of proving that the extreme of the law is the extreme of injustice. More power to the rummaging elbow of the baggage inspector, say we, and may he spill out on the dock contents of the trunk of every high-and-mighty protectionist until the law is repealed. Of *this* method of "frying the fat" out of protectionists we heartily approve.

What we miss in Secretary Gage's article is any, the slightest, reference to the propriety of the law. His official position doubtless forbids him to go into that, though it is the one thing which cries out for treatment. Why move heaven and earth to enforce a law which is so petty and absurd in its intent, and so offensive in its application, that it ought never to have had a place in the statute-book, and should, for all sound reasons of convenience, economy, and policy, be repealed at once?

It is unquestionably one of those laws which are better done away with because they are directly provocative of fraud and corruption and both public and private demoralization. In one sentence Mr. Gage seems to flatter himself that his Department has "broken up" the system of bribery formerly in vogue in connection with the inspection of baggage. But further on he thinks it safer to admit that "there is undoubtedly some wrong-doing still." Not only some, but a good deal, if the tales of returning Americans are not all the "great lies of great travellers," to use the Spanish phrase. In the nature of the case it must be so, sooner or later. A temporary spurt of vigilance may check the corruption for a time, but it is certain to return and be more widespread than ever. The law puts a premium upon bribery, offers a large reward for smuggling, and places before the officers sworn to enforce it the most alluring temptations to wink at its violation. Everybody knows that this is so. Human nature being what it is, the infallible consequence of a high protective tariff, enacted against swarms of travellers, is to defeat its own end, and promote only false swearing, itching palms, and payment of bribes instead of duties.

In addition to all this, the law is really humiliating to the United States in the exasperatingly petty attitude which it compels us to assume among the nations. It makes us look as if we thought travel a crime, and the intercourse of the civilized world a thing to be put down. The vexatious inquiries, the minute cross-examination, the insulting and indecent exposure of personal belongings in a public place, the delays, the risks to health, the open solicitations to bribery to which Americans are now subject on coming back to their own shores, are proceedings which might not surprise one in Timbuctoo or Uganda, but are frightfully out of place in a country leading the world in wealth and power. They are as much out of keeping with our station as if a Vanderbilt or a Rockefeller were to be seen with a gunny-sack on his shoulder, raking out rags and crusts from the garbage-barrels along Hester Street. No less miserly and paltry does this great nation appear when it harasses its own citizens for a few thousands of dollars duties on personal baggage. Laws, said John Stuart Mill, are made for the protection of men, not of phrases. In legislating to save the phrase "protective tariff," the Dingley Act went so far as to forget the men and women whose comfort and education and general benefit in foreign travel are of more value to the public than all the dollars and all the "consistency of protective theory" which can possibly be got out of the baggage law. The real question is not how to enforce it, but how to expunge it. As a source of national disgrace—for it makes foreigners jeer at us—as a direct prompting to corruption, and as a specimen of rag-picking legislation unworthy of a rich and proud people, Congress should "reform it altogether"—that is, should return to the ante-Dingley practice, as regards personal baggage, in force from the foundation of the Government until the absurd "$100 clause" was put into the tariff.

ASPECTS OF BIOGRAPHY.

At a recent meeting of the Edinburgh Philosophical Institution Lord Rosebery, as presiding officer, discussed entertainingly the subject of biographies, a matter concerning which the author of 'Napoleon: the Last Phase' professed complete inexperience.

> "In my Utopia," he said, "I would have a Board of Censors, who would not allow the biographies of any one to be issued without their sanction. They would divide their time into people whose biographies were to be written, and those whose biographies were not to be written. . . . I would go a little further. I would classify even those biographies that are permissible; and when the subject was once taken as being licensed for a biography, I would divide the biographies into first-class biographies, second-class biographies, third-class biographies, and biographies that might be put into a very expanded biographical dictionary. That would be the fourth class. The first class might have three volumes, the second might have two, and the third one."

Just why such a censorship was desirable had been already explained by the speaker of the evening, Mr. Asquith. It was not so much that there were few persons worthy of biography—in fact, Mr. Asquith believed that certain lives, like that of the late Master of Balliol, must inevitably evade the biographer's analysis; it was rather that very few are fitted for the biographer's task.

It is, indeed, a curious fact that one of the most difficult branches of the literary art should ordinarily be turned over to the unskilled. That the portraying of great men should so commonly fall to intimate friends, pious relatives, indiscreet admirers, or, worse yet, to industrious hacks, brings a deeper penalty than is usually the result of dabbling in letters. For most literary forms have their laws, by obeying which the most inexpert may be spared the worst indiscretions. Biography, on the other hand, remains an unscheduled realm of the writer's art. Before the biographer lies a confused mass of material—letters, journals, published writings, anecdotes, comments of friend and of foe. From this mere cumulation of details in themselves insignificant he must select the significant, and shape and weld it all into the figure of a living and breathing man. This is his task. But nothing prevents him from misusing this material. He may write a series of disquisitions on phases of his hero's activities, and bind them in a book, in the hope that paste and boards will do the part of constructive vision; or he may print his raw material in chronological order, and call upon the reader to be the biographer. Into one pitfall or the other most biographers have fallen.

No offence is more generally laid at the biographer's door than failure in frankness. As Thackeray virtually dared the novelists of his day, himself included, to paint the picture of a man as unsparingly as Fielding had done in 'Tom Jones,' so there is a pretty constant suspicion that most of the "lives" on the book-stalls have been pretty thoroughly pruned in a spirit of charity. This suspicion has led to a counter tendency in biography, and to a series of "real" Shelleys, Byrons, Washingtons, etc., in which the "real" means usually "objectionable" or "immoral." Of course this is only to replace an indiscretion of friendliness by an indiscretion of unfriendliness. But it is probable that what often seems cowardice in the biographer is rather inexpertness. The enormous mass of material that is at hand for a modern man of any prominence is appalling. Few will handle it with the felicity that Mr. Scudder has shown in his 'Lowell.' The great majority will fumble rather helplessly with the mass, and draw out what seems superficially most attractive. This procedure may well deserve the kind of reprehension it is certain to incur from Mr. Henley and professional truth-tellers generally, but the criticism really lies less against the character than the judgment of the biographer.

For it all comes down to the question of judgment. Mr. Henley will have it that Mr. Graham Balfour has completely suppressed a very unedifying but most human and attractive Stevenson in favor of a heroic "shorter catechist" who wrote Vailima prayers and abounded in lay sermons. Here we touch a difficult matter, and should not rashly decide with Mr. Henley. Is it not possible that the shorter catechist in Stevenson may have been the essential man, that the conscious Bohemianism which Mr. Henley wished to see emphasized may, after all, only be a graft upon the sturdy Scottish stock? If so, Mr. Balfour is justified in his reticences and in the proportions which he has chosen for his book. If any really important chapter of Stevenson's life remains to be told, if experiences which wrought permanently upon his character have been slurred, we may well thank Mr. Henley if he will supply the missing clue. But if Stevenson's random stage was simply that of many another man, the less we know of it (except that it esisted) the better. In fact, the apostles of frankness in biography often seem to have in mind a very stupid or a very guileless reader. No one, for example, who knows the world will need to be told the full story of the time when Stevenson, the undergraduate, lived sordidly over a tobacco-shop; no one who is ignorant of the world should be told it.

If simple inexpertness is at the bottom of so much bad biography, Lord Rosebery's Utopian college of censors might better busy themselves with deciding who should write biographies than with selecting persons to be written about. For it might almost be said that no life is so unimportant that its record under a master hand may not yield something for the recreation and the enlightenment of us all. No sensible reader refuses to enjoy Sainte-Beuve's 'Portraits' simply because many of these people made little stir in the world. The supply of subjects is inexhaustible; the supply of heaven-born biographers small. Meanwhile we must put up with the publishers' judgment, instead of Lord Rosebery's censorship; and even as it is, and excluding the acknowledged masterpieces, biography has a peculiar value. When we are tempted, in Mr. Asquith's words, "to doubt the ultimate purpose and meaning of human existence"—as what thoughtful mind is not at times?—then the remembrance of many lives which have been lived greatly brings back the assurance that, however mysterious the ends of living may be, living is itself infinitely interesting, and worth while. Some such enhancement of life comes from all great literature; from biography it comes in a form singularly personal and direct. Upon the biographer, then, rests an especial responsibility, for in his hands are the issues not of one life only, but of many lives.

TWO PICTURES WITH A PAST.

LONDON, November, 1901.

There are two pictures now being exhibited in London, the interest of which depends in a large measure upon their recent adventures. These are the famous "Duchess of Devonshire," by Gainsborough, at Messrs. Agnew's Gallery in Bond Street, and the equally famous Chigi Botticelli, at Messrs. Colnaghi's in Pall Mall. Both have been the subject of so much talk and discussion that I think most people have been as curious as I to find out how far their artistic merit justifies the excitement.

The story of the "Lost Duchess" has long been well known, and the recovery of the missing canvas only last spring was the cause of its being told over again, with detail eloquently elaborated. The picture was bought at the Wynn Ellis sale in 1876 by Messrs. Agnew for £10,605, a price unusually large in those days. Almost at once, the picture mysteriously disappeared; thieves had cut it out of the frame and carried it off by night. All sorts of rumors were promptly spread: Messrs. Agnew had been cheated and preferred to get rid of the picture rather than admit they had been taken in—and so on, and so on. But rumors did not bring back the picture, and even those who had repeated the tale began to wonder if a firm of business men would be willing to sink so much money to pay for a blunder. Occasionally, in the course of years, one heard that the picture, now here, now there, was on the point of being returned by the thieves. And, in fact, so much was said that the public was inclined to think it but another report when the London papers announced last spring that one of the Agnews had just come home from America with the "Lost Duchess" in his luggage.

The picture was to have been exhibited in May, but the exhibition was put off. In the meanwhile, another "Duchess of Devonshire," with an equally adventurous record, made its appearance at Messrs. Graves's: a three-quarter length, which some claimed to be the original canvas from which the familiar engraving was made. The story was, that the Duchess had objected to its being exhibited, and had carried it off as soon as finished; then Gainsborough painted a second, for exhibition—Messrs. Agnew's picture. Certainly, Gainsborough did paint two; but another story is that he was himself disappointed with the first, and, on its being exhibited at the Royal Academy in 1778 and declared by Walpole to be "very bad and washy," he smeared the mouth with a wet brush, refused to deliver the portrait, destroyed it, and set to work at a second—Messrs. Agnew's.

According to the tale of last spring, the first had not been destroyed by any one, but had been presented by the Duchess to a nameless son. His heirs had carried it to the colonies and it had turned up in London again, just at the moment when interest was at fever heat. I saw the picture, but it was so decidedly the worse for wear that I should hesitate to pronounce an opinion. Neither do I vouch for the stories; I repeat them merely for what they are worth. And now, after all this excitement, the stolen "Duchess" is once more on public exhibition in London. It seems almost useless to describe the picture, so well is it known. It is a half length, and the Duchess, with her towering black hat and feathers overshadowing the elaborate coiffure of the day, her often-copied fichu, her arms crossed, the right hand, unseen, holding up her draperies, the left playing with a rosebud, is as familiar a personage to us all as the Philip of Velasquez, the Charles of Van Dyck, or the Rembrandt by himself. The ribbons are blue, and the white gown is shot through with blue, the color Gainsborough loved to paint; there is a romantic background of trees and sky, and the picture, as a whole, has the agreeable tone that comes with age. But, to be honest, it is a disappointment. At its best, it could never have been one of the masterpieces of Gainsborough, who could paint character as well as prettiness. This is the reason, probably, why doubts have been thrown upon its authenticity, though I am assured that one of the authorities ready to pronounce against it before he had seen the portrait, is, now that he has seen it, about to make a public recantation.

But it is too pretty; that is the trouble. The face has the sort of charm we associate with Books of Beauty and old-fashioned Keepsakes. And it looks to me as though it had been repainted, so much fresher is it than the bust and the crossed arms. I know that Gainsborough relied largely upon lines for his modelling. He did not give you the planes of the face in the manner of Velasquez, or, for that matter, of Raeburn, his contemporary and fellow-Briton. If you look at the Mrs. Siddons in the National Gallery, you will find in it too a flatness—an unwillingness, as it were, to admit that a woman's flesh can be anything but smooth and soft, free of aggressive modelling. But the face of the Duchess has a slickness, the cheeks a rosiness, the lips a redness I do not think so typical of Gainsborough. In this case, unquestionably, had the picture gone through only the usual sale-room and gallery adventures, it would scarcely have won its present fame. For my part, I should gladly exchange it for Gainsborough's less famous "Viscountess Ligonier," now in the same gallery, or even his modest little "Sir William Blackstone," with genuine character in the face, and a most ingenious arrangement of the judicial, fur-trimmed red robes. But neither of these pictures would have drawn the crowds that are daily flocking to Agnew's, and the chances are that never before has their winter exhibition made such a substantial sum for the Artists' General Benevolent Institution, to which the profits are always devoted. Mr. Pierpont Morgan may have the satisfaction—if it be a satisfaction—of knowing that he is the owner of the most-talked-about picture of the day.

The Chigi Botticelli, however, comes in a good second. If thieves have not lent it distinction, at least it can claim the glory of having been smuggled out of Italy; and feats of smuggling always do appeal to the public. The main facts here again are fairly familiar. The picture belonged to Prince Chigi, but was so little appreciated that it remained hidden away in one of the lower halls of his Roman palace for years before it was discovered by Morelli and declared by him to be, except for the frescoes in the Sistine Chapel, the only authentic Botticelli in Rome. This, of course, was enough to send every well-

trained Morellian post-haste to the palace in the Piazza Colonna, and almost every one of them has had a word to say on the subject. But the great public does not hear with the same thrill the news of the critic's latest attribution, and, the Chigi palace not being open to every tourist who knocks at the door, the picture, had it stayed there, would have been comparatively unknown.

Prince Chigi, however, determined to part with it, as many an Italian prince has parted with his treasures before now. The story at the time was, that nearly seven thousand pounds was offered for it by a foreign dealer, upon which "a kind of auction was held among other competitors." According to the rumor, it was knocked down to one of the Rothschilds for £12,600. But the one thing certain was that while, after the declaration of purchase had been made, as the Italian law requires, to the Minister of Public Instruction, and he was deliberating upon it, the picture disappeared from Rome just as the Gainsborough had disappeared from London. The Prince was fined by one court the sum he had received; by another court the fine was reduced to a trivial £80; a third court, that of Cassation, cancelled both decisions, and the case has been sent for hearing to a fourth court. Those who are not intimately acquainted with the intricacies of Italian law begin to wonder into how many more it can be dragged before a final decision is reached. Upon its disappearance fresh rumors were scattered broadcast: the purchaser was not a Rothschild but a London dealer; the picture was in Paris, in Boston, in the collection of Mrs. John L. Gardner; it was here, there, and everywhere—until the other day Messrs. Colnaghi calmly produced it in their Pall Mall Gallery—"Exhibited by kind permission of Mrs. John L. Gardner"; and admitted, in an accompanying pamphlet, that it was bought of Prince Chigi at Rome, by their representative, in June, 1899.

One word about the picture before I point out the serious effect which its manner of transport may have. It is a very charming Botticelli, "The Madonna and Infant Christ and Angel" in the English catalogue, "La Madone aux Épis" in the French, but probably destined always to be known hereafter as "The Chigi Botticelli." The Angel, very typically Botticellian, offers a dish of grapes and wheat, symbolizing the Blessed Sacrament, to the Virgin, who holds, with less than her accustomed timidity, the infant Jesus, his right hand uplifted in the act of blessing the Angel's offering. The figures are set against an architectural screen, beyond which is a glimpse of low, brown hills and winding river. The design is graceful and harmonious, and the Angel seems the forerunner of many of the characteristic figures in Botticelli's later Madonnas. The Virgin, to me, is suggestive of Fra Lippo, though the experts say the picture, still a youthful work, was painted just at the time when Pollajuolo's influence was succeeding to the Friar's.

As Messrs. Colnaghi explain that, after Morelli's discovery, it was "judiciously renovated by Cavaliere Cavenaghi," it would be discreet not to pronounce upon its merits as a Botticelli too dogmatically. But the Morellian must pass a verdict of some kind (to him the passing of verdicts is the end of art); and in London he is busy finding such expression of transient and complex emotions in the picture as to make it seem already a foretaste of Leonardo.

It is, no doubt, something of a triumph for Mrs. Gardner and the London dealers to be displaying to the public the results of that clever little transaction in Rome—and all for the benefit of a charity, too, the Prince of Wales's Hospital Fund. But law is law, and, in the eye of the Italian law, the picture was taken from the country illegally. You may think the Italian regulations in regard to works of art absurd, but there they are, and if you choose to go to Italy, you have to face and accept them. Now there must naturally be much latitude in the enforcement of these regulations. It is only in the case of pictures as famous as the Chigi Botticelli, or the Lemmi frescoes, which also were smuggled out of Italy, that attention is certain to be called to their infringement. But though it may not, as it should, be generally known, the law reaches the modern artist and his work as well. The American who goes to Italy cannot legally bring away his own sketches, or drawings, or pictures, or whatever it may be, without submitting to tedious formalities. For instance, as I know from an artist who has just returned from Venice, in that town he would have to carry his work to the accredited authorities at the Academy, at the hour appointed by them for their convenience, have it examined, measured, signed, and sealed by them, and then pay sixty centimes into the bargain. I do not suppose any one ever goes through this ceremony, and I do not believe any one has been stopped at the frontier for not doing so. But the report in Italy is that the Chigi Botticelli was smuggled out in an ordinary trunk; and now that the picture, after this adventure, is being publicly exhibited in a London gallery of repute, the Italian Government will no doubt become more vigilant. Ninety-nine artists may pass unchallenged; it will be the hundredth—some unfortunate American, perhaps, who has been going quietly about his own business of painting or drawing—who must bear the penalty.

But the extraordinary part of it to me is that the picture can hang peacefully on Messrs. Colnaghi's walls, or eventually in Mrs. Gardner's collection. If the Italian Government can demand satisfaction in Washington, or at the Court of St. James's, when anything happens to any Italian subject in any miserable riot, the responsibility for which may rest with himself, one would think it would not have to look on in silence at this triumphant display of a smuggled Italian treasure. But the chances are, as I say, that some unoffending artist will yet be made to pay, and so my warning may prove useful. The modern Italian has no respect for anything that is old, or anything that is beautiful; he must see the brand-new to be impressed. I do not doubt that the old work is in better hands when it has left Italy for the museums of Europe or even for private collections. But, for the sake of the artist who visits Italy, the pity is that old work cannot leave the country without open defiance of that country's laws.

N. N.

Correspondence.

SPECIAL PUNISHMENT FOR PRESIDENTIAL ASSASSINATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Respected Friend: The argument of Solicitor-General Richards, in his recent speech in Philadelphia, to prove that especial laws for the punishment of Anarchical attempts on our Presidents would be Constitutional, gives us a foretaste of the discussion of this matter by the ensuing Congress. It seems to me that the first question to be decided is, not whether such laws are Constitutional, but whether they are expedient. If such laws are inexpedient, all argument to prove that they are Constitutional is not only entirely gratuitous, but also inexpedient. It is a well-recognized fact that this crime is not likely to be committed—as an Anarchical crime at least—except by persons whose unbalanced and morbid minds are so inflamed by the spectacular features of the act that the legal punishment is rather an incentive than a deterrent. This plainly indicates the impropriety of investing the crime with avoidable spectacular features peculiar to itself. Our safety lies in the fact that our system of government renders the murder of the President utterly without even a plausible Anarchic excuse, because it is absolutely abortive and nugatory as an attack on governmental institutions. This is the obvious lesson of the late assassination, that needs to be particularly emphasized. But it seems that many of the leaders of our people are themselves so befogged by the spectacular features which distraught nerves and a vivid imagination may attribute to the case, that they are determined to exaggerate the merits of the crime from the Anarchistic point of view.

Freeman Stewart.

CHINESE EXCLUSION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A convention which was recently held in San Francisco for the purpose of continuing the barrier against immigration from China, ended by a memorial to Congress, with a repetition of the old arguments. The convention was composed almost exclusively of representatives of organized labor and the invertebrate politicians who enjoy, or who hope to enjoy, the favor of that considerable body of voters. It was a love-feast of that class which is willingly influenced by race hatred, is given to the use of broad phrases touching the liberty of mankind and the rights of Americans, and is determined to recognize the rights of the members of their own organizations, to the absolute exclusion of the rights of any who do not unite with them, or who, it is certain, are not likely to affiliate with them.

The narrow ground of the labor unions, as made manifest in the recent strike (when there were said to have been over two thousand brutal assaults by union men upon non-union men)—that a laborer who does not belong to a union has no rights—is in harmony with the tone of the memorial. The politicians of both parties do not dare to stand on a broader basis. Nevertheless, it would be a mistake for people

who are so unfortunate as to reside outside of this labor-union-ridden community to accept inconsiderately this convention as at all expressing the opinions of the intelligent and fair-minded inhabitants of this State. They see in its action another blow at the existence of liberty to honest and independent labor, and a continuance of the subjection of employers to a deprivation of requisite help, even when coupled with the tyrannous conditions imposed by labor unions. They know that the picture of wrongs from Chinese immigration is ridiculously over-colored; that the need of the State for labor is not and cannot be satisfied by any possible supply of unskilled laborers in this country; that the alleged deteriorating influence of Chinamen upon the white population is utterly without foundation; that no considerable body of Americans ever did or is ever likely to suffer by competition with so-called Asiatic hordes, who fill a niche by themselves which cannot be filled in any other way; that the possibility of said hordes overwhelming this country is supremely absurd, in view of the impossibility of providing vessels sufficient to bring them if they desired to immigrate, and especially of the fact that, when the ports of America were most free to Chinamen, almost as many returned home yearly as came hither—moreover, that the average yearly increase of Chinese resident here did not much exceed six thousand, and that, at the time the barrier of exclusion was first erected, they had just become conscious of a greater America than was within the limits of the States on the Pacific Coast, and had already begun their immigration deeper into the broad land, among whose millions they were silently and unconcernedly absorbed. The virtues of the Chinese—their patience, industry, skill, economy, obedience, and absence from political interference or concern—put to shame the fearless impudence, laziness, and self-seeking of the immigrants to the Atlantic shore, who, with the first breath of American liberty, become intolerant of its enjoyment by any others.

A Subscriber.

San Francisco, November 27, 1901.

"MOAT."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the town of Groton, Massachusetts, the word *moat* is given to a small body of water usually found at the mouth of various brooks which empty into the Nashua River. For ten, fifteen, or twenty rods above the outlet there is a considerable widening of the small stream; and the adjacent ground is wet and boggy. In the spring and summer this sheet of water is generally covered with lily-pads, and is much frequented by pickerel. These pondholes are commonly known among the farmers as *moats*—a term not in use with the same meaning in the neighboring towns, even though lying on the same river. It hardly seems probable that this use of the word is connected in any way with the ditch around a house or castle, filled with water. Groton is a town very nearly two hundred and fifty years old; and I am inclined to think that it is a folk-word, brought over from England by the early settlers.

Governor Boutwell writes me, under date of July 10, 1901, that "the word *moat* has been in use in Groton during my residence in the town, now more than sixty-six years. At several points on the Nashua River there are shallow channels that are nearly parallel with the river, and that connect with the river at the lower end. These are filled with water from the river. There are two such *moats* on my premises."

I should like it if anybody can throw light on the derivation of the word.

Samuel A. Green.

Boston, November 21, 1901.

THE CASE OF GEN. BULLER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you allow me, not as one having any special information, but merely as one of the too few Englishmen who read the *Nation* pretty regularly, to make one or two remarks on the paragraph respecting Gen. Buller in your paper of October 17? You are, according to all that I can make out, mistaken in supposing that the weight of social influence was cast in Gen. Buller's favor. On the contrary, it is generally believed that he was not *persona grata* either in what is called "society" (whose younger members are said to have been inadequately represented on his staff), or in the War Office, as at present constituted. He was one of the "Wolseley gang," as the men who are advanced by that officer are politely called, and that is not a title to favor just now. But, worst of all, he is said to have been lacking in due regard for the interests of the financiers who, whether or not they pay the piper, undoubtedly call the tune to which we are at present dancing; and, at his first start in Africa, he acted as though the safety of Ladysmith and an army were a more urgent claim on him than that of Mr. Rhodes and the diamond mines. As commander at Aldershot—a post which he held before his appointment to South Africa, and to which he reverted on his return—he could not have been overlooked when the commanders of our new "army corps" were being selected; but, from the moment of his appointment to one of those posts, a dead set was made at him in those organs of the press which claim to represent "society." I may say, too, that, from the moment he took command in Natal, all kinds of malicious rumors had been spread about him. At all events, he did what was doubtless imprudent in a man who must have known that any handle against him would be eagerly seized—he made a speech. Plenty of other generals have made speeches, and political speeches at that, in the last year; Buller's speech was purely personal. However, it gave the desired handle for the time, though I fancy we have not heard the last of it. I may add that it is by no means the opponents of the Government alone who are disgusted with their dealing in this matter. It is said that if a general election were held now, they would lose every seat in the west of England, to which Gen. Buller belongs. Moreover, he is better liked by his men than perhaps any other general in our army at present.

You will probably have seen ere this what is believed to be the true version of the inculpated message, and that the clause as to what was to be done in the event of surrender (surely a possible event in any siege) was written with the generous intention of saving his subordinate as much responsibility as might be.

Yours obediently, A. J. Butler.

Wood End, Weybridge, England, November 21, 1901.

Notes.

The 'Book of One Hundred Houses' about to be published by Herbert S. Stone & Co., Chicago, will be illustrated with photographs of actual homes.

Cassell & Co. are about to publish 'A Masque of Days, from the Last Essays of Elia,' with forty full-page designs in color, by Walter Crane; and 'Marine Painting in Water-Color,' by W. L. Wyllie, A. R. A.

New announcements by Macmillan Co. are 'The College Student and his Problem,' by James A. Canfield, LL.D., Librarian of Columbia University, and 'Mental Growth and Control,' by Nathan Oppenheim, M.D.

A. Wessels Co. will publish 'Christmas Carols, Ancient and Modern,' collected by Joshua Sylvestre.

A reissue of Smollett's Works in twelve volumes (London: Constable; New York: Scribners) might afford a theme for a homily or for a reappreciation of a writer still widely read less than fifty years ago, and possibly having now a certain vogue in our public libraries. There is undoubted historical value in his picaresque fiction, but it must be sought amid a repulsive amount of indecency and blackguardism, and perhaps existing editions would adequately have met the demand of the student of manners. We shall only say of the present revival that the volumes are large, the print unusually clear, the illustrations (one to each volume) confined to portraits of the author, a view of his monument at Leven, a facsimile of his handwriting, and, for the rest, Cruikshank's designs. The introduction is by Mr. W. E. Henley, and is full of rhetorical affectation and excess, larded with foreign phrases, and overweighted with footnotes. It cannot be regarded as a very tempting vestibule to the present enterprise.

Messrs. Scribner's name is associated with Downey & Co.'s in the final volume of the Thornton Edition of the Novels of the Sisters Brontë, being Mrs. Gaskell's Life of Charlotte. It has all the merit of its predecessors, as good book-making, while Mrs. Gaskell's intellectual and attractive face supplies the frontispiece.

The Oxford Miniature Edition of Browning's 'Dramatic Lyrics and Romances, and Other Poems' (Henry Frowde) is drawn from first editions, 1833-1855; but permission has been given to print the epilogue to "Asolando," Browning's swan-song, and his early portrait is prefixed. The Oxford India paper makes 800 pages a small thing for the pocket, box included. It is a treasure.

'Stray Papers by William Makepeace Thackeray' (Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.) is the assembled gleanings of Mr. Lewis Melville from the files of those news journals to which Thackeray contributed between the years 1821-1847. Much of this volume is of very dubious authenticity unless we may accept the opinion of Mr. Melville and his friends as final authority on Thackeray's style. More of the volume was scarcely worth saving, even if it be authen-

tic. At least two or three of Thackeray's book-reviews for the *Times* are welcome. Nothing that the author of 'Henry Esmond' and the "Lectures on the English Humorists" had to say on such subjects as "The Duchess of Marlborough's Private Correspondence" or on "Henry Fielding" can be regarded as unimportant. The compression needful to bring all this matter into 500 pages has compelled resort to a pretty crowded page in small type. There are numerous illustrations, apparently by Thackeray.

Messrs. T. Y. Crowell & Co. call our attention to the fact that, in our recent notice of Mrs. Garnett's new version of Tolstoy's 'Anna Karenin,' our reviewer selected for comparison Mr. Dole's *first* translation, which was avowedly partly from the French, overlooking his "new translation, directly from the Russian," which forms part of the uniform edition recently issued by the same house. This is a proper rectification, but our reviewer had no animus in choosing the most accessible edition. We have examined the sample passages cited in our notice, and find that Mr. Dole is now much closer to Mrs. Garnett and the original than formerly.

Mrs. Pimenoff-Noble's 'Before the Dawn' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) refers to the early seventies, "before the dawn" of educational reforms in Russia, in the restless period of student enthusiasm for "going to the people" and plotting insurrection. It is somewhat of the conventional type of such romances. The heroine, Tanya, is a beautiful, charitable girl-student, whose origin is wrapped in mystery, and who turns out to be the real owner of the wicked banker's wealth, said banker being an exconvict and the father of Tanya's dearest friend. Unlike the procedure in real life, the banker repents, after experiencing divers bereavements (also unlike the real experience of rascals), and makes restitution, thereby enabling Tanya to marry the man of her choice. This hero is, also, rather stereotyped: handsome, mysterious, fascinating, the illegitimate son of a princess, and, to crown his romantic perfections, a plotter against the Government, who has escaped from Siberia. This process he afterwards successfully repeats. The subordinate characters and discussions are of the usual order. The book is well written, though with a certain stiffness which would seem to indicate a first effort, and is mildly interesting for those who like the subject. It is unfortunate for both the author and the readers that the majority of the proper names are wrongly accented, including such familiar examples as Gontcharoff, Viazemsky, Likachev, Lobanov (and its feminine form, Lobanova), Rozhdesvenstky, Gorokhovaya, Vorontzoff, Tverskaya, Mokhovaya, Khomiakoff.

Mr. William Henry P. Phyfe, hitherto known chiefly as a writer on pronunciation, has gathered, in 815 double-column pages, '5,000 Facts and Fancies: A Cyclopædia of Important, Curious, Quaint, and Unique Information in History, Literature, Science, Art, and Nature' (Putnams). Not much of its contents can be "unique," though some items may be uncommon. Many of the topics are familiar to persons of average education, and a large proportion may be found in any well-regulated encyclopædia; but the compiler has aimed to fill up the deficiencies of these, while covering any ground common to him and them. Special attention has been paid to nicknames; thus, the adjective Little is here prefixed to Dickens's Dorrit, Em'ly, and Nell, to Mac and Napoleon (McClellan), to Villain (in Greeley's acrid phrase for his rival H. J. Raymond), etc. In this category, or near it, one might look to find the Deutero-Isaiah and the Pseudo-Clementines, but in vain. "Zu-zu" is here (for the Zouaves of 1861), but not Mr. Kipling's "Fuzzy-wuzzy," a later and still fiercer man of war. Most of our political and military Americanisms are here, but not "Fuss and Feathers," nor yet the more recent "Bushwhacker." In another field, Purgatory is here, but not the Intermediate State; in yet another, the Triquetra is notable by its absence; but the curiosities included probably outnumber those overlooked, and the ordinary reader, to whom Mr. Phyfe especially appeals, is likely to find the collection satisfactory. It is not a book of the cheap and random kind formerly so abundant: the author has laboriously sought to be accurate, and apparently with good success. "In the midst of life," here credited to a hymn of Luther, is found in a MS. of the eleventh century, and is popularly ascribed to Notker (d. 912). Two curious items are the alleged tracing of the word Methodist to "Cromwell's time" and of the Law of Gravitation to Shakspere.

Mr. Percy W. Church is a mighty hunter, and has put together a modest little book ('Chinese Turkestan with Caravan and Rifle'; London: Rivingtons), on the big game still to be found in Chinese Turkestan, especially the Altaic wapiti, the great stag of the Tian-Shan, which is cousin to our elk. There is in it no pretension to geographical or political information, nor attempt at fine descriptive writing. But the record, with its detailed information on the conditions and chances of *shikari* there and the necessary equipment for it, will undoubtedly be very useful to the small number of sportsmen who can go hunting in Central Asia. It is entertaining, too, in its simple, straightforward way.

Mr. A. J. Wyatt's 'Old English Reader' (Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan) confines itself strictly to early West Saxon. Its ninety-six pages of text are taken from the Chronicle and from King Alfred's 'Orosius' and 'Pastoral Care.' As the editor points out in his preface, the book thus contributes, in its way, to the celebration of the royal translator's thousandth anniversary. There are, however, no traces of festal profusion. The entries in the glossary occupy, as a rule, a single line. Quantities are marked only here. The notes concisely identify localities and assist in translation, giving references to the author's 'Old English Grammar.' The only foreign scholar whom the author has occasion to name is Rask (died 1832). Text, notes, and glossary are commendably accurate, but no concession is made to the weaker sort, who would like even a Reader of Old English to be attractive.

The present revival of the Irish language is largely due, in the first instance, to the scholarship and the publications of Dr. Joyce. His 'School Irish Grammar' has for the past twenty years been the only working grammar available for ordinary students, Zeuss's being beyond all but advanced students, and O'Donovan's, likewise for advanced students, being out of print. Dr. Joyce has now two competitors—Mr. Craig's 'Modern Irish Grammar,' published last year, and the Christian Brothers' 'Grammar of Irish' (Dublin: Gill & Son), which has just appeared. This last is likely to prove the most formidable rival to the older work. It is a marvel of cheapness, furnishing a larger page, clearer type, and more than twice the number of pages, for the same money. It has many new features, explains and defines much that is left obscure in previous works of similar pretensions. Most students of Irish, even if holding to their old guides, are likely to purchase a copy, if only for reference. Joyce's work is simpler and less complicated; it puts forward, in a scholarly way, the grammatical features necessary to be grasped by the elementary student. We still believe it to be a better work for children and adult learners to begin with. There is some danger of the nice refinements of a curiously complicated language, stated as they are in the Christian Brothers' 'Grammar,' discouraging many who might be led on by Joyce's broader and simpler exposition.

'The Theory of Romantic Comedy' (Brussels: Schepens), by Paul Hamelius, professor at the Royal Athenæum of Elsene, Brussels, will recommend itself to American readers in no small measure on account of the popularity of the *genre* at the present time. Dr. Hamelius is already known to scholars on this side of the Atlantic by his excellent monograph on 'English Criticism in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries.' In his latest work the methods and results of German æsthetics are applied to the field of romantic comedy, which the one-sided treatment of Mr. Meredith's recent essay had left untouched in the exclusive consideration of the comedy of manners. A considerable body of literature has grown up of late about the subject of the comic, including the works of such writers as Michaels, Bergson, Philbert, and Massarini, and the present study of Hamelius will be found an interesting and intelligent introduction to the subject. We have already called attention to the small but enthusiastic group of Anglicists at Brussels, of which he is one of the foremost members, and in this connection it may not be inappropriate to mention that the Institut Solvay, recently founded at the University of Brussels through the munificence of the wealthy Belgian merchant, whose name it bears, will include hereafter on its staff of instructors two other members of this group, M. Paul de Reul, who will lecture on the evolution of language, and M. Vermeylen, who will lecture on the history of art.

Acton Davies's 'Maude Adams' (Frederick A Stokes Co.) is a brightly written, highly laudatory, and profusely illustrated biographical sketch of a young actress, whose attractive personality and natural adaptability to certain lines of eccentric light comedy have enabled her to win the rewards of wide popularity without any very solid achievement. In such plays as "The Masked Ball" and "The Little Minister" she was well suited and did some good work, but her success in "Romeo and Juliet" and "L'Aiglon" was without serious artistic significance. Her dramatic growth is still problematical. As yet, she has

done nothing to entitle her to the dignity of a volume, and Mr. Davies's little book is made up largely of play-plots, childish anecdotes, large type, photographs, and abundant margins. It seems to be a tribute of personal friendship, and doubtless will be valued as such by Miss Adams and her enthusiastic admirers.

The Protozoa, from their simplicity of organization and the suspicion that a thorough knowledge of them might furnish clues to a solution of the problems of the beginning of animal life, have always excited the interest of both the professional naturalist and the microscopist. Their vital processes appear to afford a transition from the manifestations of life in its simplest expression to those seen in the lower members of the other types of invertebrates. By search among these unicellular organisms it has long been hoped that morphological problems of deep significance in the evolution of the higher animals might be solved. Investigation has shown that some of the direst ailments which afflict humanity, such as cancer, malaria, and dysentery, may probably be traced to the influence of malign protozoa. No thoroughly satisfactory summary of our present knowledge of this group has hitherto been accessible in English, and therefore the manual by Gary N. Calkins, in the Columbia University Biological Series (Macmillan), is doubly welcome. In addition to the technical systematic portion, which forms the body of the work and will be chiefly interesting to professional students, the author has provided an introduction treating of the history of research upon the group, and the general features of the animals it contains, which could hardly be uninteresting to any intelligent reader. Mr. Calkins has been particularly happy in his manner of presentation, which leaves nothing to be desired in the way of literary finish and ease of statement—points in which many eminent naturalists are regrettably deficient. The book is elegantly printed and illustrated, many of the excellent figures being due to the facile pencil of Mrs. Calkins; and, as it fills a notable gap in the ranks of modern English handbooks, will without doubt meet with due appreciation from the large body of students to which it appeals.

The fourth part of the 'Treatise on Zoology' edited by E. Ray Lankester (Macmillan), comprising the Platyhelmia, Mesozoa, and Nemertini, has been prepared by Prof. W. B. Benham of the University of Otago, New Zealand, very much on the lines of the previous issues of this series. The groups treated of include the so-called flat worms and many organisms of a parasitic nature and economic interest, such as the liver-flukes, tapeworms, etc. The text is generously illustrated and clearly printed. The subject is treated throughout from a strictly professional and technical standpoint, for the use of zoölogists and as a work of reference for students. For these purposes it is, without question, of the highest authority, and will prove indispensable in all zoölogical libraries.

Mr. Gelett Burgess's thin vein of humor suffers distinctly by aggregation in the 'Burgess Nonsense Book' (F. A. Stokes Company). Here, eminently, the half, or a much smaller portion, would have been greater than the whole. The best of the introductory nonsense quatrains, the ballads of the Chewing-Gum Man and the Bankrupt Babe, and the Alphabet of Famous Goops, with very little else, would have served better the ends alike of humor and of fame. Much, too, in the grotesque drawings has been distinctly lost by reduction from the original scale and the exchange of the agreeable manila paper of the *Lark* for the shiny abomination which now spoils our books and our eyes.

Two little volumes from the Dent laboratory of invention and good taste (New York: Dutton) are entitled "The Bairnbooks," and make an uncommonly effective appeal to the interest of the young. One tells in simple language—text by Walter Copeland—of the farm and its life; the other—text by Clara Bridgman—is called the 'Book of Days,' and deals with many holidays unknown on this side of the water. Charles Robinson furnishes colored illustrations in both cases, with much old-fashioned felicity. Children are sure to like these booklets.

The ninth publication of the American Jewish Historical Society contains a number of papers which not only are of genuine historical value, but are often most entertaining. The story of the trials of the first Russian-American Jewish congregation is full of humor—of a sardonic Semitic cast, it is true. Dr. Gottheil tells of a most remarkable rascal, a several times proselyte to Judaism, who finally vanished in an auto-de-fé at Seville in 1720. His career suggests that autos-de-fé may have had their sphere of usefulness. There is also a valuable contribution (with maps) to the history of the Jews in Surinam; and many others. The number is one of interest throughout.

At the recent meeting of the Egyptian Exploration Fund in London, Professor Petrie stated that during the past year "the continuous order of seventeen kings had been established," adding that "the very foundations of Egyptian history have been settled in a manner which has hitherto seemed entirely beyond hope." The historical character of the supposed mythical Mena has been demonstrated: "We have seen and handled the gold, the crystal, the ivory with his name and engravings; and even the kings which went before him are better known to us by actual objects than are half the Saxon kings of England. No such complete materialization of history has been obtained at one stroke from any other country or age." The next work before the fund is the excavation of the great temple site of Abydos, the ground of the earliest temple, that of Osiris, "the great relic which drew around it the burials of the historic times" and possibly those of the earliest dynasties. The site is about 500 feet by 1,000 feet, and its excavation will occupy some three years. Professor Petrie closed his address with a review of what had been accomplished since he first began work in Egypt twenty-one years ago. The monumental history has been carried back to the very beginning of the written record, which has been entirely confirmed; and, beyond all that, the whole course of the prehistoric civilization has been mapped out, for perhaps 2,000 years, more completely than has been done for such ages in any other land. The connection with Europe—of which there was no trace twenty-one years ago earlier than the Ptolemies—has been led back to the first dynasty, and "Egypt is the sounding-line for the unmeasured abysses of European history."

The material progress of India under British rule of late years has been due largely to irrigation works. At the opening of a new canal in October it was reported that since 1864 the irrigated land in the Punjab alone had increased from 625,000 acres, with crops valued at five million dollars, to 6,000,000 acres, with crops worth fifty million dollars. To this should be added the fact that new homesteads in vast numbers are being provided for the inhabitants of the over-populated districts. Within the past ten years an unproductive tract in the Punjab, comprising 4,420 square miles, where a race of nomads found a scanty pasturage for their cattle, is now owned and cultivated by 792,000 persons, whose paternal acres were too narrow for them.

From Ernest Nister, London, and E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, we receive a great variety of calendars for 1902 (MCMII): "Merry Hearts," "Heavenly Guidance," "Golden Childhood," "Sweet Blossoms," "A Church Calendar"—all these consisting of sheets decorated in color and fastened by a ribbon; a "Gloria in Excelsis," after Fra Angelico; and "The Élite," of sport and fashion.

The Bryn Mawr College Calendar, 1902, which proceeds from the Students' Association of that college, is a well designed and attractively printed and tinted oblong brochure. The twelve seasonal drawings, all by women, are remarkably good and even in quality. In short, there is nothing amateurish about this calendar, and it should find favor in any woman's college.

The Princeton Calendar for 1902 consists of squarish orange cardboard sheets, tastefully adorned with photographic views of college scenery, buildings, and athletes.

—The leading article in the *Atlantic* for December is by John Ball Osborne, and deals with "Expansion through Reciprocity." It is partly historical and partly expository; in the latter respect, somewhat obscurely so. The writer labors under the difficulty, which besets all advocates of the general principle of reciprocity, of having to reconcile it with high protection. Sometimes this leads to curious results, as when Mr. Osborne expounds section 4 of the Dingley Law, which he declares is the "real legislative expression of the Republican pledge of reciprocity." This empowers the President to negotiate treaties which may provide for a 20 per cent. reduction on any article imported from any country. At the first blush, this would seem to be at war with the "pledge of protection" which was "faithfully executed by Congress in the schedules of import duties contained in the first section of the Dingley tariff." But Mr. Osborne proceeds to show that this is not so, and that there is no conflict whatever between the objects in view, but rather "an admirable harmony." The explanation, he says, is simple. When the rates were being formulated, "it was clearly understood by the framers of the law and by the interested manufacturers" that every rate was subject to reduction by a fifth, and "the rates were consequently made one-fifth higher than would otherwise have been justified." Reciprocity, under the Dingley Law is, therefore, "not in any sense an abandonment of the protective system, nor

can it properly be said to be a step in the direction of free trade." This sort of reciprocity is of the kind which a tailor establishes with his customers when, in order to induce them to pay promptly, he knocks off "5 per cent. for cash," having previously added it to the price. Instead of Canning's miserable threat of a 20 per cent. retaliation we vociferate to the nations of the world:

"In matters of commerce our fairness is such
That whatever we give we take back just as much.
Twenty per cent., twenty per cent.—
We'll clap on and take off just twenty per cent."

A paper on "Maeterlinck and Music," by Ernest Newman, makes an attempt to trace a connection between Wagnerian music and the Maeterlinckian philosophy of the drama. We doubt if it would convince either Maeterlinck or Wagner; the parallel is curious in some respects, but, for us, over-deep. Prof. Henry A. Beers discusses "Literature and the Civil War" at some length.

—The leading article in *Scribner's* is on "American Portraiture of Children," by Harrison S. Morris. The illustrations are reproduced from paintings by John S. Sargent, Cecilia Beaux, and several other artists. The text is not technical, but what artists call "literary." Mr. Morris permits himself to say that Sargent "enjoys the biologic practice of revealing the secrets of life with a brush," but this may perhaps be excused as being semi-scientific; biology is a good shelter for almost any sort of practice. "A Forgotten Pilgrimage," by Ernest C. Peixotto (with the author's striking drawings), gives a pleasant account of the little-known valley of Rocamadour, with its ancient shrine of St. Amadour in the southwest of France. Thomas Nelson Page's "Old Virginia Sunday" is readable and agreeable, though we should say that he rather strained his parallel between Sunday in Virginia and the Puritan first day of the week. No doubt the church in Massachusetts and the church in Virginia were both established by law; but they were essentially opposed churches. The feeling about religion in the two communities was wholly different. One of Mr. Page's anecdotes illustrates this. When the question of disestablishment came up after the Revolution, an old Virginian in cocked hat and ruffles was approached, and asked how he would vote. He said he would vote for the bill, as, in his opinion, every man should have the right to go to heaven by his own read, but he was very sure that every gentleman would always take the Episcopalian road. The feeling that the Church represented a creed and form of worship peculiarly adapted to gentlemen came directly from England to Virginia, and would never have done for a Puritan commonwealth at all. Of course religious observance was insisted on in Virginia to a degree not dreamed of now. But so it was everywhere. Mr. Page's article is interesting as recalling the fact that disestablishment in Virginia was followed by purification and reform. Bishop Meade "preached a stern gospel and lived it." The old infidel, Thomas Jefferson, as his enemies called him, had done a good stroke for religion in taking away state support.

—In *Harper's*, under the title of "A Woman in the Paris Revolution of 1830," are given some letters written by Mrs. Rives, wife of Mr. William Cabell Rives, then Minister to France. They are illustrated with portraits and prints, one or two of considerable interest. The writer of the letters was twenty-six years of age when her husband was appointed Minister by Jackson, and her account of what she saw of the convulsion that upset the old régime for the second time is worth reading. In July, 1830, a visit was paid by Mr. and Mrs. Rives to La Grange to see "our venerable friend Lafayette," and while there, they got tidings of the Revolution. When the new Government was installed, they were invited to attend the Chamber of Deputies; but there was still a good deal of disorder. Washington Irving, one of their party, appears to have been "smuggled in as an attaché," and admission was finally gained rather by Mr. Rives's readiness in accounting for the absence of a tricolor ribbon than by his representative character. "You are quite fine with your *habit brodé*," a citizen observes; "but where is the tricolor?" "C'est dans mon cœur," declares the diplomat, with his hand on his heart. "Bravo!" cries the patriotic citizen, and immediately the crowd parts to the right and left. The Powers were not represented on this occasion, their representatives prudently staying away. The persons who attracted most attention were Talleyrand and Lafayette. "Seated just opposite to each other, they presented as remarkable a contrast in their appearance as in their lives, and the open, honest countenance of the one, snugly invested in a full auburn wig, and the careworn, sharp features of the other, rendered paler by the silvery white of his hair, blanched by the snows of eighty winters, were universally observed." The new King, a young English officer whispers to Mrs. Rives, had better throw both these two into the Seine, for one "has sworn fidelity to eight different governments, and the other is a revolution in himself." Some "New Letters of R. L. Stevenson" are given, together with an introductory "Note and Comment" by Horace Townsend. They are full of amusing and often wise Stevensoniana. We hear a great deal of rubbish talked about him by his feebler admirers, but almost everything he wrote had an original touch in it. Of his own photographs he says: "The truth is, I have no appearance; a certain air of disreputability is the one constant character that my face presents. The rest changes, like water, but still I am lean and still disreputable."

—The *Century* for December contains an article on "Christmas in France," by Th. Bentzon, with pictures by Maurice Boutet de Monvel. In it is an account of what remains, or recently remained, in the south of France of the Mystery that used to be part of the Christmas midnight mass. Some of this is said to date from the twelfth century. The last act dates from the sixteenth, and "used to be played under the pulpit, near the baptismal fonts." These represent the palace of Herod, the king being seated on a raised throne, between his two ministers, while three lawyers are grouped about a table covered with books. Suddenly the Star of Bethlehem glides on a string across the scene overhead. A knocking is heard on the church door, and the personages here called the Magi enter in full Oriental costume, and make known their errand to Herod. The lawyers are consulted, and finally Herod sends off the Magi to Bethlehem. They walk toward the sanctuary, where the shepherdesses are awaiting them, and the mass is now concluded, the communion being administered to all present, including the actors. At the last an angel appears to warn the Magi that they must not visit Herod again, and while the star reappears as a guide, the wicked King rises noisily, and gives orders for the slaughter of the innocents. The French Christmas, properly speaking, is still primarily a religious festival. In a secular way the *jour de l'an* "means to us what Christmas does in northern countries." On the other hand, Paris is nothing if not cosmopolitan, and the shrine of Santa Claus has been set up and Christmas trees and mistletoe acclimated. James Grant Wilson contributes the first of two papers on "Thackeray in the United States." This instalment contains some memorabilia of interest and a few characteristic illustrations. John A. Kasson's "Impressions of President McKinley," with special reference to his opinions on "reciprocity," and an "old acquaintance's" account of "The Personality of President Roosevelt," are accompanied by full-page portraits. Neither paper is critical in tone, and neither of them adds much to our knowledge of Mr. Roosevelt or his predecessor. Mr. Kasson's statement, however, of what Mr. McKinley said to him about Porto Rico is worth quoting. When he declared it to be our "plain duty" to give free trade to Porto Rico, Mr. Kasson was one of those who regretted that he was at the same time quite ready to compromise the matter; and expressed his regret. But Mr. McKinley turned his eyes upon his critic "with a serious expression," and said: "I could not allow the Republican party in the House to be defeated by the votes of the Democratic minority." On this, says Mr. Kasson, "My eyes were opened." Strange that this simple test, capable of application to any moral question as it arises, should not have occurred to Mr. Kasson himself.

—Mr. Charles Francis Adams's paper on which a correspondent commented in our last issue, was read before the American Antiquarian Society on October 30. It is characterized by this writer's usual force of presentation and suggestiveness, and, as is well known from the approval bestowed upon it by the London press, it is an attempt at applied history. As issued in pamphlet form by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., it bears the title: '1865-1900. The Confederacy and the Transvaal; A People's Obligation to Robert E. Lee'; but the subtitle seems less to indicate Mr. Adams's purpose than the main title. He virtually says to the Boers: "Your vain bushwhacking is unchristian, and ought to be stopped." And this is the only point of his parallel. We think he overlooks here the complete homogeneousness of the Boer population—all middle-class, no slaveholding aristocracy, no "poor whites"; the cause, national integrity, as against the perpetuation of slavery; the normal loose, guerrilla military organization of the Boers, as against the strict discipline which alone kept the Confederate armies together to the bitter end. Indeed, Henry A. Wise, whom Mr. Adams cites freely through his son's recollections, assured

Lee on the eve of surrender that personal loyalty to *him* was the sole remaining bond. It was Wise, too, who argued vehemently against further resistance, and prepared Lee to withstand his chief of artillery Gen. Alexander's arguments in favor of dispersion for a forlorn-hope guerrilla campaign. Wise knew and said the game was up; and this meant not only that defeat impended over Lee's and Johnston's armies, but that there were no reserves of men or treasure or ammunition such as the Boers have commanded—that there was no adjoining country of sympathizers of the same race and aspirations to supply the sinews of irregular warfare. Lee knew this quite as well as Wise, and he had the deciding vote. Honor to both; but is the lesson to the Boers so clear, especially in the face of the prolongation of hostilities in South Africa, with no prospect of termination?

—'Two Treaties of Paris and the Supreme Court,' by Sidney Webster (Harper & Bros.), is a review by a well-known and competent hand of the insular cases. It should be compared with Mr. Littlefield's recent article in the *Harvard Law Review* on the same subject. Mr. Webster does not make a set argument, but discusses the question of colonies in the light of the history of the country and its former dealings with acquired territory, bringing out the inconsistencies of the recently delivered opinions with one another and with any conceivably systematic theory of our national development. What, he says, has the Supreme Court adjudged in the insular cases? It is this: "After Porto Rico was conquered and before it was acquired by cession, the military executive power could levy on them any duties it deemed proper; after the acquisition and before the enactment of the Foraker law, the levy of duties at New York under the Dingley law on merchandise from Porto Rico, and the levy by military officers in Porto Rico on merchandise arriving there from the United States, were illegal; under the Foraker law, the duties laid on merchandise from Porto Rico to New York were lawfully levied at that port, and yet, under the Foraker law, commerce between Porto Rico and New York was and is coastwise." The alarming fact is, however, not so much that the court's reasoning is illusory and its decisions contrary to precedent, as that the upshot of these judgments is to invest Congress with plenary powers, to create colonies and a colonial system at pleasure. The judgments amount to a sort of abdication by a majority of the Supreme Court, leaving Congress warranted in inferring that whatever it may choose to do in the colonies will find five judges to sustain it, provided the decision is necessary to what the party in power maintains as our colonial system. The insular cases thus establish through the highest tribunal a new charter of despotism.

—A public library of Chinese books in Shanghai, founded by a Chinese, is one of the latest and most significant indications of the progress which Western ideas and institutions are making in China. But not satisfied with this, Mr. Loo has also promised to give $3,000 to build translation offices for the Society for the Diffusion of Christian and General Knowledge in that city. The guiding principle of this society has always been that ignorance is the chief obstacle to the spread of Christianity in China, and, accordingly, under its auspices, the history, science, social and political, as well as religious, life of the West have been made accessible to the educated Chinese through translations from the best Western authors and through popular treatises specially written in Chinese. For one of these latter on political economy, entitled 'Simple Truths,' there is now a great demand, and another on international law is asked for, while Seeley's 'Expansion of England' is being translated. A noteworthy testimony to the present need of such a society is the written request of Yuan Shih-Kai, the successor of Li Hung Chang, and probably the coming man, to its secretary for a list of the best books in Chinese on modern learning. "He explained that he did not intend to promote any of his 500 expectant Mandarins until they had passed an examination in Western science and learning." Still more striking evidence of this hunger for knowledge was shown at a recent examination in Hunan, for many years the most bitterly anti-foreign of the provinces. Practically all of the three to four thousand candidates came to an American missionary to get information on all kinds of subjects, buying his whole stock of educational literature. In recognition, possibly, of the aid given, the Viceroy of the province has contributed $2,000 to the funds of the Society. Still another instance of this interest in modern educational methods is the gift of three Chinese of $20,000 to build a high school for Chinese boys in Shanghai.

RECENT POETRY.

The subjects of Mr. William Archer's 'Poets of the Younger Generation' (Lane) are almost all English, including only a few Canadians like Carman, Roberts, and Scott, and a few Americans—apparently hit upon rather at random—Miss Alice Brown, Madison Cawein, Richard Hovey, George Santayana, and John B. Tabb. The book is unreasonably large and profuse in quotations. Its style may be called Australian—that is, easy, diffuse, gushing, and with a great preponderance of the first person singular; the words "I" and "my" occurring, for instance, in such a passage as this (p. 3): "The one merit I claim for my criticism is sincerity. The things I praise are the things I genuinely and spontaneously enjoy; and I could not if I would simulate such enjoyment." This egotism must not, however, be attributed to pure conceit, but represents a very common point of view; and when we consider how tiresome critics usually become by following out an established system, it is a pleasant variety to turn to one who frankly makes his judgments a matter of pure whim. Something of the same quality was visible in a somewhat similar book, reviewed by us some years since, on 'Younger American Poets,' the work of another Australian, Mr. Douglas Sladen. Some peculiar interest is given to Mr. Archer's criticisms by the fact that he has hitherto been especially known as a critic of the drama; and one notices throughout this book that it is the dramatic, not the lyric, side which most interests him. The charming lyric qualities of Mr. Yeats, for instance, he does not always recognize, though he gives him some good counsel when he closes by saying: "It appears from the notes to 'The Wind in the Reeds,' rather than from the poems themselves, that Mr. Yeats is becoming more and more addicted to a petrified, fossilized symbolism, a system of hieroglyphs which may have had some inherent significance for their inventors, but which have now become matters of research, of speculation, of convention" (p. 556). This is true and excellent; and very good also is this, in respect to our countryman, Father Tabb: "Mr. Tabb is, I understand, a priest of the Roman Catholic Church. Though there is nothing cloistral in his spirit, which has a wide enough outlook on nature and man, yet the patient minuteness of his workmanship is not without a monkish quality. But it is the gem-engraver rather than the illuminator that Mr. Tabb recalls" (p. 428).

The book is unquestionably by far the best work of its kind, thus far, and helps to console the American reader for his disappointment in the second series of the 'Golden Treasury,' which should have done similar work. It is certain that Mr. Archer, within the limit of his gifts, is altogether candid and honest, and cannot make even the accustomed English hit at Americans without a touch of courtesy, as when he says: "It may be a cis-Atlantic illusion, but I think that American poets are more apt than English poets of the same standing to use words without strict inquiry into their meaning" (p. 215). Mr. Archer does not apparently realize that he is here using a very strong expression—"more apt"!

On revisiting city friends after their autumnal return from the country, one notices in their houses a faint aroma, probably attributable to fly powder—an atmosphere scented with association of darkened windows and silent summer days. Something of the same close odor prevails throughout all books of English University poetry, and has done so ever since the days of Praed. He alone made it really attractive. The others have simply the atmosphere of restriction and limitation, and the books are full of microscopic but familiar jokes. The fame of Calverley himself, chief of the class, rests on no wider basis ('The Complete Works of C. S. Calverley,' London: Bell; New York: Macmillan). He is praised as if he were Milton, but, after all, he was only a good translator of Horace and Theocritus into English, and of Marlowe and Tennyson into Latin. Much of his jocose poetry is already hard reading. His career at Oxford "was distinguished by a series of *tours de force*, intellectual and physical, sufficient to have furnished forth a dozen ordinary reputations" (p. 19); but perhaps his most long-lived poem will be one somewhat pathetically entitled "Changed" (p. 69):

I know not why my soul is rack'd:
  Why I ne'er smile as was my wont:
I only know that, as a fact,
  I don't.
I used to roam o'er glen and glade
  Buoyant and blithe as other folk:
And not unfrequently I made
  A joke.

. . . . . .

I cannot sing the old songs now!
  It is not that I deem them low;
'Tis that I can't remember how
  They go.
I could not range the hills till high
  Above me stood the summer moon;
And as to dancing, I could fly
  As soon.

The sports, to which with boyish glee
  I sprang erewhile, attract no more;

Although I am but sixty-three
Or four.
Nay, worse than that, I've seem'd of late
To shrink from happy boyhood—boys
Have grown so noisy, and I hate
A noise.

They fright me, when the beech is green,
By swarming up its stem for eggs:
They drive their horrid hoops between
My legs:
It's idle to repine, I know;
I'll tell you what I'll do instead:
I'll drink my arrowroot, and go
To bed.

Again, in Owen Seaman's 'Horace at Cambridge' (Lane), we cannot find a stanza which should have a moment's interest for any but fellow-graduates of that great university. We can dimly recall some excellent parodies by Mr. Seaman in earlier publications, but here all is sheer intra-mural pleasantry, hardly offering temptation for the passer-by to look over the wall. 'The Book of the Horace Club, 1898-1901' (Oxford: Blackwell), is the work of Mr. Seaman's mates—for he is an honorary member—and, being contributed by a dozen different authors from as many different colleges, it should have greater variety. Perhaps the best work in it is to be found in this crisp and vigorous squib, bearing the initials of J. Williams, D.C.L., of Lincoln College (p. 66). It is styled "a tragedy in five acts":

A "CRUSHING" EXPOSURE.

I.

'Twas in Throgmorton Street we met,
We were two fools and one promoter,
And Jones and I shall ne'er forget
Floater.

II.

Yes, Floater was his name; he penned
A very readable prospectus,
But that was just what in the end
Wrecked us.

III.

The public bit and read about
The chances of a record crushing,
And things that Floater wrote without
Blushing.

IV.

The shares rose fast, and there was fun
For us and Floater for a fortnight,
Until they fell a point in one
Short night.

V.

Then Floater sought to save his skin
By imitating Jones's pen-mark,
And Floater last was heard of in
Denmark.

Fresher than either of these, perhaps, because more recent, is 'Anni Fugaces; A Book of Verse with Cambridge Interludes' (Lane), by R. C. Lehmann, who is really amusing and also essentially modern in his congratulations to the Master of Trinity. It appears that Dr. Butler, the Master, was senior classic in 1855, and that Mrs. Butler, then Miss Agneta Ramsay, was senior classic in 1887; and the birth of a son to so eminently scholastic a pair gave fit opportunity to every Cambridge man; and we subjoin a fragment from this truly memorial poem (p. 95)—a congratulatory ode on the birth of his son:

TO THE MASTER OF TRINITY.

And the son! with two such parents this small member of our college
Must be, unlike the ruck of us, a paragon of knowledge;
Armed cap-à-pie with wisdom like the goddess in the stories;
A human sort of letters which we term *humaniores*;
A kind of tiny scholiast who'll startle his relations
With his luminous suggestions and his subtle emendations;
A lexicon in arms, with all the syntax grafted in on him;
A Gradus ad Parnassum, full of epithet and synonym;
A Corpus Poetarum, such as classics love to edit, he
Will furnish, let me hope, a bright example of heredity.
Though no doubt he'll be a stoic or a modern Pocahontas
(This allusion is τι βάρβαρον) when cutting his ὀδόντας;
Yet *if* he when his teething time approaches should to cry elect,
He will cry, I am persuaded, in the purest Attic dialect.

The nearest that America just now gives us in the way of university poems is the volume by Mr. Santayana entitled 'The Hermit of Carmel, and Other Poems' (Scribner). In the latter part of the book are "Convivial and Occasional Verses," such as "Six Wise Fools," "College Drinking Song," "Young Sammy's First Wild Oats," and other verses supposed to be convivial, but certainly not producing any such effect when read by the general reader. Even serious verse has never seemed to us Mr. Santayana's strong point, nor does this volume vary the impression.

The doubt still open whether Mr. Edwin Markham is a poet or only a man of poetic mind is not wholly solved by 'Lincoln, and Other Poems' (McClure). There still remains a little sense of imitation or even of echo, and the reader is disappointed. These little verses give a glimpse of a lighter touch than usual (p. 54):

LOVE'S TO-MORROW
(For Florence Sharon.)

Ease of heart or ache of heart,
Tell me, Love, the thing to be;
Flower of dream or dust of dream,
You can choose the one for me.
Fire or ash of fire, who knows?
Both are folded in the flame.
Life all grey and life all rose
Are hidden in your name.

And the poem on Lincoln closes with vigor, thus (p. 2):

"So came the Captain with the mighty heart;
And when the step of Earthquake shook the house,
Wrenching the rafters from their ancient hold,
He held the ridgepole up, and spiked again
The rafters of the Home. He held his place—
Held the long purpose like a growing tree—
Held on through blame and faltered not at praise.
And when he fell in Whirlwind, he went down
As when a kingly cedar green with boughs
Goes down with a great shout upon the hills,
And leaves a lonesome place against the sky."

'At the Sign of the Ginger Jar: Some Verses Gay and Gray,' by Ray Clarke Rose (Chicago: McClurg), contains the poet's confession:

"I beat the cymbals, that is all,"

Here is a sample of its gayety (p. 63):

SOUR GRAPES.

I never cared the least for Lou,
Of course; and yet I listened to
Her girlish chatter
With pleasure that suggested quite
A charming quest for one who might
Take up the matter.

I will admit I saw the child
And kissed her hand—whereat she smiled—
Well, almost daily;
But Lou was passing sweet and young,
And then, you know, she laughed and sung,
Ah me! so gayly!

I kissed her hand, and more, perhaps;
But just to pique the younger chaps
Who were so plenty.
Well—I am one-and-forty now,
While Lou—dear me, I must allow
She's won, and twenty!

That gawky son of Banker Rich
Has gained the dimpled prize for which
The town was sighing.
And I—I have the cards she sent.
A woman's modes of punishment
Are very trying.

When we reach the Pacific Coast we have more of positive passion, and also more of the Celtic ideal which becomes those nearer to the seashore. Mr. Gelett Burgess, in his 'A Gage of Youth; Lyrics from The Lark, and Other Poems' (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.), makes his burden in the "Chant-Royal of California" run in this wise (p. 20):

"This vintage shall the Old World's youth renew,"

but his most delicately finished poem reverts, after all, to a distant scene (p. 12):

EPITHALAMIUM: IN A SURREY GARDEN.

The day still dozes on, and in the shade
The bushes nod in silence, half asleep.
Across the lawn the housewife shadows creep,
Till now, at last, the evening bed is made.
The sunflower droops, the yellow daisies fade,
The winds, with gentle harpings low and deep,
The quivering branches of the plane trees sweep;
The birds, besought to silence, have obeyed.
Now looks the Moon across the dotted sky
To find this quiet Garden, dark and fair,
Lying, a bridal maiden, in the night;
The bright-faced lover sees her from on high,
And down he drops a silvery ladder there,
Descends, and fills her waiting heart with light!

Mr. Louis Alexander Robertson prints 'The Dead Calypso, and Other Verses' (San Francisco: Robertson). His poem "Jubilate Deo" indicates an Englishman writing in America, and sounds rather sadly now, having been written during the Queen's Jubilee of four years ago, and being now read when England is under a cloud. The title-poem strikes us as florid rather than vigorous, but suggests the possibility that the author's next volume may be better than his first.

Passing from San Francisco to Louisville, we find in 'Sonnets and Lyrics,' by R. E. Lee Gibson (Louisville: Morton), as in Mr. Cawein—though in a less degree—that florid quality which is so apt to mark the versification of the Southern muse. Addressing his friend, he writes (p. 83):

"Oft have I wondered from what source unknown
You gleaned the inklings of your 'Gloramone';
In what far region, pure and undefiled,
'Lyanna' first upon your vision smiled;
And where 'Noera,' with her 'laughing, clear,
Loved voice of old,' delighted first your ear."

But we can assure Mr. Gibson that these proceeded from the same source with such verse as his own (p. 50):

"The ominous croak of the raven
Resounds, and the screech of the owl;
The ghost of a monk, gaunt and shaven,
With visage concealed by a cowl,
Floats shudderingly by, like a craven,
Up-borne on the loitering gale;
And beyond, from their niches in heaven,
The stars, thro' his body, burn pale."

Yet these lines can scarcely be said to delight the ear.

Dr. Richard Garnett, in 'The Queen, and Other Poems' (Lane), handles more skilfully the changed condition of things in his leading poem, but carries the stain of the time into his vehement sonnet on "President Kruger." We turn with more satisfaction to a gentler strain (viii.):

TO AMERICA.
(After reading some ungenerous criticisms.)

What though thy Muse the singer's art essay
With lip now over-loud, now over-low?
'Tis but the augury that makes her so
Of the high things she hath in charge to say.
How shall the giantess of gold and clay,
Girt with two oceans, crowned with Arctic snow,
Sandalled with shining seas of Mexico,
Be pared to trim proportion in a day?
Thou art too great! Thy million-billowed surge
Of life bewilders speech, as shoreless sea
Confounds the raging eye from verge to verge
With mazy strife or smooth immensity.
Not soon or easily shall thence emerge
A Homer or a Shakespeare worthy thee.

There is an increasing tendency, which must be regretted, to the production of large volumes consisting wholly or almost wholly of sonnets—a mistake such as no one short of Shakspere or Petrarch should commit. Mrs. Mary M. Adams, for instance, gives us more than a hundred of these productions in 'Sonnets and Songs' (Putnam). Inasmuch as nothing is easier than to write a tame sonnet, and nothing harder than to write a good one, this experiment seems quite unwise; and it will be noticed that maturer poets such as Lowell do not, after early youth, lump their sonnets together, but distribute them guardedly among other

forms of verse. Even so rich a mind as that of Bishop Spalding of Peoria, by bringing together some two hundred sonnets and entitling them 'God and the Soul; A Poem' (The Grafton Press), makes a strain upon the ear and the nerves that defeats its own object. So fine a sonnet as this, for instance, should not be lost to sight among so many others (p. 214):

AS IN A DREAM.

Through solemn woods in silence deep all day
On wild Sierra's topmost ridge, I held
My course. No voice disturbed, no sound dispelled
The awful stillness which around me lay;

And mingled light and shade made all my way
Seem haunted by such spirits as of eld
With Nature 'midst her lonely forests dwelled,
To watch Great Pan and dryads at their play:

Then suddenly the mount was cleft in twain,
And far beneath, four thousand feet, the gleam
Of winding wave made glad the smiling plain,
While from a hundred heights the dazzling stream
Of many torrents shot the silvery rain,
And I, entranced, stood lost as in a dream.

Two volumes of negro lyrics, both admirably illustrated, have appeared almost simultaneously, the one being 'Plantation Songs for My Lady's Banjo,' by Eli Shepperd, with pictures from life by J. W. Otts (Russell), and the other, 'Candle-Lightin' Time,' by Paul Laurence Dunbar, illustrated with photographs by the Hampton Institute Camera Club (Dodd, Mead & Co.). The latter is on the whole the best, seeming much nearer to the class it represents, although both have excellent illustrations, and both give an encouraging glimpse of the development of a race, thus faithfully studied on its picturesque and even poetic side.

The loss sustained by literature in the early death of Philip Henry Savage comes over the reader afresh upon examining his 'Poems' (Small, Maynard & Co.). Two qualities impress one in these verses—their wonderful nearness to nature and to New England nature, and the quality described by his biographer, Mr. Mason, as "his stern and yet pagan personal ideal" (p. xv.). All the flavor of Thoreau and the old Transcendentalism survives in these two verses (p. 92):

"Believe in me!" Lord, who art thou
That bidd'st me to believe in thee?
I have my life to live, and now
Thy yoke would but a burden be;
I would be free.

"Come, follow me!" Nay, Lord, my way
Is wide of thine along the sea;
Among the hills I love to stray,
Nor walks there any one with me;
Why I with thee?

Yet here we find the limitations of paganism recognized (p. 19):

" 'Something in the sense of morning
Lifts the heart up to the sun.'
In our youth we may be pagan,
God is many, and the One
Great Supreme will wait till evening
When our little day is done:
Something in the sense of morning
Lifts the heart up to the sun!"

Miss Martha Gilbert Dickinson, in her 'The Cathedral, and Other Poems' (Scribner), has still the disadvantage of being constantly expected to resemble her gifted aunt, although both her themes and her treatment may be different. The younger poet has more of color in her lines than the elder, as in the following (p. 135):

DEVONSHIRE POPPIES.

Here, one peers lonely through a gate—
Pink-coated huntsman, pack astray;
There, turbaned courtiers of state
Are blurred in carnival array.
As scarlet acrobats they run
To vault the hedgerow's mystery,
Leaping fantastic in the sun,
A blaze of Nature's jugglery.
Like Highland troopers others pass,
With kilt of flame and tunic green—
Their bonnets blowing in the grass,
Their piper's skirl a lark unseen.
Will-o'-the-wisp of Summer noons,
They flit 'mid haymakers at rest,
And up the path of harvest moons
Are lost o'er sunset's gleaming crest.

But Emily Dickinson herself might have written the following (p. 109):

WHAT THE GULL HEARD.

(The First Boat.)

Oh to be out on the open sea!
Bride of the waves and veiled in their foam!
Rotted the beam and the sail will be—
Anchoring here at home.

(The Second Boat.)

Oh to be over the harbor bar!
Safe from the perils that crash and yawn;
Tattered in shroud and mangled in spar—
I shall go down ere dawn!

Sir Edwin Arnold's new poem, 'The Voyage of Ithobal' (Dillingham), adds nothing to his fame, we fear. It is hard and dreary reading, and the illustrations, by Arthur Lumley, are florid and grotesque. It is "dedicated to his friend, Major James B. Pond, by the attached and grateful author." It is something to make sure of at least one sympathetic critic.

'Deirdre Wed, and Other Poems,' by Herbert Trench (Lane), is also a failure as an attempt to prolong interest in the somewhat hackneyed story of Deirdre. But that and all Celtic legends become immortal through the magic hands of Fiona MacLeod, who is as much the queen of the Gaelic branch of the legend as is Mr. Yeats the king of the Erse. If poetry is a vision of the imagination, this little volume of a hundred pages, entitled 'From the Hills of Dream' (Portland: Mosher), is worth all the others which we have been describing; and how easy it must be to write dreamy verse if one's cradle has been rocked by such a wondrous lullaby as this (p. 62):

INVOCATION OF PEACE.

(After the Gaelic.)

Deep peace I breathe into you,
O weariness, here;
O ache, here!
Deep peace, a soft white dove to you;
Deep peace, a quiet rain to you;
Deep peace, an ebbing wave to you!
Deep peace, red wind of the east from you;
Deep peace, gray wind of the west to you;
Deep peace, dark wind of the north from you;
Deep peace, blue wind of the south to you!
Deep peace, pure red of the flame to you;
Deep peace, pure white of the moon to you;
Deep peace, pure green of the grass to you;
Deep peace, pure brown of the earth to you;
Deep peace, pure gray of the dew to you,
Deep peace, pure blue of the sky to you,
Deep peace of the running wave to you
Deep peace of the flowing air to you,
Deep peace of the quiet earth to you,
Deep peace of the sleeping stones to you!
Deep peace of the Yellow Shepherd to you,
Deep peace of the Wandering Shepherdess to you,
Deep peace of the Flock of Stars to you,
Deep peace from the Son of Peace to you,
Deep peace from the heart of Mary to you,
From Bridget of the Mantle
Deep peace, deep peace!
And with the kindness, too, of the Haughty Father,
Peace!
In the name of the Three who are One,
And by the will of the King of the Elements,
Peace! Peace!

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

'International Law,' by George Grafton Wilson and George Fox Tucker (Silver, Burdett & Co.), is the title of a hand-book of 328 pages on that subject. Appendices give the United States Instructions for Armies in the Field, the Declaration of Paris, the Geneva Convention, etc. The manual seems hardly intended as more than an introduction, but the authors have bestowed a good deal of attention on the details of Diplomacy, a subject the elements of which are too much taken for granted by most writers; and in one of the appendices the actual history of a case in a prize court is set down in full—an excellent innovation. The treatment of the substantive principles of International Law seems to us rather superficial. The three rules of the Geneva arbitration and the *Trent* case are slurred over, although two pages are given to the formal parts of the Treaty of Washington—certainly a matter of less importance. The statement that the Bering Sea arbitration decided that "fishing in the open sea is free to all," seems contradicted by the statement that the court also decided that the destruction of seals in the open sea was "contrary to the laws of nature" (pp. 116, 117). A slip has evidently been made here. In the same way the sense of the note on page 307 is destroyed by the word "belligerent" being used where "neutral" is intended. "Contraband" is always a difficult subject, and our authors frankly find it and leave it so.

Two additions to the voluminous "Hornbook Series" (St. Paul: West Publishing Co.) are a 'Handbook of Equity Jurisprudence,' by James W. Eaton, and a 'Handbook of Admiralty Law,' by Robert M. Hughes. The first contains some six thousand cases. Owing to the death of the author, the preface is furnished by the publishers, who say that in the preparation of the work free use of the material used in 'Fetter on Equity' was authorized by the owners of the copyright, but that, "in the main," the work is derived "from the decisions." Mr. Hughes says of his work that it is "intended to be elementary" and arranged for convenience in teaching.

A new and revised edition of Hugo Hirsch's 'Tabulated Digest of the Divorce Laws of the United States' is published by the Funk & Wagnalls Co. The author gives in this publication a chart of the law of divorce in a single folding page. At the top appears the list of the States and Territories; at the sides are the causes for divorce. At the foot of the sheet is the practice in every jurisdiction. For ordinary purposes of reference it is both concise and ingeniously convenient.

Joseph A. Arnold's 'Guide for Business Corporations in the State of New York' (Baker, Voorhis & Co.) contains the Business Corporations Law of this State, as amended to date, with notes and forms. The amendments of 1901 have made alterations in this law "which greatly increase and amplify the rights and powers of business corporations, and materially lessen the liabilities formerly imposed upon directors and stockholders." The organization tax has been reduced (in the case of domestic companies), the duty of filing annual reports has been transferred from the directors to certain stockholders, and no default occurs until ten days after a written demand. Money may be borrowed irrespective of the amount of capitalization, directors need not be stockholders, only one director must be a resident of New York. These changes, the author thinks, have made New York most "desirable and economical" as a home for corporations. The volume is a compact and useful handbook.

An annotated edition of the General Ordinances of the City of New York under the new charter has been made by George Whitfield Brown, jr., of the New York bar (The Banks Law Publishing Co.). The work was much needed, no general code of the various local municipal ordinances affecting the community now known as New York

having ever been compiled, though the amended charter of 1901 makes provision for it. Mr. Brown found many ordinances out of print and "many records missing." The present chaotic condition of things is a disgrace to the city, and should be remedied as soon as possible. Municipal ordinances affect the daily life of every inhabitant of a city, and the indifference to their enforcement in New York, still more the general ignorance of what they are, is a queer feature of our situation. There is, for instance (sec. 667), the prohibition of hand-organ playing after seven P. M., and the provision that there shall be no hand-organ playing at all within 250 feet of the house of any one who objects. We doubt whether the average citizen has any idea that these ordinances exist. It is not from lack of ordinances that we suffer; and the reformed Board of Aldermen can do no better work than bring a knowledge of their real nature and scope home to every denizen of the city.

Life on the Stage: My Personal Experiences and Recollections. By Clara Morris. McClure, Phillips & Co. 1901.

Miss Clara Morris's volume is not only one of the best stage books that have been published in a good many years, but a most illuminative bit of autobiography. It is written with the rarest frankness, and is, perhaps, even more interesting as a revelation of the woman herself than it is as a record of the making of a great actress, as she undoubtedly was in her own line, and of the trials and obstacles which bar the road to substantial and permanent theatrical success. For all beginners it is full of warning, instruction, and encouragement. It shows the prizes within the reach of ability, backed by courage, perseverance, and favoring fortune, but it is no less explicit about the drudgery, the humiliation, and the futility which are the lot of the vast majority of incompetents, while it remorselessly lays bare in all their ugliness the petty intrigues, vanities, jealousies, and animosities which distract the little world behind the scenes. The book, considering the calling of the author, is surprisingly free from mere padding, being confined almost entirely to personal experiences, and reveals decided literary ability, although the style is marred by colloquialisms and a too frequent indulgence in florid oratory and irrelevant pious ejaculations.

Miss Morris, who, many persons will be surprised to hear, was born in Canada, was reared in the hard school of adversity, and in her youth shared with a devoted mother the pinch of bitter poverty. She had none of the joys of childhood, except during two years spent on a farm in Illinois, but early learned the virtues of patience, endurance, and observation. Of regular education she had little. For a brief period she attended a public school, but, practically, she seems to have been self-taught, having a passion for reading of every description. It was by chance that she went upon the stage, when only thirteen years old, being engaged "for the ballet" by the well-known manager John Ellsler, who was then the director of a theatre in Cleveland. This was the beginning of a long period of thankless but formative labor. Her duty was to march, to dance, to act as fairy, or messenger, or any other supernumerary personage; and her remuneration was three dollars a week. Thus she started at the very bottom of the ladder, and for a long time she made no apparent progress, although really she was getting the benefit of priceless object-lessons from the eminent actors whom she, in her unconspicuous way, supported. From the first she was a shrewd and keen observer, and her narrative is full of pregnant comment. For instance, speaking of the actors of 1865, she says:

"I can't help noticing the difference between their attitude of mind toward their profession and that of the actor of to-day. Salaries were much smaller then, work was harder, but life was simpler. The actor had no social standing; he was no longer looked down upon, but he was an unknown quantity; he was, in short, an actor pure and simple. He had enthusiasm for his profession—he lived to act, not merely [*sic*] living by acting. But above all and beyond all else, the men and women respected their chosen profession. Their constant association of mind with Shakspere seemed to have given them a certain dignity of bearing as well as of speech. To-day . . . they are clubmen. . . . They draw large salaries, and too frequently they have to act in long-running plays, that are made up of smartish wit and cheapest cynicism—mere froth and frivolity; while the effective smashing of the Seventh Commandment has been for so long a time the principal motif of both drama and farce, that one cannot wonder much at the general tone of flippancy prevailing among the theatrical people of to-day."

In this passage she goes to the very root of the evils which have brought the stage to its present desperate condition.

The book is well seasoned with tales of stage mishaps, blunders, personal idiosyncrasies, etc., most of which are fresh and humorously told, and with anecdotes of eminent actors of the past, with interesting bits of contemporaneous opinion. Miss Morris was greatly impressed by the beauty and genius of the unhappy John Wilkes Booth, and tells a pretty story of his treatment of a little street urchin whom he had accidentally upset, as an instance of his natural courtesy and tender-heartedness. According to her, his theatrical associates were almost unanimous in regarding him as an actor of greater natural gifts than his famous brother Edwin; and she gives an impressive account of the incredulous horror and amazement with which his intimates heard of his awful crime. For the luckless Lucille Western, too, she claims the meed of true greatness, in spite of the somewhat rank luxuriance of her emotion, remarking acutely that there is "a certain tang of wildness in all things natural." Of the late Charles W. Couldock—a sound actor, who achieved distinction in spite of great physical disabilities—she gives a vivid but rather malicious picture, scarcely in accordance with the canons of good taste. The graceful tribute in the closing paragraph does not conceal or make amends for the bitterness of it. But Miss Morris was sensitive to slights, and there is nothing more characteristically feminine in her book than her payment of old scores with sharp thrusts, delivered under the cloak of compliment. Her chapter on Mr. and Mrs. Charles Kean is capital reading. She makes much fun, most of it legitimate enough, of the vanities and eccentricities of that amiable old couple, but does ample justice to their excellence in "Henry VIII." and some other plays, and gives an interesting and not generally known story of the adventure undertaken by Mrs. Kean in Rome to procure an exact facsimile of a Cardinal's robe for her husband's *Wolsey.*

Coming to more recent days, when Miss Morris was still in obscurity but rising slowly to the light, she speaks warmly of the fine ability, the indomitable ambition and energy, and sterling character of Lawrence Barrett, and his long-suffering affection for his wayward brother, Joe Barrett; adding a curious personal experience of her own in connection with the death of the latter—nervous, telepathic, coincidental, or imaginary—which will be noted by spiritualists. By this time she had advanced, through much tribulation, faced with cheerful courage, to the position of leading lady, and had signed the engagement with Augustin Daly which opened the doors to fame and fortune. Of her successive triumphs from the days of *Anne Sylvester* onward, which placed her at the head of the emotional actresses of her day, it is not possible or necessary to speak now; but her own minute and sometimes over-rapturous and rhetorical description of them is interesting and instructive as a record of untiring industry and laborious preparation for the intended theatrical effect. She proves once more how integral a part of genius is the capacity for taking pains. One statement that she makes is utterly subversive of the popular belief that she was able to command a free flow of tears at will. She declares that she could only produce these eloquent signs of affliction by conjuring up the memory of some harrowing incident entirely unconnected with the part she was playing, and that there were times when the spell would not work. This, of course, is directly opposed to the theory, in which few students of the stage have any faith, that the actor, to create an illusion, must suffer and rejoice with the fictitious character. Inferior players cherish this fallacious idea, and this is why they repeat themselves perpetually, never really acting at all. Understanding and imagination are essential to interpretation, which is so rare upon the stage, whereas feeling results simply in a manifestation of self.

Perhaps the most illuminative part of Miss Morris's book is her revelation of the inner life at Daly's Theatre, of the dire shifts to which that able and enterprising manager was put, of the atmosphere of intrigue in which he lived, and of the petty bickerings and jealousies and all uncharitableness of which theatrical existence is largely compounded. Here and there one meets with an instance of the love of art for art's sake, but these are few and far between. Miss Morris, sometimes without knowing it, tells the truth about herself as unreservedly as she does about her best friends, and, on the whole, the record is highly creditable to her as woman and as actress. If she is a trifle egotistic now and then, she has much to be proud of, and in her industry, energy, courage, and sturdy faith she sets a shining example to the theatrical sisterhood.

The Book of Sport. Edited by William Patten. New York: J. F. Taylor & Co. 1901. Pp. 411.

Two charges are often preferred against us by our foreign critics, namely, that we take our sports too seriously, and that we are more interested in the individual performers than in the thing performed. If

these are indeed our weaknesses, then the 'Book of Sport' is likely to be immensely popular. By means of the coöperation of a number of experts it says the last, and probably the truest, word about the present situation of our favorite sports, and says it with due seriousness; while its pages are embellished with hundreds of portraits of well-known men and women, whose names are familiar in connection with the sports described. The subjects covered by this handsome volume are: Golf, Court Tennis, Racquets, Fives, Squash, Polo, Fox-Hunting, Coaching, Automobiling, Lawn Tennis, and Yachting; and Mr. Patten is to be congratulated on having secured writers who not only are experts in these different sports, but are also able to express their views with clearness and vigor.

In calling attention to the improvement in women's golf, Miss Underhill makes the statement that it is no longer possible for a woman whose drives average less than one hundred and forty yards to compete in the championship class; yet, in spite of this improvement, she admits that our women players are not yet up to the English standard. She believes the reason of this inferiority to be that English women are more athletic and more accustomed from childhood to outdoor sports, and that, inasmuch as tournament golf is more fatiguing to women than even tournament tennis, the difference is entirely a question of comparative strength. A few years should suffice to test the correctness of this theory, for the American girl of to-day is probably no less athletic than her English cousin, and therefore our standard should presently advance to theirs. Miss Underhill's plea that women should be allowed the full privilege of men's courses if they play equally well seems reasonable, and is, in fact, generally conceded.

Mr. Harriman takes the view that the superiority of English golf is entirely due to the comparatively recent introduction of the game on this side, and to the consequent fact that all our leading players took up the game when no longer in their first youth; and he looks with confidence to the schoolboys of the present day to hold their own with the best English amateurs a few years hence.

The principal paper on Court Tennis and the affiliated games of Racquets, Fives, and Squash, is written by Mr. E. H. Miles, who is equally well known on both sides of the Atlantic, and holds both the English and the American championships. His residence at Tuxedo brought him into friendly relations with many of the American players, and he entertains a very high opinion of their capabilities. His idea is, that the American character is essentially energetic, and therefore naturally adopts the more energetic forms of relaxation; and that, as our winter climate prevents outdoor sports, the games played in courts are peculiarly adapted to our needs. Mr. Miles's paper is didactic, and will be found useful and entertaining apart from the information it contains about individual players. There is also an interesting paper on the History of Racquets in New York, by Mr. Lamontagne, who has been aptly called the father of the game. He began to play here in 1848, and continued until a few years ago, and his vigorous old age is a standing argument in favor of this form of exercise.

From Mr. Bostwick's paper on Automobiling, we gather that, after considerable experience, he has reached the conclusion that there is no automobile on the American market that is even reasonably reliable, and that the horse is still the best motive-power for road traffic. Candor compels us to state that this inglorious conclusion has been reached by many other owners of automobiles.

Mr. Whitman's and Mr. Ward's papers on the single and double games of Lawn Tennis are valuable because the writers have been instrumental in carrying the development of the game a step beyond the limit reached in England. This was achieved by their invention of a peculiar twisting service and certain other novelties. Mr. Whitman maintains that regular training is essential to success in tournament play, and quotes, with disapproval, the criticism of some recent English visitors who, after being defeated, complained that the American players had turned a recreation into a labor. Perhaps we should regard this complaint as another example of the irritation caused by American competition.

In his paper on Yachting, Mr. Duryea emphasizes the necessity for a yacht-racing association and for a revision of the measurement rules in the interest of a more reasonable type of boat, and we feel confident that the majority of yachtsmen will agree with him. Mr. Stephens gives an admirable retrospect of American yachting during the last half-century, and Mr. Irving Cox discourses learnedly of steam yachts, which have increased so wonderfully in number and size during the past ten years. In this connection it is interesting to note that in 1827 the Royal Yacht Club passed a resolution that any member applying steam engines to his yacht should thereby forfeit his membership; and this rule was not abolished till 1856.

In a book of this kind there must of necessity be some papers that fall below the general level, but the editing has been well done and there is not much to criticise. Mr. Ralph N. Ellis, on Fox-Hunting, is rather diffuse and sometimes obscure. Mr. Oliver H. P. Belmont, in his paper on Coaching, quotes Washington Irving's description of a stage-coach driver in the halcyon days of the English mail-coach, and evidently thinks that Geoffrey Crayon was the name of the driver in question. Mr. J. Parmly Paret, in a paper on the Chronology of Lawn Tennis, refers to the Marylebone Cricket Club, "afterward so famous in cricket," as having made a code of lawn-tennis rules in 1875. He is apparently not aware of the fact that the Marylebone Club had been "famous in cricket" for a century before 1875. Mr. Stephens refers to the *America* Cup race in 1876 as the second match, but it was really the third, in succession to the *Cambria* race of 1870 and the *Livonia* races of 1871.

These are not important matters, however, and the book can be warmly recommended as a valuable contribution to the history of sport in this country, and as being likely to acquire additional value in the years to come on account of the personal element to which we have referred.

French Furniture and Decoration in the XVIII. Century. By Lady Dilke. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1901. Pp. xix, 260.

As the volumes of this extraordinary series succeed one another, the student's admiration must needs increase for the intelligent view of the subject taken by the author, and her well-directed diligence. There is nowhere a set of books more worthy, each of the other, and all of a great and many-sided subject. There appeared, in 1884, an octavo volume devoted to the epoch of Louis XIV. and entitled 'Art in the Modern State.' Then, after a lapse of fifteen years, appeared the first of the illustrated quartos—'French Painters of the Eighteenth Century,' which in its turn was succeeded by 'French Architects and Sculptors of the Eighteenth Century' in 1900. Now, with only the lapse of one year, comes the present work, and it is to be followed by a final volume on the engravers and the draughtsmen of the time, the last-named class to include those designers of ornamental subjects whose work is known to us rather by prints from engraved plates than by the existing works of decorative art themselves.

The long pause between the appearance of the Louis XIV. book and those which deal with the successors of that great prince—the trivial and feeble kings in whose hands the royalty came to nothing—is to be accounted for in part by Lady Dilke's frank confession in the preface to one of her later books, that 'Art in the Modern State' was not a commercial success. It is a simple octavo volume of no great pretensions and without illustrations, and the very moderate merit of the book on the 'Renaissance of Art in France,' published by this lady in 1879, when she was Mrs. Mark Pattison, may have acted as a deterrent to those who would perhaps have cared to study the not over-attractive later book. It is to be granted, also, that in 1888 the attention of the English art public had not been called to the essential merit of the seventeenth and eighteenth-century work of the Continent of Europe. It was very much the fashion, in that remote period of thirteen years ago, to sniff at the Rococo and the Barocco as if they were one and the same, and to treat with contempt everything later than the Renaissance proper. Books on these later styles, whether in painting, in sculpture, or in decoration in its more usual sense, are of the last fifteen years. Before that everything was Renaissance and Gothic; nor was there any break in the succession of books devoted to the earlier styles, nor any interposition of one dealing with what is commonly known as the Decadence.

The present work is divided into thirteen chapters, each of which has its title (as chapter viii., Boucher and the Gobelins; chapter xi., Oeben, Riesener, Gouthière), but these titles will not explain the subject except to the well-informed student of the arts of the time. It may be better to say that the subject is treated in an almost continuous narrative, beginning very properly with an analysis of those magnificent rooms which still remain to us from the eighteenth century, and going on, through minor apartments and bedrooms and boudoirs whose exquisite panelling and painting have been removed and are per-

haps in museums, to the more portable works of art, such as painted panels, tapestries, and furniture. Thus, in chapter i., the Golden Gallery now forming part of the Bank of France, and the Hôtel de Soubise, now occupied by the National Archives, are treated; and with them are compared the Hall of Hercules at Versailles, other rooms of almost equal importance still existing, though perhaps in a mutilated state, and again other rooms which have been destroyed. Chapter ii. deals with Nicholas Pineau and the extraordinary work that he did in Potsdam in his earlier days and in Paris when he was older. This famous decorator is found in close connection with the architect Gilles Marie Oppenort (or Oppenord, as Lady Dilke writes it), whose name is associated so closely with the great Church of S. Sulpice in Paris. Chapter iii. deals with the wood-carvers who worked in Versailles and elsewhere; chapters iv. and v. with the work done especially for certain great ladies of the French court, from Madame de Pompadour in earlier days to Marie Antoinette in the latest epoch; and here it may be mentioned that there is no very serious attempt at chronological sequence in the treatment of the subject—the general field of study is divided rather by the character of the product than by the epochs. Thus, in chapter xi. the reader finds himself occupied entirely with writing-tables, corner cupboards, commodes and their metal mountings; and the same subject is carried on through chapter xii. and chapter xiii., which last is entirely devoted to the puzzling question of Vernis-Martin. The chronological treatment may be found, however, within the limits of each chapter. There is, indeed, great clearness of statement, and it is easy, within each separate division of the work, for the careful reader to trace the evolution of style from 1715 to 1790, or even beyond that epoch, into the earlier beginnings of the curious Revolutionary style that we call after Napoleon's brief Empire, which ended exactly with the century covered by this work. 1715—1815; that is the epoch of the French decadence of artistic style; but, as has been suggested above, the decadence of art is not Decay—it is Decline, and may be full of interest and even full of charm.

Lady Dilke's researches are of twofold character: she knows the books well and the unpublished records after a fashion, while, on the other hand, she knows the accessible works of art with a familiarity which is delightful to see. Her work is a labor of love in every sense of the word. It is quite evident that she cares for the beautiful designs themselves, for the delicate workmanship in which they are embodied and preserved, and for the still remaining traditional art which was alive to permeate and inspire them all, and which is now lost, apparently for ever. Even a limited space may be strained to admit the following paragraph, which shows how rightly and independently this writer faces the painful question, What has become of the artistic spirit?

"An example of this work [an exact rendering in tapestry of a portrait of Marie Antoinette, painted by Mme. Vigée-Lebrun] was selected by M. Félix Faure to be boastfully placed before the eyes of the Emperor and Empress of Russia when they visited the Élysée. His taste, which was, it is true, no worse than that of the average public, seems to have accurately gauged that of his imperial visitors. The pleasure expressed by the Empress was so great that M. Jules Guiffrey, the head of the Gobelins Manufactory, was at once ordered by the President to set his workmen to the task of accurately reproducing the whole picture of which the portrait formed a part. As I write, I learn that this work, which it has taken three years' labor to complete, is to be offered by the French Government to her Majesty on the occasion of the Russian New Year."

In the eighteenth century the artistic spirit still existed, strong and all-pervading. If it went astray into vagaries and allowed fantasy to replace imaginative creation, it showed its ability to recover, and that not once, but at several different epochs and in several different ways. The final achievement of creating, out of the overwrought style of 1750, the severe and restrained type introduced in later years of the reign, and named from the next sovereign, Louis Seize, showed what was still possible. The Revolutionary epoch succeeded, and traditional art came to an end, which is another way of saying that the old world with all that was good in it perished, and that we have been now, for a great part of the century, trying to make a new world, and that under the most untoward conditions.

Alfred Tennyson. By Andrew Lang. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1901.

Mr. Lang's 'Tennyson,' like its predecessors in this series of "Modern English Writers," is not the ideal short biography, but it is, notwithstanding, a singularly characteristic and engaging essay. We do not expect that a brief life of a literary personage should exhibit the stirring epic quality, say, of Southey's 'Nelson.' The literary career, especially when it is, as Mr. Lang thinks Tennyson's was, "the normal type of what, in circumstances as fortunate as mortals may expect, the life and work of a modern poet ought to be," is, as Browne has it, too devoid of "rubs, doublings, and wrenches" to afford the biographer his best opportunity. Mr. Lang does not pretend to go back of the standard biography of the poet by his son; and one who has been an attentive reader of that work will find difficulty in forming an impression of the first Lord Tennyson grounded wholly upon Mr. Lang's account of him. Neither does the chief interest of the volume lie in its æsthetic criticism of Tennyson's poetry. Its most notable sections are the paragraphs in which Mr. Lang, with rather less than his usual display of adventitious anecdote, pauses in his path to spar gayly with current popular whimsies, or the chapters in which he assumes the rôle of special pleader in a tripartite dispute with Mr. Frederic Harrison on the one hand, and certain cocksure young critics on the other.

The first four chapters, dealing with Tennyson's boyhood, youth, and earlier volumes of poetry, are largely excerpted from Lord Hallam Tennyson's record. We may therefore pass them summarily by, pausing only to quote with hearty agreement an observation which we find concerning the motive of that derided poem "Love and Duty." Says Mr. Lang:

"Shall

" 'Sin itself be found
The cloudy porch oft opening on the Sun?'

That this is the province of sin is a pretty popular modern moral. But honor is the better part, and here was a poet who had the courage to say so; though, to be sure, the words ring strange in an age when highly respectable matrons assure us that 'passion,' like charity, covers a multitude of sins. 'Love and Duty,' we must admit, is 'early Victorian.' "

But it is in his discussion of "In Memoriam" that Mr. Lang comes most stoutly to quarters with the *advocati Diaboli.* Matthew Arnold had said, after some faint praise, that Tennyson, alas! was not *un esprit puissant.* Mr. Harrison recently went further, and laid down the dictum that the much-admired religious philosophy of Tennyson was simply the now obsolete latitudinarianism of Maurice, Jowett, Kingsley, and Martineau perfectly phrased, and set to an exquisite melody of verse. And now, lastly, the poet of "In Memoriam" has been decried or patronized by "other and younger critics who have attained to a cock-certain mood of negation." It is undeniable, as Mr. Lang alleges, that a very considerable number of persons, "nourished as on the milk of lions on the elevating and strengthening doctrines of popular science, trained from childhood to forego hope and attend evening lectures, . . . find Tennyson a weakling because he had hopes and fears concerning the ultimate renewal of what was more than half his life—his friendship." With all these conflicting voices Mr. Lang joins issue. He would be a bold man who should assume to arbitrate the final antinomy between mysticism and positivism, reason and faith, to which all such contentions are ultimately reducible; but we venture to believe that, so far as observable literary facts are concerned, Mr. Lang has easily the best of the argument.

It is a common mistake to assume that if a man be by temperamental conditioning a conservative humanist, working within the lines of the alleged academic tradition in literature, he is, therefore, necessarily lacking in mental energy and initiative. Serious students of English poetry have long been aware that Tennyson did, in a sense, actually anticipate Darwin's theory of evolution by fully ten years, and was, so far, *un esprit puissant.* Mr. Lang's argument from dates in answer to Mr. Harrison's denial of this is perfectly sound and convincing. Only, it is best to remind Mr. Lang's reader that he will do well to be on guard against attaching to this point too great importance. The truth is, that Tennyson was, as were Lucretius and Virgil, Poe and Blake, in different sort, a poetic mind of the type which finds in cosmic speculation a most congenial activity. Keenly sensitive to currents in the intellectual atmosphere, Tennyson saw and expressed the trend of the scientific speculation of his day even before the men of science were quite aware of it. All this is obvious and trite enough, and demands little further attention. In defending "In Memoriam" from the civil leers of the younger school of critics, Mr. Lang judges wisely in laying the emphasis upon points more poetic than doctrinal. Surely few honest and duly qualified readers of poetry will wish to controvert his belief that "to many 'In Memoriam' is almost a lifelong companion; we walk with Great Heart for our guide through the valley Perilous." To many, such fame as this will

seem to spring from a certain puissance of spirit.

In the chapter upon "The Idylls of the King," Mr. Lang, while fully aware of the immense learning which has been massed upon the subject, contrives to strike, for the purposes of his book, a happy mean between historical and æsthetic criticism. At a time when learned societies are pursuing allegories and "spiritual meanings" with unflagging zeal, it is refreshing to encounter Mr. Lang's exposition of Tennyson's allegoric intention in the Idylls:

"He had a spiritual conception, 'an allegory in the distance,' an allegory not to be insisted upon though its presence was to be felt. No longer, as in youth, did Tennyson intend Merlin to symbolize 'the sceptical understanding' (as if one were to 'break into blank the gospel' of Herr Kant), or poor Guinevere to stand for the blessed Reformation, or the Table Round for liberal institutions. . . . There was only a 'parabolic drift' in the intention. . . . The Idylls ought to be read (and the right readers never dream of doing anything else) as romantic poems, just like Browning's 'Childe Roland,' in which the wrong readers (the members of the Browning Society) sought for mystic mountains and marvels. Yet Tennyson had his own interpretation, 'a dream of man coming into practical life and ruined by one sin.' That was his interpretation, or 'allegory in the distance.'"

It cannot be admitted that Mr. Lang has said anything definitive concerning Tennyson's poetic art. In writing of poems on classical themes such as "Lucretius" and the matchless lines "To Virgil," he is often happy in his comments; and many passing appreciations are very felicitously phrased, as, for example, when it is said that "'Tears, idle tears,' is far beyond praise: once read, it seems like a thing that has always existed in a world of poetic archetypes, and has now been not so much composed as discovered and revealed." But in general the criticism is in Mr. Lang's usual manner—empirical, allusive, picturesque, suggestive rather than systematic; translucent rather than transparent. The book, indeed, comes no nearer to the ideal literary study than it does to the ideal short biography. Its value lies in its timely insistence on a phase of Tennyson's character as a man and as a poet too often overlooked or deprecated—his union of a passionate poet's heart, an imaginative, humanistic temperament, with an unswerving adherence to the things which are "founded in reason, loyal, just, and pure."

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 12, 1901.

The Week.

President Roosevelt and the Senators and Representatives who immediately follow his example in proposing measures to punish anarchists and end anarchism, illustrate the same difficulty which was encountered by the people who, directly after Mr. McKinley's assassination, demanded the passage of laws to "stamp out anarchism." "No man or body of men preaching anarchistic doctrines," says Mr. Roosevelt, "should be allowed at large," and he suggests the propriety of prohibiting the coming to this country of "anarchists or persons professing principles hostile to all government." Senator Burrows of Michigan has introduced a bill forbidding the landing of any "alien anarchist," and providing for the return to his native country of any alien who may slip in and is afterwards "found to be an anarchist." But all this is based on the assumption that an anarchist is as easily identifiable as a negro or a Chinaman. What makes a man an anarchist, and how shall an anarchist be "spotted"? Mr. Burrows apparently thinks that, in some cases at least, he may be detected by inspection of his body, as in the days of witchcraft. His bill provides that the investigation by immigration authorities which it authorizes may "even go to the extent of examining the persons of suspected aliens for marks indicative of membership in anarchistic societies." The presumption is that the Michigan Senator has heard of cases where members of anarchist societies have had some sign tattooed on their bodies which would "give them away." But anarchists would, of course, abandon this practice if they found that it got them into trouble. As for testing an alien's sentiments about anarchism by questioning him, the difficulty is that any man who disbelieves in government of any sort is likely to lie to a Government official. It is very hard to see how we can go far beyond punishing the man in this country who incites to the murder of officials and the forcible overthrow of government, and keeping out the man who has done the same thing in some other country.

Senator Burrows's proposition is outdone in absurdity by Senator Hoar's advocacy of an international scheme by which all countries having lawful governments should deport anarchists to some island, "where they could put their theories to the test." If the Massachusetts Senator were given to jesting, we might ascribe his speech on Thursday to a desire to show how ridiculous the current cures for anarchy really are. It is hardly possible to treat the suggestion seriously. Men who try to overthrow all governments are really either criminals or lunatics, and should be treated as such. The public opinion of no civilized nation would justify the treatment of criminals or lunatics in any such fashion as putting them on an island by themselves. No more will the public opinion of the world. The moral objections to the policy are conclusive, even if it were not obviously in itself wholly impracticable.

President Roosevelt has evidently been imposed upon. Among the nominations which he sent to the Senate on Monday was that of Henry D. Saylor of Pennsylvania for United States Consul at Dawson City, Yukon Territory, Canada. In the pressure of public business, Mr. Roosevelt doubtless looked no further into the application of Mr. Saylor for a place than to learn that he has been a member of the Pennsylvania Senate and has been endorsed by some people of standing in his State, as any office-seeker is pretty sure to be. The truth, however, is that he is one of the most disreputable politicians that the Quay machine ever developed, and that he was detected only a few years ago in an attempt to defraud the Treasury of his State. Exposure caused such a scandal that Quay feared to let Saylor run for reëlection in the close county which he represented, and decided to unload him upon the McKinley Administration. He was therefore endorsed by the machine for a place in the consular service. As soon as this scheme was made public, the business men of Philadelphia sent a committee to the White House to protest against such an appointment on moral grounds, and to tell the President that it "would be regarded as scandalous by the right-thinking people of Pennsylvania, and as a reward for reprehensible practices." Mr. McKinley promised the Business Men's League to give their protest "due consideration"; but when the Quay organization insisted upon the carrying out of the job, he yielded, and Saylor was nominated for Consul at Matanzas, Cuba, in October, 1897. The breaking out of the war with Spain, a few months later, deprived him of his place, and Mr. McKinley never gave him another.

A formal petition in behalf of reciprocity in trade has been presented to Congress by the Cuban delegates. They ask that Cuban sugar and molasses be admitted to the United States free of duty, and that other Cuban products be admitted "at one-half the rates of duty levied and collected under the tariff laws of the United States upon similar products of the most favored nation." In return for these concessions, they offer to admit all products of the United States at half the rates of duty levied and collected under the tariff laws of Cuba on similar products of the most favored nation. Probably these delegates have learned from our own favored producers the art of asking for twice as much as they expect to get, so that, when the business is taken in hand seriously, they may have an ample basis for compromise. Nobody expects that Cuban sugar will be admitted free of duty. Probably the Cuban delegates do not expect a reduction of more than 20 per cent. This would put their industry on a prosperous footing. If granted, it ought to be extended to the other West India Islands on the same reciprocal basis. In any event, the United States ought not to bind itself for all time to grant better terms to one foreign country than to others. Besides this, we have no interest in ruining our customers in the other countries south of us by giving a preponderant advantage to Cuba.

Gen. Chaffee's first annual report is not a very encouraging document, despite his praise of the military government of Manila and his belief that a majority of the inhabitants of the islands wish for peace. There is no assurance that, even where they desire the cessation of hostilities, the natives are really glad to accept American rule. Some hundreds of rebels, it appears, are still in arms, all efforts to bring about a general surrender in Southern Luzon having failed. Nowhere does Gen. Chaffee make use of language which confirms the view expressed by President Roosevelt in his message, that "the insurrection has become an affair of local banditti and marauders who deserve no higher regard than the brigands of portions of the Old World." Exactly the same language is used by Chamberlain and the most rabid supporters of the English Government about the Boers. Yet the English troops feel that it is a very respectable kind of guerrilla warfare with which they are contending, just as Gen. Chaffee speaks of his enemies as guerrillas. Two of the General's recommendations are quite opposed to the views of the Government. He urges that no further material reduction of troops be made before January 1, 1903, and opposes Gen. Corbin's plan of concentrating the troops in large bodies except in the vicinity of Manila. Gen. Chaffee also declares that there is but one sure way of ascertaining the progress of the people in self-government—by observation by the army.

There was a meeting of the Chicago Branch of the American Transvaal League at the Auditorium on Sunday evening. Mr. Bourke Cockran delivered an address, which was listened to by an audience of 4,000. At the conclusion of his speech, Mr. Cockran expressed the opinion that President Roosevelt might put an end to the war in South Africa by a single word. "One word spoken to the English Ambassador or in the hearing of the English nation," he said, "would restore peace, establish justice, secure liberty to those burghers, promote enormously the prosperity of the human race, and bring immeasurable glory to the American nation. . . . Will Theodore Roosevelt improve this opportunity for himself, his country, and the whole human race?" We think that he will not. No President of the United States who holds that the Filipinos are banditti who must be put down with fire and sword, can offer any advice to a nation that holds the same opinion about the Boers. We have been glad to recognize in President Roosevelt's message to Congress a disposition to regard the future independence of the Philippines as an open question. He has said no word which commits him to the policy of holding a foreign race in subjection. He has held out some encouragement to those who regard such a policy as destructive of the principles of self-government. But there is still a long bridge to be crossed before he, or the American people as a whole, can set up for tutors to Great Britain in the science of Imperialism, or colonization, or conquest, or whatever name may be given to the doings in South Africa. Gov. Boutwell, or Herbert Welsh, or William J. Bryan, if occupying the Presidential chair, might say words to the British Ambassador which Mr. Roosevelt could not say, and never will say while we have an army hunting down the so-called banditti in Luzon and Samar.

Recent revelations of the costliness of the army transport service have revived the discussion as to whether this part of the Government service should not be under control of the navy, instead of being in the hands of the army. During the past year, over four millions of dollars were expended on the fleet of antiquated vessels bought in 1898 at prices far beyond their value. One of the largest, it appears from an official report, "carries practically no freight, requires constant repairs, and burns enormous quantities of coal, besides being too cumbersome." Very few of the fleet are suited for transports, the report declares. Moreover, there have been a number of accidents, and several complete wrecks, while some ships have been sold at but a tithe of their original cost. Under the circumstances the navy could hardly do worse, while English experience shows that the service would be in much better hands were trained naval officers in charge. It is altogether probable, however, that before this change can be made, the transport service will be abolished. The traffic between Cuba and Porto Rico has now been given to private companies, and Secretary Root, in his annual report, states his belief that the Government should not own and navigate a large passenger and freight fleet in competition with merchant steamers in time of peace.

There is not much more to be said at the present time, regarding the wild performances of Amalgamated Copper shares on the stock market, than that the whole episode illustrates in the strongest way the need of that publicity of accounts urged by President Roosevelt. The Copper Trust, as every one knows, has never published any report whatever. Even when its promoters asked the investing public, a year and a half ago, for $75,000,000 to use in buying up copper mines, nothing was said as to what the Trust already owned, or what was the earning power of the mines to which it held option or title. Nobody outside the management has at any time known, since then, what the Trust was actually earning. It was suspected in some quarters that the concern had been organized, like the famous Barnato Bank of 1895, as a convenient vehicle for "unloading" on the outside public, at extravagant prices, a collection of mining properties which had already begun to recede from the high-water mark of the period's prosperity. There was no way of verifying or refuting such assertions; all that the outside investor knew was that certain men were "in the company." Even in this regard, he could not know, of course, whether they were not cautiously climbing out.

That the Stock Exchange value of the shares of such a company should be cut in half within ten weeks of the first development of unfavorable bona-fide news, need hardly cause surprise. The question now is, how to prevent recurrence of such scandals, and it is not easy of answer. The Stock Exchange, which practically puts such securities in touch with the investor, has been appealed to in the matter, and some reform of methods here is doubtless possible. The Exchange lays down an excellent code of rules as to what a company must show when its shares apply for admission to the official list. But in the case of enterprises like the Copper Trust, it nullifies the whole of this precaution by providing another department, with equal facilities for trading, where no report whatever is required. Sooner or later, this rather naïve anomaly must be reformed; but, unfortunately, the reform cannot be retroactive. Statements of earnings cannot well be exacted from companies whose shares are already on the so-called "unlisted list," and it is doubtful if they could be required even in the listing of a block of newly issued shares by a company already represented on the list. The single safeguard left, apparently, is compulsory publicity, under the auspices of the Federal Government. To this, in our opinion, the situation must eventually reduce itself. Since the Amalgamated Copper episode, and the subsequent publication of the Steel Corporation's earnings, we do not believe that the plan will be seriously opposed by any properly and honestly conducted trade organization.

The Nebraska anti-Trust case has been finally closed by a decision of the Supreme Court of that State. The suit was brought by Attorney-General Smyth, who contended that the Standard Oil Company should be excluded from Nebraska on the ground that its business is illegal, under the acts passed in 1897. Those laws gave an elaborate definition of a Trust as "a combination of capital, skill, or acts by any person or persons" to control prices or monopolize industries, and made the organization of such Trusts a criminal conspiracy. As a penalty for violation of the acts, they imposed fines, and provided that the charters of domestic corporations should be forfeited, while foreign companies should be prohibited from doing business within the State. The outcome once more demonstrates the inefficiency of anti-Trust legislation, and it further illustrates the difficulty of getting evidence even from the books of the corporation itself, since the turning-point in the case was the investigation of the accounts of the Standard Oil Company by a referee. This inquiry resulted in a report recommending that the suit be dismissed, and the present decision is the necessary sequel to the referee's findings. No exceptions to the findings were filed.

"There are no Trusts," exclaimed Senator Hanna, a year ago, in a passion of indignation over what he called " a fictitious issue." It is apparently in this Hannian sense that Privy Councillor Goldberger of Berlin has declared that the German sugar Kartell, or combination, is not a Trust. It is not secret, he says; it does not include all sugar manufacturers, and its members "do not lose their financial independence." Of course it maintains prices, regulates production, receives a bounty from the Government, and keeps new factories from starting—but then, he ingenuously adds, what use in discussing these things? They are merely incidents in business organization. Herr Goldberger's argument takes on even more the aspect of a "business proposition" when he contends that foreigners have no cause for complaint, since they get their sugar cheaper because of the

German combination. This sounds strangely like some of the discoveries of our Industrial Commission concerning foreign prices for American goods. German consumers do not worry over the conditions of American production because they get our goods cheap, so why should we not return the compliment? There may be some foolish people in Germany who are annoyed by the Trusts, but they belong to the same stupid class with Americans who want removal of protective duties on Trust-made products.

Dr. Paache, a member of the Reichstag, and one of the speakers on the new German Tariff Bill, is a professor in the University of Halle, and, therefore, ought to know better than to say that Germany must put herself in an attitude of defence against the American tariff policy. Apparently, he means by this that, if the United States enacts a prohibitory duty on German textiles, Germany can defend herself by increasing the duties on American food products. This policy is sometimes called retaliation, and sometimes patriotism, and sometimes simply defence. We in America know the value of words in concealing ideas on this subject, and we recognize Dr. Paache's dexterity in the use of them. We know also their real meaning as commonly employed in tariff debates. The only effect of the new German tariff is to change the distribution of the earnings of German producers, so that some persons shall get more and some less than they now get. This change affects mainly the laboring classes, because they are the great majority of the people. The special aim of the new German tariff is to make the laborers pay more for their food, but there is not a line in the proposed measure which promises to give them more work to do or more pay for what they are now doing. To call this scheme by the name of patriotism or of defence is a complete inversion of terms. Instead of defending German industry, it constitutes a deadly attack upon it. Instead of being a patriotic movement, it favors other nations, and especially England in her rivalry with Germany as a manufacturing and exporting country. As for retaliation, nobody in the United States will feel the blow half so much as Germany herself if she passes the pending bill.

The enthusiasm called forth by Herr Bebel's speech on the new German tariff on Thursday shows what a powerful weapon the new bill has placed in the hands of the Social Democrats. Even if the proposed tariff should benefit the agricultural laborer, as it pretends to do, the result would be merely to tax 85 per cent. of the population for the advantage of the 15 per cent. who work the soil. Herr Bebel, however, was correct in maintaining that the advantage would accrue to the land-owner, and not to the farm laborer, since there would be nothing to compel landlords to pay out their larger profits in the shape of higher wages. His contention that the condition of German agriculture is, if anything, better than formerly, although he adduced some striking facts in support of it, is perhaps not so sound as his argument concerning the effects of the tax. The Government's defence of the tariff as a weapon to be used in securing favorable commercial treaties is misleading, since little short of a national uprising could secure the withdrawal of such special favors when once granted. Moreover, the effectiveness of the bill as a measure of retaliation is a hypocritical pretence.

The erection of a monument upon Heine's grave at Paris has been a spontaneous and enthusiastic, if somewhat tardy, tribute by French men of letters to the illustrious exile who passed his later years in Paris. The fact that practically all attempts to pay honor to the memory of Heine in Germany have been thwarted, by either official opposition or religious intolerance, seems to show that there was something temperamentally un-German in the most brilliant writer that Germany has produced; for it is impossible to believe that resentment of his satire is still a living issue. Possibly the grievance against Heine is not merely that he was in some respects un-German, but that he was more than German. He was, in fact, the most cosmopolitan writer that Germany has ever produced, and a cosmopolitan writer is never fully honored in a nationalistic community. It should be remembered that, in spite of the admirable educational facilities of the nation, and the uncommon knowledge of foreign tongues which its people possess, the German temperament remains irreducibly German. Germans annex certain territories of foreign literature for the intellectual profit of the nation, but they rarely wander at random in the foreign field for the sheer pleasure of that kind of journeying. The dilettantism and tolerance of a Heine are genuinely antipathetic to so stalwart a nationalism. He will remain an especial delight to a small class of Germans, as he will to the reading world at large; but even while they sing his songs, his fellow-countrymen will feel, and perhaps justly, that he is so unlike themselves that honor to him could be paid only as to a distinguished foreigner. He certainly is more at home in Paris, where he lies, and where people delight to honor him.

It remains to be seen whether the dispatch from Paris announcing that the appointment of M. Lucien Guitry to the stage-managership of the Théâtre-Français has restored peace to that institution will be justified by later developments. When the jealousies of actors have once been aroused, it is generally a long time before they are quieted. There is no more susceptible, vain, or suspicious class in the world. But it is plain that the meditated rebellion of the *sociétaires* against M. Claretie, the Director, has been nipped in the bud very effectually, and it is not likely that anything more will be heard of it for some time to come, at all events. The abilities of M. Guitry as a stage-manager are more or less uncertain, but, as he took the second prize for tragedy at the Conservatory twenty years ago, and has since then won high reputation as an actor at the Odéon, the Gymnase, and other theatres, as well as in the support of Sarah Bernhardt, it is only reasonable to suppose that he understands his business pretty thoroughly. As for M. Claretie, he can now devote all his energies to the choice of good plays, which the company will have to act, in accordance with his direction. This is as it should be. He and the Théâtre-Français are to be congratulated upon his notable victory.

The Compulsory-Arbitration Bill has been finally approved in New South Wales. It modifies the New Zealand system in several important respects. Any inefficiency of compulsory arbitration as there applied has been attributed to the mildness of the act. No such complaint can now be made in New South Wales. The weak and quarrelsome boards of conciliation are abandoned, and the sole and ultimate power of deciding labor disputes is vested in a Court of Arbitration, to which disputes are to be carried directly. Furthermore, New South Wales does not, like New Zealand, leave any loopholes for private labor controversies. Strikes and lockouts are prohibited by the act, and even the suspension of industry in order to remove a dispute from the jurisdiction of the court is made a misdemeanor, punishable by a heavy fine or by imprisonment. It would be hard to imagine more inclusive powers than those vested in the Court of Arbitration. It may practically determine its own authority in concrete cases, prescribe its own rules of procedure, investigate the business of firms and individuals, and, at any time, vary its own decisions and reopen any dispute. No body of men could more closely approach the authority of an earthly Providence. It need hardly be said that the act is most favorable to the trade-unions, or, as they are called, "industrial unions." Individual laborers have practically no standing before the Court, and it is even provided that minimum wages may be fixed, and that the members of unions may be given preference in all cases over non-union men who apply for work. This statute will at least put the theory of compulsory arbitration to a thorough test.

THE CRIME OF TOUCHING THE TARIFF.

The Republicans at Washington are rapidly working themselves into a frame of mind about the tariff comparable only to that state of nervous dread which afflicted the Democracy, and, indeed, nearly the whole country, in connection with the agitation against slavery from 1833 to 1860. Now as then we have, or are told that we have, a sacrosanct law against which it is a crime to breathe, and which it is almost treason to attempt to modify or repeal. As the old man eloquent, John Quincy Adams, found that even the right of petition must be denied, on the ground that it would "open" the slavery question, about which it was the duty of every patriot to keep for ever mum, so now the most glaring injustices of the tariff, even its provisions that prevent us from honorably and humanely keeping our promises to the Cubans, must not be touched, because to touch them would be to "open" the tariff question. At the sound of these words there rise up before the affrighted vision of Republicans, as Mill said in reference to talk of disestablishment of the English Church, "images of rapine, violence, plunder, and every sentiment of abhorrence which would be excited by a proposal to take away from an individual the earnings of his toil or the inheritance of his fathers."

This spirit of fear has been impressed even on a courageous President. His message regards tariff revision as a kind of calamity from which all Christian folk will pray the good Lord to deliver them. How about Mr. Babcock's bill to remove tariff protection from Trusts that sell their goods cheaper to the foreigner than to the favored consumer in the blessed "home market"? Is not that a simple measure of social justice? Yes, but, you see, that would be to "open" the tariff! and the opening of Pandora's box did not let loose more evils than we should see following so reckless a proceeding. So of doing something for the Cubans, so of reducing taxes. We are told that it is all very sad, that we really ought to provide a market for Cuban products, that we ought to cut down the surplus by cutting down taxes, but there is the sacred tariff in the way, and who so impious as to propose to take away one jot or tittle of that?

It has its comic aspects, this treating the tariff as a kind of Mumbo Jumbo, which will bring nameless woes upon you if you touch it irreverently; but the obsession is real enough and serious enough in many honest minds. No one can doubt that President Roosevelt is perfectly sincere in thinking a "general revision of the tariff" a thing to shrink from as from the plague. He recalls, we presume, the McKinley tariff and the political disasters that followed it, and the Wilson tariff with the troubles that came after, and agrees with the timid Republicans who flock to the White House to say, "No more of that, an thou lovest me!" Yet a little reflection will show that a tariff law is no more exempt from the frailties of human legislation than any other measure. Tariffs always have needed revision, and always will. Their framers are neither omniscient nor infallible. They cannot legislate for the unknown future. Conditions change, trade shifts, the incidence of taxation alters, new devices to thwart the tariff or to profit by it are discovered, the needs of revenue change, international relations and foreign commerce take on new aspects of dependence upon tariff revision, and it is absurd to suppose that we cannot modify a law made to fit other times and other circumstances. No such old man of the sea, in the shape of a tariff law that altereth not, can be allowed to impede the free play of a nation's expanding energies.

The case is different, of course, if the tariff is not an honest law, honestly in the public interest. If it is a bundle of favoritisms, a combination of bargains, a resultant of log-rolling and selfish interest striking hands with selfish interest, then, indeed, we can understand why it must not be touched. One part of an edifice propped up by swindling agreements cannot be taken away without bringing the whole to the ground. And the old familiar threats we already hear once more about making the grass grow in the streets of manufacturing cities if the McKinley treaties of reciprocity are ratified, or if the duties on hides or wool or sugar are touched, unpleasantly remind us that there is only too much truth in the theory of the tariff as a covenant between its beneficiaries, not one clause of which can be repealed without a loss of honor among—protectionists.

Now it is exactly this suspicious view of the tariff which the Republicans will do their best to foster if they continue in their present attitude of hare-like timidity in respect to any tariff changes. People will not be put off by the official sighs of regret that the confessed blemishes of the tariff cannot be removed. Would the duties on steel and iron have been placed at the Dingley figure if it had been foreseen that a great Steel Trust would arise to sell goods cheaper to Englishman and German than to the American? Surely not. Then why cannot the blunder be now retraced? Western Republicans, clear-eyed citizens, everywhere, are not to be told, as if they were children, that this needless and abused protection to the Steel Trust cannot be taken away. Only a bill of a few lines would be necessary. Why would this necessarily "open" the whole tariff? Why, unless it is true that the Dingley tariff was a great grab by special interests, possible only because they agreed to pool their demands, and stable only as long as each one's plunder remains intact? We do not assert at this time that such is an accurate description of the Dingley tariff; but we do affirm that, if the Republicans continue to kotow before it in their present cowardly and slavish fashion, this will be the idea of the nature and end of all tariffs which will become fixed in the popular mind.

Mere self-interest and self-respect should prompt the Republican party to shake off the contemptible paralysis, as respects tariff amendment, which it professes itself unable to escape. It cannot afford to appear bound in fetters of its own forging. It cannot desire, by a stupid persistence in its alleged helplessness, to create a soul even under the ribs of death in the Democratic party, and see itself turned out of power for not having used its power for the general good. The times clearly call for tariff modifications. They are needed to do justice at home and secure trade abroad, as also to reduce a dangerously swollen revenue. And every day's delay to urge and secure them is, for the Republicans, to deposit just so much more in what Burke called the "bank of discontent," upon which every political opponent may "draw at pleasure."

THE NEW TREATY.

The surest way to measure the significance of the new Hay-Pauncefote treaty is to compare it with the old one, and with the form of the old one, as amended by the Senate, which Great Britain rejected. We may say, briefly, that all three aim at the same great object—a neutral canal to be used on equal terms by the ships of commerce and of war of all nations; that the changes of phraseology successively made look only to the manner of guaranteeing this fundamental principle; and that the agreement finally reached reveals the ordinary give-and-take of diplomatic adjustment. There is no "backdown," as there is no sweeping victory, on either side. Sensible representatives of two sensible nations have simply devised a form of words to cover the end which both have at heart.

The first Hay-Pauncefote treaty was, in effect, a modification of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. One of the Senate amendments brusquely declared, in reference to the latter, "which Convention is hereby superseded." To this, Lord Lansdowne made the perfectly sound objection that no "international contract of unquestionable validity ought to be abrogated or modified, save with the consent of both the parties to the contract." Accordingly, we have now the orderly supersession of the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty set down in Article I. of the new treaty as that to which "the high contracting parties agree." The Senate gets what it wanted, but gets it in the

way that the British Foreign Secretary indicated as the only proper way.

One of the famous Senate amendments is quietly dropped, as it should have been. We refer to the paragraph which the Senate added to section 5 of Article II., to wit: "It is agreed that none of the immediately foregoing conditions and stipulations . . . shall apply to measures which the United States may find it necessary to take for securing by its own forces the defence of the United States and the maintenance of public order." Such vague language has no place in a treaty. If it was intended to take away with one hand what was given with the other—that is, the real neutrality of the canal—it should have been so stated in explicit terms. If it was only meant that, in case of war, the United States might defend itself to the utmost of its ability, that was a matter of course, and needed no clause of a treaty to make it certain. All this is left out of the new instrument.

The Senate has its way, however, in the leaving out also of the third Article of the original treaty, agreeing to invite the adhesion of other Powers to the canal convention. There is the less reason for such a provision now since the joint guarantee of neutrality has been exchanged for the individual guarantee of the United States. This is the most marked change of all. Before, the United States and Great Britain agreed together to guarantee that any Isthmian canal should be open to all the world on equal terms; at present, the United States agrees with Great Britain that it will, on its own responsibility, adopt and enforce rules securing neutrality and equality. It is our own affair now. With England out of it, there is no reason to ask other nations to come in.

The old clause prohibiting fortifications commanding the canal has been dropped. That does not mean, however, that forts are now permitted. The one military right specifically granted to the United States is that of maintaining a "military police along the canal to protect it against lawlessness and disorder." By a well-known rule of judicial construction, this specific grant would be held to bar out any not mentioned. Besides, in section 2 of Article III. of the new treaty, the United States definitely agrees that "the canal shall never be blockaded, nor shall any right of war be exercised within it." This would preclude forts, or at any rate the use of them. It is absurd, therefore, to suppose that they will ever be built. The only defence of the canal possible, in case of war, is a naval defence. This is now well settled, and we should hear no more talk about fortifications.

One entirely new Article—the fourth—appears in the latest treaty. It provides that "no change of territorial sovereignty or of international relations of the country or countries traversed by the canal shall affect the general principle of neutralization, or the obligation of the high contracting parties under the present treaty." The need for this is obvious. It is a necessary consequence of the abrogation of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. By Article I. of that treaty the United States bound itself never to "occupy, or fortify, or colonize, or assume, or exercise any dominion over Nicaragua, Costa Rica, the Mosquito Coast, or any part of Central America." That restriction being now removed, it was vitally important for Great Britain to obtain a guarantee that, in case the territory through which the canal is to run should ever come under the sovereignty of the United States, the right of English ships freely and equitably to use the waterway (which would then be domestic property of the United States) should never be impaired.

All told, the treaty is admirably designed to secure the ends aimed at by both parties to it, and the manner of its drafting should quiet most of the old cavilling opposition. There will doubtless arise a few alarmed patriots to scent mysterious dangers in the new document, as they did in the old. And the breed of American politicians who object to any agreement with England simply because it is an agreement with England, is not yet wholly extinct. But we believe that the Administration is justified in its confidence that the opposition will amount to nothing, and that the treaty will be speedily ratified. It ought to be, as promotive both of good relations with Great Britain, which should be a prime object of our national policy, and of an Isthmian canal, which the American people are determined to have. Opponents of the treaty may, therefore, be classed as either haters of England or enemies of a canal.

THE TREASURY REPORT.

The principal features of Secretary Gage's report this year are a recommendation for a reduction of taxes to the amount of $50,000,000, and one for a change in the currency system by a modification of existing requirements for the security of bank-note issues.

The reason for the reduction of taxes is that the public revenues for the current fiscal year ending June 30, 1902, are estimated to show a surplus of $100,000,000 over expenditures for the same period. These facts are rather grudgingly set forth by the Secretary. Apparently he would rather have the whole amount of this surplus than the half of it which he desires to retain, not because he has any use for it, but because it is very comfortable for the person who pays the Government's expenses to have a large pile of money in sight. Here was an opportunity for some wholesome instruction to Congress and the people on the dangers of an overflowing Treasury in the way of promoting extravagance, jobbery, and corruption in public life, but Mr. Gage did not see fit to use his opportunity. He could not have done so very consistently when advocating as he does the policy of "navigation bounties," otherwise ship subsidies, which he seeks to minimize, however, by saying that they "need not in any year exceed the total cost of a couple of battle-ships." The last Congress considered Mr. Gage's plans for revenue reduction much too conservative. It made a much heavier cut in the taxes than he recommended, and yet did not cut deeply enough. It is to be hoped that the present Congress will supply the shortcomings of its predecessor and those of the Secretary also.

Mr. Gage introduces his plan of currency reform with a prefatory treatise on the principles of banking, which is entirely sound and perhaps not longer than needful to explain to uninstructed readers the reasons for the change which he proposes. In brief, the explanation is that a bank is an apparatus for swapping credit rather than for lending money; that its chief function is to supply the means for transferring property without the actual handling of money; that the means consist of credits transferable in part by checks and in part by notes; and that the checks and the notes are identical in substance, although differing in form. The law sees no objection to the extension of bank credits by means of checks, subject to a certain amount of cash reserve, the custody of which is left to the banker himself. But when the credit takes the form of circulating notes, the law says that the banker must deposit security of a particular kind with the Treasurer of the United States to the par value of the notes. This security is obtainable only in limited quantity, and is constantly diminishing. It is so costly that the advantage of note-issuing, as compared with other investments, is considerably less than 1 per cent. per annum. No banker can buy Government bonds, deposit them in the Treasury, and take out circulation with the hope of making a profit of more than seventy-hundredths of 1 per cent. over and above what he could make by lending the same money on mortgage security. In other words, the profit to bankers is not sufficient to warrant them in increasing their note issues.

This is not the whole story. Government bonds are a diminishing quantity. The fact that they will wholly disappear within a measurable time has been often advanced by economists as a reason for taking timely measures to supply a bank-note currency on different principles; but men in responsible positions in public life have manifested great reluctance to grapple with that problem. Mr. Gage is the first one, we believe, to face it squarely. He says that

we must look forward to an increasing population with a diminishing paper circulation, and asks how the difficulty and the incongruity can be met. To increase the amount of Government legal-tender notes is not to be thought of. On the contrary, the existing ones ought to be retired, and the Secretary proposes a plan by which this end may be reached simultaneously with an enlargement of the bank currency.

The plan which he proposes is that any bank which shall deposit with the Treasurer of the United States 30 per cent. of its capital in the form of United States bonds and 20 per cent. in greenbacks, shall have the right to issue circulating notes to an amount not exceeding its paid-up and unimpaired capital. In addition to the deposited security of 50 per cent., the plan provides that all banks which issue notes shall contribute a sum equal to one-eighth of 1 per cent. of their capital as a guarantee fund for the protection of the notes of all the banks in the system. Whenever a bank fails, the sum needed for the prompt redemption of its outstanding notes, over and above the 50 per cent. of deposited security, shall be taken from the guarantee fund, and when the assets of the failed bank are distributed, the amount taken from the fund shall be restored, so far as the assets will go. The note-holders are not preferred creditors of the bank, except that they have a first and exclusive lien on the 50 per cent. of bonds and greenbacks originally deposited. What would have been the actual results of a system of this kind if it had been adopted at the beginning of the national banking system has been computed by the Actuary of the Treasury, who finds that not only would there have been no loss to note-holders by bank failures, but there would now be in the guarantee fund the sum of $27,421,950.

Mr. Gage's plan is a modification or variation of the plan which is commonly described as "banking on assets," meaning the issue of bank-notes against the general credit of the banks. The Secretary adopts this idea in principle, but would require at the beginning bank issues to be secured absolutely, to the extent of 50 per cent. of their volume. Even this is probably farther than Congress is prepared to go at present, but the time is ripe for a more general discussion of the proposed change than it has yet received, and Mr. Gage is entitled to much credit for having given a fresh impetus to it.

FRIEDRICH ALBRECHT WEBER.

Born nearly a generation after Lassen and Burnouf, Albrecht Weber for half a century has been one of that German triumvirate to whom Sanskrit scholars in all lands have given the place earned by ability and age. Boehtlingk still keeps his wonderful vigor, but Roth is gone, and now Weber has died (on December 1) in his seventy-sixth year, with his latest 'Vedische Beiträge' still fresh from the press; a man whose place none other is ready to fill.

For it was characteristic of Weber's scholarship that it alone covered the whole ground of that immense literature which began a thousand years or more before the Christian era, and was still growing a thousand years after that era. In this his genius was more akin to that of Boehtlingk than to that of Roth, the Vedic specialist. A Sanskrit specialist he was always, but there is nothing narrow in a scholarship which touched and illuminated at all points so great a literature as that of India. This is shown most clearly in his 'History of Sanskrit Literature,' a work which, while it lacks all literary charm (for Weber did not possess the gift of expression), became from the time of its publication, just fifty years ago, the standard book of reference for the history of the whole literature. So, in his occasional publications, he glided easily from a raking critique of a Vedic text to an incisive review of a classical drama, always clear-headed, commanding, and, it must be added, ruthless, in judgment. For the general reader he was too dry; for the confrères who came under his caustic criticism he was too withering; popular he could never be, but he was well hated and always compelled admiration. One of his victims is said to have died of chagrin after Weber had "noticed" his book, and there were probably few who felt much affection for the hand that chastened them. But, for all that, his own work was so superb that they were glad to come under his patronizing commendation, and forgive him his *offenes Wort* if, at a later date, they could cite his opinion for support in some new venture of ideas. Even Max Müller, though he depreciated him, was unable to ignore him, and continued sedulously to court his approbation. But, while Weber had many foes, he had many firm friends, and these were the best scholars of the time; those already named as his peers and our own Whitney, among others.

Weber's great technical achievement was the edition of the White Yajur Veda, the Vedic work next in importance to the Rig Veda, the latter being published in the *editio princeps* of his friend Aufrecht a couple of years after the completion of Weber's ten years' labor (1859). But this was only the beginning of his work. The seventeen volumes of the 'Indische Studien' are chiefly from his hand, and, besides these, he has a wealth of observation and new material in the supplementary *Skizzen* and *Streifen*, putting as much new matter into an ordinary review as an ordinary reviewer could put into a book, should he write one. Full forty years were spent on his superb 'Catalogue of Sanskrit Manuscripts,' and he also edited and translated various classical texts. Of late years he had been publishing a series of *Beiträge*, concerned chiefly with Vedic text-critique. His style was atrocious, even for a German, and his pet weakness was vain etymologizing and playing with words. His last paper, for example, published this year, gravely proclaims that surds are used to express hard ideas, and sonants, soft ideas; whence *pat*, πέτομαι, means 'fly,' which is hard, but *pad*, the root of *pes*, means 'walk,' which is easy! This, however, was rather an amusement than a business with him, and it always seemed as if he took his own etymologies with as little seriousness as did Plato.

The old man led a true scholar's life. Buried in his library all day till the lecture-hour, which he put at as inconvenient a time as possible, thereby (to his great satisfaction) dissuading many courses out of existence, he would rush out of his house at the last minute, and go whirling up the avenue with coat-tails flying and a slouch hat jammed close over his one eye, dash into the lecture-room, drop into his chair, begin "Meine Herren" before his notes were ready, ask two questions of interpretation, and then, with a grunt (generally of disapproval), fling himself back and begin to talk, answering his own questions, disputing his own previous interpretations with as much vigor as he did those of others, and genially spending an hour on a single line of text. This was his daily routine till Saturday afternoon, which he gave up to his family and to a frolic. In summer especially he dearly loved an excursion, and would tramp about in the woods for hours, followed by a line of colleagues and students and his own children, leading the march, the singing, and the drinking, till evening brought him back to his study. Though a ferocious antagonist, he was very chivalrous in his way, and, in the presence of his students, always spoke with the greatest respect of those he so bitterly assailed, as if to say, "Ye are not yet of the initiate, and all work is good when done for Sanskrit." On one occasion a presumptuous student asked him about Haug, that Sanskrit Keats whose life was snuffed out by one of Weber's extinguishing critiques. The old man stared for a moment, and then lifted his hat; "Ein ausgezeichneter Gelehrte," was his sole reply.

While it is true that Weber did nothing to popularize the study of Sanskrit, for even his 'History of Literature' is scarcely readable for one not a Sanskrit scholar, and for that reason won no popular applause, his record as a scientific writer places him on a lasting eminence. His work was essentially that of an investigator. He hewed out blocks for others to chip at and build with, but it was he, too, who found the blocks. Owing partly to his political principles, and partly to the fact that his work appealed to few, he was not honored at court, and on state occasions could show only one medal. Yet there were not many of the more decorated scholars in his company who could claim to have done work half so great as his, either in extent or in importance. But it is the lot of Orientalists to be perforce content with the medal of a good conscience and their colleagues' approval.

THE "IPHIGENEIA" IN ATHENS.

ATHENS, November 15, 1901.

The opportunity of seeing a classic play is no longer rare at Athens. In 1896 was called into existence a Society whose sole aim is to rehabilitate the ancient drama and to render it familiar to the Athenians of to-day. The founders of the Society are Professors Mistriotes and Antoniades. Dr. Mark Sigalas, the only teacher of elocution in all Greece, trains the amateur actors. These amateurs are University students mostly. Miss Apostolou,

who for the last three years has taken part, is a graduate of the Arsakeion, a girls' academy. After having appeared on former occasions as *Elektra* and as *Iokaste*, she now represents the priestly heroine in Euripides's Tauric "Iphigeneia," the play which the Society has selected for this year. Three performances have already been given, and three more are arranged for. The last of these will take place in springtime, so as to profit by the presence of the tourists who always visit Athens at that season. The following notes and reflections were occasioned by the performances of November 9 and 14.

If the reasons for reproducing an ancient Greek play be purely and exclusively antiquarian, then much can be said against the performances given at Athens. Advocates of strict antiquarian accuracy contend that a modern reproduction of such a play should be, as far as possible, merely a repetition of the original performance, with all its conventional setting, and even with the imperfections of the stage and drama of those days. From an artistic point of view, such imitative performances might be quite absurd. Moreover, they are beyond the present resources and desires of Mistriotes and his philo-classic associates. The Society, either intentionally or by happy fate, pursues a method which shows that its ideal of a perfect representation of an old play would be such as is best consistent with the play itself considered as a production of literary art. According to this view, it is not necessary to introduce cothurns and masks so as to conform to the stage customs of the days of Euripides, but it is absolutely necessary to represent the characters of the drama in a manner as true as possible to their office and actions as presented in the text. It would be better to dress *Iphigeneia* and the other personages in accordance with the practice of the Mycenæan age than to drape them in robes similar to those which they wore when this play was first produced. In other words, the Society, in reproducing these classic dramas, follows the rules laid down for the presentation of any other drama. But their success in detail is not as praiseworthy as is their unconscious principle.

For an antiquarian representation, a theatre built in conformity with Dörpfeld's doctrine of theatrical structures would be most suitable; and Greeks who sigh for such representations should hope for the generosity of some rich benefactor furnishing the necessary funds for the restoration of the ruined theatre of Dionysus on the south slope of the Acropolis. But, for artistic representations, the ordinary modern theatres of to-day are not unsuitable, seeing that by richer scenery and more perfect machinery the setting can be made much more correct and more attractive, to us at least, than was possible in the days of Euripides. It should not, however, be demanded that the setting be entirely consistent with the text and with historic accuracy. There must always be more or less of a compromise between the requirements of the drama and of actual truth.

It is on the ordinary stage of the Demotic theatre here that the "Iphigeneia" is being performed. Only one scene is required, for the entire action takes place before the temple of Artemis on the shore of the Euxine. This temple, which occupies the rear corner of the right side of the stage, is a Doric structure of late pattern, in no way recalling the Mycenæan period of architecture. The spaces between the triglyphs were left open so as to account for Orestes's remark that Pylades and he might stealthily enter the temple through these window-like apertures. Close to the temple is a blood-besprinkled altar, where the human victims used to be sacrificed to Artemis. Back of the temple are cliffs leading down to the sea.

From the beginning to the end of the play the actors enunciated their lines in a violent, grandiose style, not easily avoided in a language in which emphasis and tone are less necessary than in uninflected languages, and in which the value of each word is apt to be sufficiently evident simply from its position in the sentence. The actor who speaks Greek lines, not being obliged, by certain conventional colorings, to make the meaning clear and to show the grammatical construction of the words, is entirely free to use or misuse his voice in intoning or almost chanting his phrases, as Italian orators often do, or in pompous declamation. Correct elocution, when it is question of a Greek speaking to Greeks, is quite different from what this same high art is when applied to the English language. Unfortunately, the modern Greeks have no practical way of enunciating with accuracy the mellifluous metres of the ancient verses. They cannot adopt our system of indicating the poetic feet by using accents for that purpose, because, in order not to make a hopeless jumble of their language, they have to allow the accents to remain undisturbed on the accented syllables, regardless of the metre; and to indicate the poetic measures solely by the proper observance of long and short syllables is practically even more impossible to a Greek than it is to us. It may be that the Greeks are logical enough in sacrificing metre to accent, but their logic is not apparent at a glance to foreigners.

In order to render the choric odes properly, the Society annually offers a small monetary reward and heaps of verbal honors to the composer of the most suitable music for them. The condition imposed upon contestants is that they respect the ancient prosody, and that their compositions be either original or adaptations of the melodies of the traditional songs of the modern Greek people. The music which won the prize for the choric songs of the "Iphigeneia" was written by a native of Constantinople, Dr. Pachtikos. He has travelled much through Greek countries, collecting remnants of folk songs, and declares that this popular music has preserved the ancient scales, and that by studying it we may greatly improve our knowledge of the ancient modes. It was on these native melodies and on the canons of Byzantine church-song that he based his music for the "Iphigeneia." He arranged it for three sets of voices, asserting that, even if harmony was unknown to the ancient composers, it ought nevertheless to be now admitted into the music of these odes. But the rules of harmony which he applies are those of Byzantine music, which are not precisely at one with those known and accepted in ordinary European musical science.

The singing was performed by a chorus of girls from the Arsakeion Academy. They had been trained to sing their parts with sufficient accuracy; but the grand spectacular movements, the entrance march, the steps and evolutions and gestures which were so closely in harmony with the voice in the execution of such odes, and which assisted so powerfully in showing the rhythm of verses and stanzas, were all missing. Likewise, the music did not emphasize the metre strongly enough. It is not impossible to forgive the loss of the trimetric swing in the recited iambic lines of the dialogue, but the listener is sorry to witness any fault in the musical time of the choric systems. It was by hearing these odes that the ancient Greeks learned their intricate rhythm, and the audiences of Euripides—just as clumsy as we, were they to try to learn these lines correctly by reading them in a book—had the easy pleasure of becoming acquainted with them by hearing them sung. Those of us who happen to go to hear a Greek play always expect the same easy pleasure; but such expectation is usually, here in Greece, doomed to at least partial disappointment.

It has been my fortune to see the *deus ex machina* in several plays, but perhaps never with such freedom from absurdity and with such pleasing effect as in the closing scene of these performances, in which one of the Arsakid students enacted the part of *Athena*. She was quite a little goddess, however, reminding one of the noted Barbakeian statuette rather than of one of the colossal deities which an old master such as Pheidias would present. Her divinity was pretty rather than sublime, but the presence of divinity of any kind is something soothing, and on this occasion the spectators were delighted.

DANIEL QUINN.

THE WIFE OF JUNOT.—I.

PARIS, November 20, 1901.

M. Joseph Turquan puts forth a sequel to the series of volumes he has already published on the ladies of the period of the First Empire. 'Générale Bonaparte,' 'Empress Josephine,' 'Napoleon's Sisters,' 'Queen Hortense,' 'Citoyenne Tallien,' 'Stéphanie de Beauharnais' are the titles of his preceding volumes. He now gives us the history of the wife of General Junot, the Duchess d'Abrantès, from, he says, her *journal intime*, her letters and inedited papers. Madame d'Abrantès herself published, at the end of her life, voluminous Memoirs, which made a great noise at the time, and which are still read. They can hardly be ranked among the historical documents of the time of the Empire, for they contain many errors, and are not inspired, in many parts, by a pure love of truth. They can be consulted only with care, but they throw a vivid light on many historical characters; they read in some places like an amusing novel, in others like a curious psychological study. M. Aubert, the grandson of the Duchess d'Abrantès, placed, we are informed, at the disposal of M. Turquan all the documents he possessed relating to his grandmother. The Viscount de Spœlberch de Lovenjoul (who has an immense collection of manuscripts on our time, chiefly of authors belonging to the Romantic school) authorized M. Turquan to publish the fragments which he possesses of a manuscript of the Duchess, which he entitles "journal intime."

M. Turquan owes also to M. de Lovenjoul some letters from Madame d'Abrantès to Balzac, who was her great friend. The "journal intime" gives the details of Junot's liaison with the Grand Duchess of Berg, a sister of Napoleon, and of Madame Junot's liaison with Metternich, the Austrian Ambassador; it is, so to speak, a double confession. M. Turquan defends himself against the imputation of revealing indiscreetly all he found in this "journal intime." All that concerns the Duchess d'Abrantès, he says, belongs to history; and her reputation cannot suffer much, after all that has been said about her in the memoirs of the time and in the 'Mémorial de St.-Hélène."

Laura de Permon was born on the 6th of November, 1784, at Montpellier. Her father was a contractor for the French army during the American war; he was a "receveur de finance," and married a lady belonging to a Greek family established in Corsica. Mme. de Permon was said to descend from the illustrious family of Comnenus. M. de Permon was on the point of buying the office of "fermier-général" when the Revolution put an end to his project. He was fortunate enough to pass unperceived through the days of the Terror. After the 9th Thermidor, Mme. de Permon reopened a salon, and surrounded herself with those of her friends who had not emigrated, and with her Corsican friends—among them the young Gen. Bonaparte and Saliceti, deputy from Bastia. The young Laura de Permon, very handsome, like her mother, became acquainted with Bonaparte, who often came, after he had become the hero of the 13th Vendémiaire, accompanied by Junot, one of his aides-de-camp. The Duchess d'Abrantès wrote afterwards that Bonaparte wished to marry her mother, because she was a Comnenus, in the hope that this name would help him in the great plans he was forming for the East. Mme. de Permon had become a widow. Her husband lost all his fortune in the Revolution, and she was not at all inclined to marry a general who was extremely poor at the time, and whom she had been accustomed to consider as her inferior in a social point of view. There seems, accordingly, to have been an estrangement after this period between Mme. de Permon and Bonaparte, which lasted some time.

Madame de Permon went, with her daughter Laura, to the great banquet given by Talleyrand to Gen. Bonaparte on his return from Italy. Bonaparte shook hands with her and complimented her on her daughter. After the 18th Brumaire, Bonaparte rose to the highest place in France, and became the arbiter of her destinies. Laura de Permon felt much admiration for him, and when Gen. Junot, one of his aides, made her an offer of marriage, she was delighted at the idea of entering the Court of the First Consul, the momentary idol of France. Junot had accompanied Bonaparte to Italy and Egypt; he had been a prisoner in England for a little while in 1800, but had been exchanged and was Military Governor of Paris. He was fanatically devoted to Bonaparte, who wished him to take a wife to "make himself older by ten years," and to give great receptions, since these receptions given by the first dignitaries of the Republic were a part of his programme. Junot was young, fond of pleasure, handsome, but without distinction. Mlle. de Permon was only sixteen years old. She modestly says of herself at that age: "I was not at all handsome; I may afterwards have grown not disagreeable, but I then offered only the aspect of a pale girl, suffering, very dark, and with an habitually sad expression of physiognomy." Madame de Permon insisted upon having a religious marriage in addition to the civil marriage. Junot objected at first, but Bonaparte decided him to accept this condition, if the Permon family would have it, but to consent to a religious ceremony only at night. "There was as yet," says M. Turquan, "no question of the Concordat, and, if the First Consul was thinking of it, he did not find that times were ripe for religious liberty." Bonaparte gave to Laura de Permon a *dot* of 100,000 francs, and 40,000 francs for what is called the *corbeille* (jewels, clothes, etc.).

Madame Junot became a member of the Consular Court and a frequent inmate of Malmaison. The First Consul, we are told, was at times a little too attentive to her; but she would not satisfy his caprice, and to Bonaparte's resentment she partly attributed the disgrace into which Junot afterwards fell. Junot was a very unfaithful husband. We must never forget, when we read the history of the Empire, that the comrades of Napoleon—even those who became Marshals and Kings—were uneducated men. They personified the class of soldiers to be found in every army, for whom personal bravery constitutes the only ideal. Bonaparte himself appears at times, even after he has become the arbiter of Europe, the successor of the Cæsars, as one of those heroes who pride themselves on a certain sort of coarseness and vulgarity. Junot was essentially the type of the brave soldiers who abounded in the armies of the Revolution and of the Empire. Madame Junot suffered at first from his infidelities, but she soon constructed a philosophy of life suited to her circumstances. After the coronation of the Emperor, Junot was sent as Ambassador to Portugal, which was for him almost an exile. He was allowed to leave Portugal when Napoleon began a new campaign, and he arrived at Austerlitz just in time to perform his service as aide-de-camp. Madame Junot was soon afterwards appointed lady-in-waiting to Madame Letitia, the mother of Napoleon. Junot was again appointed Governor of Paris, in July, 1806. The Grand Duchess of Berg, Napoleon's sister, had become Junot's mistress, and M. Turquan gives us all the details of their liaison. Madame Junot was courted by Metternich. Some of the incidents of these liaisons are almost incredible. They were, however, such as they are, related at length in the "journal intime" (which the Duchess d'Abrantès afterwards gave to Balzac, and which was found among his papers bought by M. de Lovenjoul).

Napoleon was warned in Poland of the relations which had been formed between the Grand Duchess of Berg and Junot. On his return, he received Junot very coldly and reproached him. "The General replied that if Marshal Murat felt offended, he was ready to meet him in a duel. 'My hôtel,' he said, 'is near the Élysée' [where Murat and his wife then lived]. 'Yes, yes,' said the Emperor, 'much too near'—and he forbade him to fight with Murat." Napoleon took from Junot the post of Governor of Paris and sent him to the south of France, to take command of a corps d'armée. Madame Junot remained alone; she spent most of her time at her country house in Le Raincy, and Metternich took a house at Boulogne, near Le Raincy. She had almost ceased to receive news of her husband, who had gone from the south of France to Portugal, and there lost the battle of Vimeira against the English army, immediately after which he showed the first signs of the cerebral malady of which he was to become a victim. All the details of that campaign are to be found in the curious Memoirs of General Thiébault, who was in Portugal at the time Junot signed, on August 30, 1808, with the English Commander the famous convention of Cintra, specifying the evacuation of Portugal by the French army; which was to be taken back to France by the English fleet.

Meanwhile, Madame Junot continued to live in Paris. It was through Metternich that she had the news of the Convention of Cintra. "As soon as I heard of it," she says, "I asked for an audience of the Emperor. He was at Saint-Cloud, on his return from Bayonne. 'How did you obtain this news?' said he, very dryly. I made no answer. 'I guess I know,' said he ironically. 'Well, Junot may take this as he likes; I wash my hands of it.' " In the 'Mémorial de St.-Hélène' it is said that Napoleon added much advice to the Duchess d'Abrantès about her expenditures and her intimate relations with a foreigner. "She got angry," said the Emperor, "and I was treated by her like a little boy *(un petit garçon)*; all that was left to me was to send her away *(l'envoyer promener)* and to abandon her to herself."

Correspondence.

CONTINENTAL EXPANSION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Continental or Colonial? That is the question which is forced upon the American people by occurrences that they did not initiate. The authority of the Tsar of Russia extends over territory larger than that of the United States and Canada combined, and is entirely continental. The area of Russia has supplied abundant room for expansion, but she has always been alert to extend her bounds to include adjacent regions rather than to acquire detached dominions. She has even proved ready to haul down her flag from lands she once possessed, apparently because those lands were not adjacent; ceding Alaska and the Aleutian Islands to the United States in 1867, and the Kurile Islands to Japan in 1874.

By the policy of European nations, Russia has been excluded from such seaports as are open to navigation at all seasons. The wide extent of her land frontier has compelled the maintenance of a great army, but she has had no need of great naval forces for either offence or defence. The position of Russia would seem and has thus far proved to be safe against foreign attack. So Napoleon found it at the height of his power; and so it was when Great Britain, France, Turkey, and Italy were allied against her. There are no detached colonies or fortresses to be protected, and

in time of war Russia has always the benefit of interior lines to meet attack. Year by year she has extended her frontiers, including and affiliating neighboring populations in Europe and Asia, and spreading her own people over the original and acquired territory.

The power of England depends upon the supremacy of her navy, as she is open to assault in every quarter of the world, while Russia is really impregnable. Until within the last few years America was equally impregnable. There was no place within our bounds at which it was not easy to assemble a force greater than any nation—perhaps all nations—could bring against us. There was not a city, nor even a coaling station to defend, beyond the seas. A navy less powerful than that of France was sufficient for defence or for offensive defence. An army inconsiderable in numbers sufficed to maintain the knowledge of progress in the arts of war, and we had millions of men for service in time of need. How is it now? If we are assailed in Hawaii or Samoa, we have no advantage of position over Great Britain or Japan, and to hold the Philippines we must keep there a standing army larger than is needed for home defence.

Our destiny is at some, perhaps not remote, time to absorb all of the continent north of us. Keeping closely to our continental position, this could be easy of accomplishment, even if opposed by the whole power of Great Britain. The seacoast States could defend themselves while the interior States were overrunning Canada; but if the time should come when Great Britain was not able to maintain all of its possessions, the annexation of Canada could be made peacefully. It would be no more difficult to defend the United States including Canada than excluding that Dominion, and expansion over an adjoining region peopled by our kinsfolk ought not to be hampered by the necessity of defending the isles of the Pacific Ocean. P. J.

December 2, 1901.

ANTI-ENGLISH FEELING IN GERMANY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The current outbreak of anti-English feeling in Germany is not wholly surprising to one who has been observing public sentiment in recent months. While Chamberlain's Edinburgh speech is the ostensible cause of the commotion, it is, in fact, hardly more than the convenient occasion for the open expression of the feeling prevailing throughout Germany. In ordinary conditions such a storm of protest following upon such a speech would seem ridiculous. As matters stand, it is far from ridiculous, for the comforting belief, which many in England are disposed to hold, that the movement is largely manufactured by the newspapers and certain selfish political interests, and is not the result of genuine public sentiment, is wide of the mark.

The newspapers, with a few notable exceptions, have, of course, done their part to increase the popular dislike of England's attitude and methods in the Boer war. For months past they have shown a purpose to belittle or discredit reports of English success and to magnify disasters to the English arms. In depicting English brutality they have spread on the colors lavishly. By the use of all the methods so familiar to us at home they have helped, to the extent of their ability, to make the nation believe that England is politically and morally decadent, that her military power has already vanished, and that her commercial prestige is waning.

Whoever concludes, however, that the present outbreak is only a wordy war of the press, misjudges the real sentiments of Germans of all classes very seriously. For months past the utterances of the newspapers have been perhaps milder than the tone of private conversation. Most Germans seem to have come to the settled conviction that the conduct of the war shows the decline of English power. They are equally convinced that the charges of inhuman brutality are true, and that England is guilty of cruelties which should put a savage to shame. When they speak of Tommy Atkins as "scum," they are using one of their milder epithets for the English soldier.

At least three elements go to make up this pretty unanimous public opinion. The first is the general dislike of the Englishman which the rest of the Continent shares, and which is more or less evident always. However vulgar and unreasoning it may be, it is nevertheless a factor which must be considered in all times of national excitement. In the second place, Germany's competition with England for the business of the world evokes a sense of rivalry which is keen and often bitter. Perhaps the present financial crisis helps increase the intensity of this feeling. The third element is a very real and genuine sympathy for the Boers, and the belief that England is engaged in an unjustifiable war against them. Leaving all speculation about causes aside, it seems pretty clear that the average German wants to believe that England is treating the Boer with inhuman cruelty, that the English soldier is a debased specimen of humanity, and that England's power and greatness are things of the past. Chamberlain's speech, with its allusion to the German soldier in 1870-71, brought the pent-up feeling to explosive utterance. The students at Greifswald were among the first to meet and protest publicly. Since then the movement has spread rapidly over Germany, and fiery resolutions have been voted in numerous gatherings.

So far the end is not in sight, although a few newspapers, not all of them semi-official, have tried of late to calm the excited public opinion. The present attitude of the English press increases, rather than lessens, the storm. What the outcome will be is uncertain; but, in view of the possibly serious results of such increasing of international enmity, it may be hoped that the whole demonstration is in reality, what it now seems to be, an attack of national hysterics. W. R.

Berlin, November 27, 1901.

Notes.

Readers of the London *Athenæum* will recall Mrs. Humphry Ward's communication to that paper, above two years ago, respecting the proposed statue to Amiel in one of the squares of Geneva. Admirers of that writer's 'Journal Intime,' in this country, may be glad to know that there is still an opportunity to contribute towards the memorial. Subscriptions should be sent to Prof. F. F. Roget, President of the Amiel Committee, at the University of Geneva. About half the thousand pounds desired has, we understand, been raised.

John Lane will shortly publish 'Esoteric Christianity, or the Lesser Mysteries,' by the late Annie Besant; and 'Ancient Royal Palaces in and near London,' by Thomas R. Way, with 24 full-page lithographs, in a limited edition of 100 copies.

Ginn & Co. have almost ready 'Nature Study and Life,' by Prof. Clifton F. Hodge of Clark University.

Two years ago we welcomed the late Grant Allen's edition of Gilbert White's 'Natural History of Selborne' (John Lane) in perhaps the most beautiful form this classic has yet been clothed in. The publishers have now wisely brought it out less expensively, but from the same plates, with all the illustrations; and the result is still a beautiful—only not a luxurious—book, at a price within reach of anybody.

There is nothing that may not fall within the province of Dent's handy books, and hence the "Temple Bible" does not surprise (Philadelphia: Lippincott). Indeed, one wonders that such an issue of the Bible was not thought of sooner. 'Genesis' is before us, and shows that, for a prime merit, the text will be paragraphed rationally; the poetry will also be indicated by the type and form of setting. Each book will have an historical introduction. At the end will be gathered a certain amount of notes, maps, and other matter, besides a list of "Biblical references in English literature." There should be a wide demand for this edition. Of the Introduction to Genesis we will say no more than it makes no allusion to the parti-colored divisions of the book by which criticism has displayed a mingling and confusion of sources, but sees only "the stamp of individual authorship" and a conscious shaping of material.

The indispensable *Minerva*, the learned world's annual (Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner), resorts in its eleventh volume to a novel device of inserted folios that collectively swell the size of the book by fully three "signatures," yet leave the total pagination identical with that of last year's volume. The excuse for this is the saving in overhauling the index; the inconvenience, that the intercalation of A-folios causes odd and even pages to change places constantly. But one must have compassion for the index-maker, to whom the users of *Minerva* owe so much. Among the institutions in this country now first reported in *Minerva*, as to constitution, personnel, etc., are the Chicago School of Dentistry, the Philadelphia Dental College, the Carnegie Institute of Pittsburgh, the St. Louis College of Pharmacy, the Public Libraries of Bangor, Salem, and Dayton, the New Hampshire State Library, the Forbes Library of Northampton, the Peck Library of Norwich, together with art and other museums and certain learned bodies—in all, twenty-three, if we count aright. The frontispiece portrait is of Prof. Oscar Montelius of the Swedish Academy of Fine Arts, a fine type of "Gelehrter," physiognomically speaking.

From the same New York house we re-

ceive Part I. of the newest Stieler's Hand-Atlas, the ninth link in the endless chain of revisions with which the house of Perthes in Gotha honors itself by maintaining this great work up to date. There will be a hundred sheet maps, beyond all precedent, of which the United States are allotted seven, in company with its sister giant, Russia, and the whole continent of South America. Altogether, the New World fills nineteen sheets. What is novel is the printing of the copper plates in two impressions, one orographic, by which hand coloring is dispensed with and the cost of the atlas enabled to be reduced by nearly one-half—$12.50 in advance. This is truly a great boon, not to scholars alone, but to the public at large. The initial instalment contains maps of the Eastern Alps—from Munich to Graz, Trieste, Venice, Padua and Verona; and of China and Korea. The new mode of coloring has secured a decided gain in legibility.

The ninth number of Miss Hurll's "Riverside Art Series" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is devoted to 'Landseer,' and does not differ in any essential particular from the earlier volumes of this useful little publication. It is a pity that the art of Landseer is not of a higher quality, but his subjects will appeal strongly to the juvenile audience addressed by Miss Hurll.

"With embellishments by E. H. Blashfield"—that classical phrase would have been an exact description of Mr. Blashfield's contribution to the volume of comedies by his wife entitled 'Masques of Cupid.' For illustrations, in any strict sense, the drawings are not. They are graceful decorative fancies, drawn in pencil or crayon and reproduced in half-tone, and, as they are uniformly on separate pages, their delicate grayness has to bear no direct contrast with typography. Mrs. Blashfield's comedies are four in number, two being modern in subject (one French and one American); one, taken by permission from Stevenson's tale of 'The Sire de Malétroit's Door,' being mediæval; and one ancient Greek. All are in one act save "The Honor of the Créquy," which has two. The pieces are written in a cultivated style, with some feeling and a pleasant ripple of wit, and, except for the scenic demands, might make good material for the exercise of amateur theatrical talent. The Messrs. Scribner have provided the best of paper and print and an attractive binding, and the total result should prove most acceptable as a holiday gift-book.

Sampson Low and Dutton & Co. publish 'Dutch Painters of the XIXth Century,' edited by Max Rooses, and translated by F. Knowles, in a handsome quarto volume profusely illustrated with etchings, photogravures, and process cuts. Of the dozen artists dealt with, Matthys Maris is the only one whose reputation has been much extended in this country; and as, for the most part, the qualities of modern Dutch painting are lost by translation into black and white, it is not easy to determine what effect the present publication may have. Modern Dutch painting is preëminently the art of "tone" rather than of composition or form or even representation; and tone is practically incapable of reproduction. In the present volume the illustrative quality of the work of Alexander Hugo Bakker Korff, with his delicately humorous types of ancient maiden ladies, shows to the best advantage; while John Van Essen, with his animals, comes off second best. The text, by various Dutch writers, seems to be of a touch-and-go, journalistic order.

Fittingly intended to be the first of the "Rulers of India Series," fortunately delayed till the last, the volume on Asoka, by Vincent A. Smith (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde), incorporates the most recent discoveries in regard to the Emperor and his time. The plan of the book necessitates an *ex-cathedra* dogmatism, but, granting the solemn jest implied in a non-specialist deciding between the opposing views of specialists, the general, or ignorant, reader will find in 'Asoka, the Buddhist Emperor of India,' an excellent summary of what is known in regard to the great Maurya, whose coronation and death are here given as B. C. 269 and 232, respectively, as against the preferred dates in Miss Duff's 'Chronology' (259 and 222), of a year ago. Mr. Smith generally follows Senart and rejects Ceylonese chronology prior to 160 B. C. Asoka ascended the throne, according to the system of reckoning adopted by Senart, in 273 (or a year later, according to Mr. Smith), his coronation taking place just five years before the outbreak of the first Punic war.

It is not easy to find a reason for the existence of Mr. Johnstone's little book, 'Muhammad and his Power,' except the fact that such an element was needed in Messrs. T. & T. Clark's series, "The World's Epoch Makers" (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons). Yet Mr. Johnstone has performed his task brightly and efficiently. He has used his sources—European all, apparently—with due care. What handicaps him most is a theory about Anti-Christ, which is both theologically unsound and morally regrettable. He deals, also, rather much in points of exclamation, which have reacted on his style. But there can be little doubt that his estimate of Muhammad is generally fair, and his book, for its size and possibilities, is a really solid piece of work.

The invalid in Egypt may find a certain sleepy satisfaction in Mr. E. A. Reynolds-Ball's 'Cairo of Yesterday and To-day' (Boston: Dana Estes & Co.). Its value for others will probably lie in giving a number of references to more thorough books. In itself it is a chatty but irritating skimming over of all the possible fields of interest in Cairo and Egypt. It is said to be illustrated; the illustrations are three in number.

'The Young Folks' Cyclopædia of Literature and Art,' by John Denison Champlin (Holt), is in line with this well-known compiler's collections of 'Persons and Places,' 'Common Things,' and 'Games and Sports.' The notices are necessarily brief; perhaps the longest is (properly enough) on the 'Twelve Labors of Heracles.' There is no fixed standard to determine admission to a book of reference, but few poems, plays, novels, pictures, statues, or fictitious characters that children—or most of their parents—of our day are likely to inquire about will be missed here, unless their fame is very recent. 'The Crisis' and 'Eben Holden' are absent, but not 'Janice Meredith' and 'To Have and To Hold.' Some may think that too many of the small fry of letters and legend have been preserved, but things odd and out-of-the-way are not therefore valueless, and, in a case of this kind, excess is better than defect. Mr. Champlin's judgment seems usually sound, and his experience might guarantee accuracy. Hence it is surprising to come upon a statement (p. 127) that Gibbon's 'Decline and Fall' "includes the period from the time of Trajan (A. D. 52-117)," whereas Gibbon gives Trajan and Hadrian a paragraph each, and the Antonines four pages; after this and previous introductory matter, the history proper begins with Commodus. The numerous illustrations represent notable paintings, statues, or buildings. The book will be welcome and useful; but why should it exclude many hymns that are more familiar to the young than most of the secular songs here cited?

Col. Nicholas Smith's 'Hymns Historically Famous' (Chicago: Advance Co.) enters into competition neither with Mr. Julian's 'Dictionary of Hymnology' nor with those pioneer books which, ranging in merit or demerit all the way from Belcher's 'Historical Sketches of Hymns' (1859) to Josiah Miller's 'Singers and Songs of the Church' (1869), aimed to mention all writers of such sacred lyrics as were supposed to be in general English use. Besides three chapters about laymen, American women, and the 'Gospel Songs,' Mr. Smith devotes twenty-seven to as many hymns "which are noted for the history they have made." Most of these are widely popular, but one at least (on p. 211) is familiar only in certain quarters, and at least two others have declined from the first rank, if they ever held it. Why should "Blest Be the Tie that Binds" be counted "among the world's best hymns;" and who, except lovers of the commonplace, ever put it there? This book, of course, is "popular" rather than critical, or it would not call Dr. Watts "the founder of our Christian hymnology." He was, if one likes, "the father of English hymnody," which is another affair; but the Germans, not to mention Greeks, Latins, and some others, had been singing long before, and "our Christian hymnology" draws on all these sources. Since its catholic character is here admitted and welcomed, why should so eminent a man as W. J. Fox be ignored as maker of the collection to which "Nearer, My God, to Thee" was contributed? Mr. Smith comes not uninstructed to his task; yet St. Stephen the Sabaite had little part in "Art Thou Weary?" Some of the portraits (as the hideous one of H. F. Lyte) are quaint; those of Toplady and Ray Palmer should change expressions to fit their characters.

Mr. Jacob A. Riis has won fame as a reformer and philanthropist. His labors have borne no small fruit in cleansing New York, and his reports of slum experiences have reached an audience far beyond the city. His later magazine articles are now gathered in an autobiography of frankness so singular as at once to invite and disarm criticism. The sumptuous get-up of this book, 'The Making of an American' (Macmillan), contrasts oddly with the democratic plainness of the text. Pen and pencil here reveal matters over which a veil is usually cast; but if the author has little regard for personal dignity or domestic privacy, the thorough goodness of the man, his naïve sincerity, his forceful disinterestedness, command no less respect than his public services. He has no pretences and no reserves; in his view, apparently, "each man's life is all men's lesson,"

and his own life is all of a piece. His wife and children are partners in his work; his early struggles and reverses, the difficulties that came of his headlong impulsiveness in youth, his doleful years as a day-laborer and hungry tramp —all these are as much part and parcel of the record as his intimacy with Mr. Roosevelt and the consideration he won from policemen and politicians. Once he fainted from starvation; twice, at least, he was in mortal danger from thugs; always he was in the thick of the fight; and he "would not have missed being in it all for anything." The title is no misnomer; this is a typical American, though born in Denmark—never idle, never discouraged, resourceful, unconquerable. But his hustling was not of the vulgar sort; he "never cared to be rich," and blushes still to remember that he once held an office for three months. Here are some good anecdotes, and hints of many more. Mr. Riis saw Grant, after his second term, meekly submitting to be clubbed and ordered out of the fire-lines by a policeman. He tells of a Danish woman who could be friends with a Jewess on earth, but as to *"our* heaven," she must be excused. But the best thing in the book is the artless picture of a strong and generous nature bringing forth fruit after its kind.

Mr. Fred Mather, in 'My Angling Friends': Being a Second Series of Sketches of 'Men I have Fished With' (*Forest and Stream* Publishing Co.), gives incidentally a good deal of instruction in nature and natural history, and his narratives are themselves interesting—perhaps those concerning the Grand Duke Alexis and the old Michigan guide, Len Jewell, the most so. Mr. Mather met the Duke at a little place on Currituck Sound, where the latter had gone, under the name of Mr. Brown, for some fishing and shooting, and Mr. Mather found him simple, agreeable, and possessed of the elements of a sportsman. There is an amusing sketch of the well-known E. Z. C. Judson ("Ned Buntline"); and the late President Arthur, Amos J. Cummings, and others less known to fame are treated from the angling standpoint.

The "Handbooks of Practical Gardening" edited by Harry Roberts (John Lane) continue to appear in rapid succession. Volume iii., by H. W. Ward, for twenty-five years head gardener at Longford Castle, is entitled 'The Book of the Grape.' It discusses grape culture under the conditions met with on English estates. The chapters dealing with the construction of the vinery, the making of the border, and methods of handling the individual clusters indicate the author's standpoint. To those interested in fancy-grape growing under cover the book will be useful. Its value to the practical American grape-grower is doubtful. Volume iv., 'The Book of Old-Fashioned Flowers,' is written by Harry Roberts, editor of the series. Readers of 'The Chronicle of a Cornish Garden' will recall his pleasing style, which is equally in evidence in the volume at hand. Here we have less in the way of specific direction than is found in the other handbooks, although practical suggestions abound. The nature of the subject allows the author to indulge in many charming observations on his favorites. The smaller flower-garden of the cottager furnishes his main theme. He has made a useful, attractive, and thoroughly readable little book.

'Civics for New York State,' by Charles De Forest Hoxie of the New York bar (The American Book Co.), is the title of a small volume designed for teachers. The book follows closely the plan laid down by the New York State Board of Regents, with a view to meeting their requirements for examination. It is virtually a hand-book of Constitutional Law, Government and History, of an elementary sort, and should be of use in teaching. The mass of information it contains is presented in a form which makes assistance in going through it convenient, though perhaps not necessary. The plan adopted of combining concrete illustrations of the working of the ordinary civic machinery together with a general view strikes us as good, and capable of further development. Many references for additional reading are given. For the purpose intended the book should prove a valuable help.

An educational novelty is an 'Introduction to the Study of Commerce,' by Frederick R. Clow (Silver, Burdett & Co.). It is intended to aid teachers to employ to the best advantage the time now added to the curricula of secondary schools for the study of economics. The question raised by such a book is whether it is really more than a medley of political economy, arithmetic, and statistics. The design, of course, is to make economics a satisfactory school study, and the author thinks that by approaching the subject in this elementary way a better foundation can be laid than by devoting the same time to strict economic theory. An introduction, by Prof. F. W. Taussig of Harvard, states his conclusion as to the book to be that, "rightly used, it may be expected to prove stimulating and profitable."

'Shacklett: The Evolution of a Statesman,' by Walter Barr (D. Appleton & Co.), is a novel of Western life. As the prologue informs us, it is a tale of "pivotal heredity," the hero being "a kind o' cross between a good woman and a devil"—so, at least, one of the less virtuous characters in the narrative remarks. He is also described by the Reverend Mr. Bradbury as "a *fin de siècle* knight, careless of his weapons, and careful only of his armor and the object at the other end of the lists." The style is strenuous, and the English sometimes peculiar, as when the author declares that Shacklett "made an impression" upon some "corporation men" similar to that "euthanasia which comes over an editor when he finds a really new lode in literature." As a picture of Western life, the story will have, for those who derive their ideas of Western life entirely from the newspapers, a kind of *vraisemblance;* but it is not an attractive picture. To the fastidious it will seem extremely raw.

A new attempt at constructing a scheme of popular scientific ethics is to be found in 'Le Battaglie per la Vita,' by Prof. Gustavo Strafforello (Milan: Hoepli). This treatise, while accepting the evolutionary hypothesis, strives to reconcile the rigor of its application with the claims of altruistic morality by insisting that the struggle for existence must be a fair one. The general method reminds one forcibly of 'Self-Help' and all its kin. Among the illustrative examples of worldly success, the author selects Sir Robert Peel, whose reforms are said to have been achieved in spite of the "ammasso di volgarità" of his speeches.

The fact that M. Fierens-Gevaert's little volume, 'La Tristesse Contemporaine' (Paris: Alcan), has passed through three editions, makes it seem probable that the author's hope of "touching a few hesitating souls" has not been altogether vain. The book is serious rather than sad, since the author, though dealing with the leading representatives of modern pessimistic thought, from Leopardi to Nietzsche, does not accept their philosophy and influence as definitive or paramount in determining the moral and intellectual state of contemporary humanity. On account of the sincerity of conviction which pervades the whole essay, it gives one the impression of a personal confession.

An article on "The Significance of Greek Pottery," from the pen of Prof. J. H. Huddilston of the University of Maine, printed in the *Monatsberichte über Kunstwissenschaft und Kunsthandel*, Heft 11 (Munich: H. Helbing), may convince any reader of the importance of Greek vases as a means of study of Greek life in all its phases. The article forms a chapter of a larger work on the subject which will appear ere long in book form, and, we feel assured, will prove of no mean interest to archæologists and to all students of Greek.

Petermann's Mitteilungen, No. 10, opens with an examination by Prof. F. Ratzel of the Kant-Laplace nebular theory in its relation to geography, from which he concludes that it does not satisfactorily solve the problem presented by the earth's surface. The early history of the Pitcairn Islanders is related by Dr. R. A. Hermann in approaching an inquiry as to the light it casts on certain questions, such as the fruitfulness of mixed races, inbreeding, adaptation to natural conditions, and degeneracy. Prof. Langhans contributes a census study, accompanied with maps, of maritime Germany, with especial reference to internal navigation, and including the building and equipment of ships. Further information is also given of the progress of the Koslow expedition in Central Asia.

The iron-ore deposits of New South Wales are described by J. B. Jaquet in the Memoirs of the Geological Survey (Geology No. 2). It appears that the failure of the efforts of half a century ago to establish the iron-smelting industry in that State was not due to defects in the quality of the ore, which was excellent, but to the expense of carriage of coal and limestone and the high price of labor, which so raised the cost of the product that it was unable to compete with imported iron. In the present work only those deposits of iron ore known to exist within easy distance of supplies of coal or the seaboard are described. The iron-ore beds at Coombing Park, near Carcoar, and those near Cadia, on account of extent, quality, and relative proximity to coal and limestone, are far more important than any others examined. Other valuable deposits occur near Rylstone, where masses of brown ore exist in the neighborhood of limestone and coal; at Cliefden, where the ore is found in large pockets in the limestone, and in the Goulburn and Breadalbane districts. There are extensive beds of aluminous iron ore (ferruginous bauxite) in the Wingello and Mossvale districts and near Inverell and Emmaville. It is shown by the estimates of T. A. Coghlan, Government statistician, that there

is sufficient ore in sight in New South Wales to produce all the iron required by the various colonies of Australasia for many years. The volume contains numerous maps and plans and is copiously illustrated.

The current Bulletin of the New York Public Library (vol. v., No. 11) presents a useful check-list of American county and State histories on the shelves of that institution (Lenox Building). Berkshire County in Massachusetts shows seven histories, and three other counties five. In New York, Queens and Westchester have been oftenest chronicled. As a rule, a single county history has sufficed; and as a rule it may be conjectured that the quality of the history is pretty mediocre.

Mr. George Watson Cole, No. 1725 Seventh Avenue, New York, has printed for private distribution 'Bermuda and the *Challenger* Expedition: A Bibliography,' embracing the scientific results of that expedition at and near Bermuda in 1873. This thin pamphlet is designed as a check-list for a more extended bibliography, and corrections and additions are requested.

—In 1878 the Regents of the Smithsonian Institution requested the Secretary to prepare and publish a history of the origin and progress of the foundation. Mr. W. J. Rhees, for many years chief clerk of the Smithsonian, was, under the instructions of Professor Henry, intrusted with this duty. The volume which resulted is now out of print, and, by direction of the present Secretary, Mr. Rhees has prepared a new and enlarged edition, bringing the narrative and documents up to date and prefixing a selection of the documents which passed between the United States and the attorneys in England before the actual reception of Smithson's bequest, from which so many benefits were to proceed. The work is less a narrative than a documentary history, in which may be also found the debates in Congress over the acceptance of the trust fund, and over its use after it was received; and as to what should be done after the fund (invested in bonds of the Southern States afterward defaulted on) had been lost. The gradual growth of confidence in the integrity, wisdom, and purely scientific spirit of its management under the fostering care of Henry and Baird may be easily traced in these documents by those who know how to read between the lines. It seems almost incredible that men of intelligence should have expressed many of the opinions which appear here in black and white. For instance, the late Andrew Johnson of Tennessee argued from his seat in the House of Representatives that the fund should be used to educate indigent youth of the District of Columbia, and even that the United States should not restore the fund wasted through the improvident investments made by its official agent. The present edition comprises two volumes, of which the first is now available and contains 1,044 pages, bringing the matter down to the date of January, 1887. The second volume, which is to appear shortly, will complete the century.

—The ideas commonly entertained by persons who have never inquired into the subject as to the status of the Institution are so generally erroneous that it may be worth while to restate the facts so little understood. The Smithsonian is not a Government institution supported by public funds. It is a Board of Trustees representing the United States, who, with their scientific collaborators, administer the fund left by a private individual for the public benefit. This administration has been so successful that to the same body Congress has seen fit from time to time to intrust other functions in the administration of scientific bureaus of a strictly governmental character, which, unlike the Institution, are supported by Congressional appropriations. Such are the Bureau of Ethnology, the National Museum, the National Zoölogical Park, and the Astrophysical Observatory. The executive head of these organizations is the Secretary of the Board of Regents, assisted by a small Executive Committee of the Board. The Secretary is appointed by the full Board, which comprises a certain number of *ex-officio* members, a proportion of members of the House or Senate, and a number of private individuals of high standing, selected by Congress from time to time, so that there is always a majority of hold-over members in the Board, which meets one or more times a year. The manner in which this organization has developed is clearly shown in the work of Mr. Rhees, which acquires added interest as the history of the most successful, best-known, and most generally appreciated scientific institution in existence, which has carried the name of Smithson and the influence of his bequest to the remotest parts of the earth.

—The unevenness of execution noticeable in Mr. J. L. Onderdonk's 'History of American Verse' (Chicago: McClurg), and the obvious defects of style, would doubtless have been corrected had the author lived to revise his work and superintend its publication. Mr. Onderdonk, who died in 1899, was for a time a journalist in Portland, and later a lawyer in Chicago, and his studies in American verse were made in the midst of the exacting routine of business life. This latter fact speaks well for his sincere delight in poetry, which, indeed, is everywhere patent. His book is well enough fitted out with information, and, except for some dawdling over early trivialities and Puritan absurdities, is not unskilful in its engineering. The chapters trace continuously a certain correspondence between the development of poetry and the phases of national life. Freneau is justly honored; the "pomp and circumstance" of the Hartford wits and the pseudo-culture of the Della Cruscans are well characterized; and the clever worldliness of the "Knickerbocker School" and the cheap sentimentality of the Percivals and Sigourneys get due definition. Among the more elaborate estimates of the greater poets, those of Longfellow, Whittier, and Whitman are particularly sound in substance and style, though the extreme eulogies bestowed on the "Occultation of Orion" and the "Mystic Trumpeter" are certainly misplaced. Lowell's serious verse gets scant justice; his satire is duly lauded. Of occasional misprints, inept phrases, and instances of bad syntax, it is hardly worth while to speak. In style the book at its best never rises above conventional respectability, and when this is missed, a critic should, in fairness, bear in mind the lack of revision.

—The 'New Glimpses of Poe' (M. F. Mansfield & Co.) collected by Prof. James A. Harrison of the University of Virginia are fleeting and slight. Upon controverted points, the memoranda which various gentlemen have provided for the 'Glimpses' throw little new light. There are some photographic facsimiles of college records to prove that Poe was not expelled from the University, and that, on the authority of his own statement, he had never heard of "hotel-keepers playing cards and drinking with students." But no one of late has suspected Poe of the former misfortune; and as to the latter question, it is not of great moment, yet, in view of his well-established misuse of his high imaginative power, the evidence is not convincing. Apart from this, the volume contains no noteworthy information, and no true hints of character, not to be found somewhere in Mr. Woodberry's standard Life. It is a pity that the distinguished reputation which rightfully belongs to Poe should continually be jeoparded by his champions. We fail to see that the present collection fulfils the rather un-Attic promissory sentence which embellishes the Introduction. This may be quoted as a fair specimen of the temper and manner of the work: "The fading fires of the poet's great gray eyes kindle anew in these sympathetic pages, and throw out new and characteristic sparks of grotesquerie and pathos as his early escapades are recounted; and this human opal becomes charged and charged again with malignant or with beautiful fires slyly retreating or unexpectedly shooting forth under the magnet of circumstance."

—Most men in this country who write books on sport belong to one of two classes: (1) those who have knowledge on the subject and lack the power to express it properly; (2) those able, without any real familiarity with sport or nature, to present their mixture of facts and misinformation in a way to attract the general public. Mr. Thomas Martindale, author and illustrator of 'Sport Indeed' (Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.), does not belong to the second class, for he undoubtedly writes from his own experience of the various hunting trips he describes. The best are those on moose hunting, and give very good accounts of the wild life in the forests of Maine and New Brunswick, and the methods for successfully pursuing and killing this noble animal. The rather inflated and disconnected style evident in some of the chapters devoted to other subjects, such as "Cupid in the Wilderness," "A Fire and Water Medley," etc., is absent when the author addresses himself to plain narration of facts. To be sure, he calls a porcupine a hedgehog, as a distinguished writer on sport and natural history calls the male of the black-tail deer a stag—neither hedgehogs nor stags being natives of America. The volume is dedicated to Mr. Martindale's son James. One of the chapters treating of this youth is entitled "A Beardless Sport," and this offensive word is used throughout the book to designate those who shoot, fish, or go to the woods for almost any purpose.

—One of the recent Yale Bicentennial publications is an edition of 'Plutarch's Themistocles and Aristides,' by Prof. Bernadotte Perrin (Charles Scribner's Sons). It may be commended for its scholarship, its literary quality, and for the admirable typography and illustrations, which should

ensnare alike the lover of books and the judicious holiday purchaser. In all these respects it is the right kind of book for the library of the gentleman and scholar, and it is appropriately inscribed to Secretary Hay. The translation is idiomatic, and shows, in many small touches, a conscientious accuracy, following, if anything, too closely the mould of the original sentences, which are not always over-graceful or transparent, and are now and then curiously crabbed. In this matter we believe that Mr. Perrin might have allowed himself the same liberty that Professor Jowett employed with Thucydides, and with better reason. A small speck in the English is the translation of ὡς, in several passages—"*claiming* that the people treated their leaders" like old triremes, etc., a convenient, though doubtful, expedient for following the turn of the original. Doubtless, Mr. Perrin would have plenty to say for himself in this regard, for his introduction has a literary savor as delightful as his analysis of the great biographer's methods is sympathetic, fascinating, and instructive. The special merit of the work consists in this introduction, and in the very full notes by which the editor introduces the reader into Plutarch's workshop, and shows how he mixed his materials to paint his idealized portraits. The time has gone by when the simplest reader of history can take Plutarch, as Madame Roland and her compatriots did, *au pied de la lettre*. Mr. Perrin supplies the sources for inquiry and correction, and traces most instructively the growth of a nimbus of myth about these great names. He shows the process by which there grew up a legendary Themistocles, endowed with supernatural acuteness used for selfish and treasonable purposes; and the manner in which the somewhat prosaic and mediocre Aristides became invested with a slightly artificial halo of virtue. A capital instance of myth-making is the tale that Themistocles committed suicide by drinking bull's blood; the probable origin of this invention Mr. Perrin traces in a very interesting note. Among the illustrations is an ostrakon scratched with the name of Themistocles, and doubtless used against him in 483 B. C. or 472 B. C.; and a didrachm of Magnesia struck under his administration of that city. The apparatus is, in short, a neat compendium of the historical sources of the period which might be recommended to the student bent on research; and this detracts nothing from the charm of the book for the general reader.

—Gen. William Farrar Smith (popularly known as "Baldy" Smith) sends us a pamphlet review of the decision of a board of army officers appointed by the Secretary of War to adjudge between the claims of Gen. Rosecrans, commander of the Army of the Cumberland in October, 1863, and Gen. Smith, Chief Engineer of the army, to the origination of the plan of bridging Brown's Ferry, over the Tennessee River, which, with Hooker's coöperative movement from Bridgeport, raised the siege of Chattanooga by the Confederate Gen. Bragg. The Chickamauga Park Commission had inserted in its Atlas a legend to the effect that the plan was devised by Rosecrans, against which statement Smith made protest, with the result of the appointment of the Board to review the testimony. The Board decided that the legend was historically correct. It would be interesting to discuss at length the history of this series of operations, which had a most exhilarating influence upon the depressed spirits of the Army of the Cumberland, but space will not now permit. It seems to us, however, that Gen. Smith makes reasonably good his right to the credit of the plan, and that the evidence in Rosecrans's behalf is mostly of that after-the-event type which attempts to vindicate so many hurt reputations. Rosecrans wrote in 1885 that the plan was given by him to Gen. Smith. But the indirect contemporary evidence is against this declaration. The late Charles A. Dana, when Assistant Secretary of War, was at Rosecrans's headquarters from the beginning of the siege until that officer was removed from command, and his testimony is that he heard no discussion of any hopeful method of driving Bragg from the south bank of the Tennessee until Smith told him of his idea of seizing the valley of Lookout Creek, close by Chattanooga, by means of a surprise at Brown's Ferry, the only point where such a surprise had any prospect of success. Gens. Grant and Thomas gave the orders to Smith for its execution, and bestowed upon him warm praise for its successful accomplishment. In addition to Dana's positive insistence that no plan was discussed at headquarters, we have first the letters of Grant to the War Department, urging the immediate promotion of Smith on account of his genius and efficiency—qualities which had been displayed under Grant's eye only in the Brown's Ferry action; and, second, the designation of Smith to lead the expedition, for Smith was a staff officer just from the East, with no reputation in the Army of the Cumberland for leading men, and therefore having no claim to be put over the heads of tried field officers except the consideration that he was carrying out his original conception of an operation whose success or failure would vitally affect the fortunes of the army.

MURRAY'S BYRON.

The Works of Lord Byron: A New, Revised, and Enlarged Edition. Poetry. Vol. IV. Edited by Ernest Hartley Coleridge.—Letters and Journals. Vol. VI. Edited by Rowland E. Prothero. London: John Murray; New York: Scribners.

The new Byron is rapidly approaching completion. The sixth volume of the 'Letters and Journals' brings that portion of the enterprise to an end. Of the 'Poetry,' two more volumes remain to be published. Mr. Prothero, the editor of the 'Letters,' has maintained to the very end the high standard which he set for himself when the first volume of the new Byron was published in 1898. Not the least remarkable thing about his work is its steadiness. The annotation is copious, as it ought to be, but it is almost perfectly proportioned. History, literature, topography, social chitchat, the scandalous chronicle—every conceivable variety of material had to be sorted and sifted in these notes and illustrations; and in all departments Mr. Prothero has shown himself equal to his task. He is fully aware of the principle which most scholiasts have never conceived—that a foot-note should be as artistic as a cameo; and he is never in too great a hurry to give the last finish. As accurate as any Dryasdust of them all, he does not forget to be entertaining, and he seems incapable of losing heart or spirit over the most discouraging masses of detail. He never groans, like Carlyle, at the rubbish heaps he is forced to ransack. If, as we are disposed to believe, nobody ever wrote better letters than Byron, surely no one ever made better notes than Mr. Prothero. It was a fortunate moment for the history of modern literature when Mr. Murray secured the services of so accomplished a scholar for this important undertaking.

In our notices of previous volumes we have adverted more than once to the neglect to designate the source from which each letter is derived. It transpired that the omission was deliberate, for, in the preface to volume ii., Mr. Prothero hinted broadly at bookselling reasons which made such designation impolitic. Happily, these reasons appear to be no longer compulsive. The concluding volume of the series furnishes a chronological list of all the letters, with an exact statement of the provenance of each, whether manuscript or printed book. The richness of Mr. Murray's archives and the futility of competition are alike evident. Moore printed 561 letters; Halleck, 635; the present collection includes 1,198. Much of the old material, and nearly all of the new, is printed from the original manuscripts. Thus, almost seventy years after Byron's death, we have for the first time a complete and definitive edition of his letters and prose miscellanies.

The great majority of these letters were dashed off without a thought of their ever being published—and this is emphatically true of the new material. Altogether, they set forth the writer's character with a pitilessness that is the best assurance of fidelity. If we do not know him after reading them, we need never expect to know anybody who is dead and gone. The test is heroic, but Byron stands it well. He exhibits much fallible human nature and a good deal of perversity, but, on the whole, his character improves in the intenser light that is thrown upon it. No foible is concealed, but the picture has many amiable traits. Above all, there is no mystery of iniquity about it. The faults and vices are obvious enough; obvious also is an impish tendency to put the *worst* foot foremost, which misled the poet's contemporaries and has left its trace on subsequent censors. We laugh at the Italian doctor who expected to be torn to pieces by Byron's myrmidons if he offended his employer in the least trifle, but his tremors were no more ridiculous than the declamatory horror of the critics. For Byron at his best—tolerant of censure and confident in the verdict of the future—see the letter of December 25, 1822, written to Murray after reading Bishop Heber's review of "Cain."

The appendices to this volume are of the highest value. They include a minute history of the quarrel between Byron and Southey, with all the documents, and an excellent sketch of the "state of political parties during the first three years of the Revolution" in Greece. The latter is indispensable to a right understanding of the closing incidents of the poet's life. There is also an index to all six volumes. It is a model of its kind, covering not only the text, but the notes as well, and extending

to more than a hundred pages of fine but legible type.

The fourth volume of the 'Poetical Works' begins with "The Prisoner of Chillon" and ends with "The Blues." It includes also "Manfred," "Beppo," "Marino Faliero," and the unmatchable "Vision of Judgment," with other pieces, large and small. No wonder Mr. Coleridge is moved to eloquence by the "manifold motions" of Byron's "versatile and unsleeping talent." It is something of a pity, however, that he so often finds it necessary to assert the poet's claim to consideration. A few things must be regarded as well settled in literary history. Yet the editor's defence embodies one significant, if somewhat prosaic, suggestion—that Byron "taught us a great deal which it is desirable and agreeable to know—which has passed into common knowledge through the medium of his poetry."

Of Mr. Coleridge's editing we have nothing to say which has not already been said in our previous notices. It is good, but neither so scholarly nor so finished as Mr. Prothero's. We observe that Mr. Coleridge has not got over his disposition to sit in judgment on his author. Witness his animadversions (p. 19) on what he calls a "feeble and irritating *paronomasy*" in "The Prisoner of Chillon." For whom are such notes intended? They may relieve the editor's mind, but they form no part of his official duties. The proofreading appears to be better than in volume iii.—at least, in the text.

MORE NOVELS.

The Cavalier. By George W. Cable. Charles Scribner's Sons.

D'ri and I. By Irving Bacheller. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co.

The Road to Ridgeby's. By Frank Burlingame Harris. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.

Tom Beauling. By Gouverneur Morris. The Century Co.

Unconscious Comedians. By Caroline Duer. Dodd, Mead & Co.

The Pines of Lory. By J. A. Mitchell. Life Publishing Co.

In his war-romance, entitled 'The Cavalier,' Mr. Cable appears to have yielded to the pressure of a fashion, and not to the urgency of an inward voice bidding him write. His natural ways are ways of pleasantness, and the paths he follows instinctively are the sunny paths of peace. He is not at home in the narration of a sequence of bloody scrimmages, and his attitude towards them is timorous, apologetic—altogether more fitted for candid condemnation of war than for its glorification in romance. As a war-romancer, too, he is still more heavily hampered by his orthodox religious convictions. Really talented war-romancers recognize religion only in the same way and to the same extent that kings and victorious generals do, by formal thanks to the God of Battles, with occasional touching appeal to the God of the Widow and the Fatherless. Religion and science are notoriously hard to reconcile, and no one except Oliver Cromwell has been able to make religion and war appear suitable companions. With all his eagerness to inculcate religious belief, both by illustration of its efficacy in emergency and by homily, Mr. Cable fails to make its practice appear consistent with the practice of fighting.

Those defects in 'The Cavalier' which are easily traceable to the author's natural inaptitude for war-romance are less surprising than a general vagueness and weakness in matters where clearness and strength are expected from so experienced a novelist. There is no attempt made to give a comprehensive picture of the civil war, or to describe any great figure or critical battles. The action is restricted to insignificant exploits of some Confederate scouts, in most of which a spy named Charlotte Oliver plays the great part. This Charlotte is a doubtful lady, and no one could be more uncertain about her than is the author. In the early chapters her manners are reprehensibly light, and there follow scenes in which the lightness seems to have infected her morals. But, behold, later on, an impeccable Charlotte, with rigid views about the sanctity of marriage, and sermons at her tongue's end wherewith to edify the dying soldier. On the other hand, the Misses Harper are perfectly clear and easy to understand. These damsels, with "starry charms" and "witching glances," jog through the tale in a carryall, demanding military escort at every corner and always meaning to be made love to. We should be thankful to Mr. Cable for reviving the memory of such dear girls (the kind is now extinct), and for letting us look on at their great game of hide-and-seek, to which all men used to be cordially invited.

When the romancer is driven for material to the war of 1812, one hopes that he is at the end of his tether, and almost believes that patriotism has shouted itself dumb. For it may be said, without disparagement to any one, that the war was neither so great nor so glorious as some other wars, and that there are few people now living who know what it was all about, fewer perhaps who care. On the obscurity of its origin the tale of 'D'ri and I' casts no light. Except in the title, 'I' (Capt. Raymond Bell) takes precedence of D'ri. D'ri comes in chiefly when the somewhat vainglorious Captain has a fit of shrinking modesty and permits the second fiddle to take up the theme. This duty D'ri performs in a harsh dialect, garnished with strange adjectives such as "joe mightiful," and unimpressive oaths, such as "Jerushy Pepper." When his patriotism is red hot, he gets down to a commoner and, we think, more expressive form of profanity. "Give 'em hell," he cries to Capt. Perry, as he is leaving the *Lawrence* for the *Niagara*. When the order to strike the flag on the *Lawrence* is given, he thus reproves her commander: "Let her sink, damn her. Wish to God I could put my foot through her bottom. When the flag goes down I want to go tew." It is not to be supposed that any subordinate ever so addressed his superior officer, but, if he did in 1812, and a modern war-romancer has private knowledge of the fact, he should have kept it to himself, animated by a sense of respect for his country and for his young compatriots, at whom, for their adoration, he so enthusiastically waves "Old Glory."

Separately the adventures of 'D'ri and I' are sufficiently exciting, but they are not well connected. Through the capture of the heroes by the English and their subjection to an ordeal by a society called "Avengers," we are introduced to an English lord as he used to be seen on the stage, but never anywhere else. He wears conspicuously a single glass, smokes an eternal cigarette (in 1812?), and has an accent and a languor expressive of the highest-bred insolence. Moreover, he carries a parchment in his pocket just to show the unbeliever that he is a lord and the cousin of a king. High society is further represented by a group of French ladies and gentlemen. Though the splendor of the noble *émigrés* dwelling in a wilderness is, we think, exaggerated, their presence lends grace and their company is cheerful. In his preface the author says that the romantic marriage of Capt. Bell and Mlle. de Lambert is "almost literally a matter of record." The word "almost" permits us to doubt whether a marriage ceremony performed by a passing minister or "dominie" could satisfy a young Frenchwoman, noble and a Catholic, that she had been married either by the law or by the Church.

Many tales of farm life in the Middle West are dreary records of a hard existence written by persons with a talent for seeing and describing the worst side of things. Remarkable among stories of that vast and uninteresting region is 'The Road to Ridgeby's,' because, while nature and life are presented with fidelity to the fact, the author goes beneath and behind the fact to reveal the strength, pathos, and even humor of the human struggle for existence. 'The Road to Ridgeby's' is only a new form of words for the old road to happiness, and, according to the modern doctrine, the goal is reached not by prayer and renunciation, but by labor and love. The tale is preceded by a biographical sketch of the author. His actual achievement is somewhat overestimated, yet in his short life he undoubtedly gave promise of ability to go far.

The tale of 'Tom Beauling' is told in two parts. The first is the tale of the orphan, Tom, in the New England home of his father by adoption, Judge Tyler; the second is the tale of Tom the rover, one foot on sea and one on shore, but always pretty constant to a pretty girl who dwells by Long Island Sound. Both Toms are lively to a degree, but the second does not clearly derive from the first; the boy is not positively the father of the man, and that is a matter about which careful writers of fiction have no doubt. It is not a very serious matter, and is mentioned only by way of admonition to a young writer who has a great deal to say, and already manages to express himself in good form and style. So good, indeed, is the first part, so keenly observed, sympathetic, and natural, that a reviewer should say nothing but make a bow to a "talent." The talent is still in evidence through the second part, but it is skittish and wayward, giving itself an easy time in description of foreign lands. The descriptions are, however, entertaining, and well flavored with Tom's personality—a personality so engaging that the chance of his being undone at the end by a past for which he had no responsibility, excites the deepest agitation. Considered as a début in fiction, this little tale deserves to be called brilliant; and considered as a declaration of a "good American" point of view, it is admirable. The author is apparently at home among persons of wealth and fashion, who are Americans, not English or another, nor

wishing to be; and, being Americans of the best sort, they accept Tom Beauling as a man, for himself, without anxious solicitude about his ancestors, and, indeed, with full knowledge of his irregular birth.

Neither the good American nor the good American point of view is discoverable in the volume of tales entitled 'Unconscious Comedians.' These are American society tales, imitations of English society tales. A copy is never so good as an original, and, if the original be notoriously worthless, the copy is likely to be flagrantly bad. The English society tale seems to be the feeblest effort of the human mind, until one has read the American imitation. The sayings and doings of the Duke and Duchess lose a thrill in the process of transfer to plain Mr. and Mrs., and that loss is not compensated for by the greater number of flunkeys who serve the untitled, nor by their greater prominence in the narrative. Miss Duer's imitations are not, however, all bad, for once she comes so close to her model that the statement that a young soldier is at home on leave from "Porto Rico" is for a moment bewildering. One is sure that she meant to write "South Africa." In the sketch called "My Niece, Mrs. Dove," Miss Duer shows ability for original work, for Mrs. Dove is drawn from life cleverly, keenly, with almost spiteful satire. The lady is unmistakably American (a bad one), with a kind of badness inconceivable in the older civilizations, where women are not encouraged to grab everything—time, health, money—from anybody, and to give absolutely nothing in return.

In 'The Pines of Lory' Mr. Mitchell, with happy unconsciousness, takes pointedly the American attitude towards the grabbing woman. His story is, in event, the story of Paul and Virginia, modernized, Americanized, and cast, so to speak, on the inhospitable Northern shore of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The situation, with its many improbabilities, is well conceived and carried off with spirit. But more interesting than the romantic adventure is the author's ingenuous admiration for his female castaway, who (perhaps in a spirit of homage) is given the haughty name of Elinor, while the male castaway proclaims his inferiority by permitting himself to be called Pats. This Elinor treats Pats rudely, contemptuously, even brutally. Though she knows he has just come home from the wars with wounds and fever, though she sees that he is emaciated and wobbles rather than walks, she lets him drag her luggage about and otherwise serve her; then, refusing, on the score of propriety, to let him sleep under the good roof which he, under the guidance of Providence, has discovered, drives him and his dog forth to the forest. In the night rain descends, and by morning Pats is delirious with fever, but his faithful dog has hard work to compel Elinor to come out in the wet and help his disabled master. When Pats recovers from his fever, he utters no word of reproach, but, on the contrary, tells Elinor that she is an angel, and goes on adoring her, till an archbishop and a princess come in a steamboat and take them away to a place where they can be married.

This, from the American point of view, is all very natural and right, and Mr. Mitchell likes his Elinor so much that he cannot criticise anything she does. He even permits her without reproof to ask the Princess, after an hour's acquaintance, a leading question about a family affair, for no reason except the gratification of curiosity. We have no sort of doubt that Elinor asked the question point blank, but feel that Mr. Mitchell may not have reported correctly the answer of the Princess. It is a pity that the author should have felt it necessary to utter flippancies about the Roman Catholic doctrine and methods, and also to reiterate his journalistic statements about the merits of the "South African" war. Whatever his opinions on such subjects may be worth (for ourselves we do not prize them), they are here out of place; they have no bearing on the situation, and, in fact, nothing whatever to do with the case. Elinor's leaning towards Catholicism is of no importance; and if the emaciation of Pats had to be ascribed to bullets and fever, he might just as easily (and with more reason) have returned from fighting in the Philippines with his compatriots, or even against them.

SEVEN BOOKS ON MUSICAL TOPICS.

A Critical History of the Opera. By Arthur Elson. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.

Highways and Byways of Music. By Hugh A. Clarke. Silver, Burdette & Co.

Wagner, Bayreuth, and the Festival Plays. By Frances Gerard. E. P. Dutton & Co.

Mendelssohn. By Stephen S. Stratton. E. P. Dutton & Co.

Beethoven's Piano Playing. By Franz Kullak. G. Schirmer.

Musical Ministries in the Church. By Waldo Selden Pratt. Fleming H. Revell Co.

The Laurel Book. Edited by W. L. Tomlins. Boston: C. C. Birchard & Co.

Just in time for the impending opera season, Mr. Elson appears with a volume which lovers of that form of art will find both entertaining and useful. He plunges at once *in medias res*, dispensing with the usual explanatory or apologetic preface. Nor was any apology needed; for such a bright, readable summary is always welcome. Mr. Elson has here shown his critical sense in the ignoring of useless knowledge, as well as in bringing forward vital facts, and dwelling on them with an excellent sense of their relative importance. He does not give much space to the origin of opera, but proceeds promptly to the great masters, mentions a few biographic details, and then describes their best works, both as to their music and their plots. In condensing the stories of the operas, he has shown rare skill. Separate chapters are devoted to the Italian, French, and German schools; nor are Russia, England, and America ignored. The book is nothing if not up to date. Not only are all the young men of Italy discussed, but there are accounts of so recent a work as Charpentier's "Louise" and even Paderewski's "Manru," and Professor Paine's "Azara," the scores of which appeared only a few weeks ago. Wagner, of course, is treated more fully than any one else. He is now in the lead, and those who have not caught up with the procession will learn from these pages that the trouble with them is that they have no sense for harmony:

"Wagner has forced the world to admit that harmony is of more value than melody in portraying the emotions depicted on the stage." "It can easily be seen that those who do not possess the sense of harmony (and they are numerous enough in many operatic audiences) cannot understand the beauty of works that rely upon varying harmonies for their best effects. Hence the acrimonious contest over Wagner's works. They are, of course, a sealed book to those whose sense of harmony is merely rudimentary, or who cannot properly associate harmony and emotion."

A Pennsylvanian once remarked to the writer of this review: "What would you New Yorkers do without the Philadelphia joke?" No doubt that joke has been overworked; but is there not some justification for its continued use? Here is Hugh A. Clarke, Mus. Doc., professor of the science of music at the University of Pennsylvania, writing a chapter on "Modern Tendencies in Music." We naturally look for a discourse on Richard Strauss, Grieg, Dvorák, Brahms, MacDowell, or at least on their predecessors, Liszt, Wagner, and Berlioz, or Chopin and Schumann; but our Philadelphian calmly discusses Bach and Handel, Gluck (or Glück, as he persists in misspelling the name), Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven, all of whom were dead three-quarters of a century ago! When the author does incidentally refer to a real modern tendency, he does it only to repeat such antiquated nonsense as that the modern opera "discards melody," and regards form as bondage, or that the *Leitmotiv* is merely the revival of an "old artifice"! In the other essays embraced in Professor Clarke's volume—on literary men and music, the Teutonic element in music, some musical myths, etc.—he is fortunately somewhat less Philadelphian.

Frances Gerard's book on Wagner and Bayreuth is a rehash of oft-told tales which may possibly appeal to those who have never read anything else on the subject. A few fresh biographic details have, however, been transferred to its pages from the recently published letters of Heckel. The author's treatment of the German language is not always kind.

Mr. Stratton's book on Mendelssohn is of a much higher type. It does not profess to furnish any new data, but it is a careful compilation of facts regarding the life and works of Mendelssohn, gathered from a great variety of sources, and presented in a readable manner. The author, though an admirer of his subject, is glad that the time when England "was inundated with diluted Mendelssohn" has almost entirely passed away. Mendelssohn lived only thirty-eight years. Mr. Stratton calls attention to the fact that he "was broken and worn at thirty-seven." On another page he states that "his brain had from boyhood been taxed excessively." Doubtless there was a connection between these two circumstances.

Nearly sixty of the hundred pages of Kullak's monograph on Beethoven's piano-playing, which Dr. Th. Baker has done into trustworthy and readable English, are devoted to a discussion of the proper execution of the trill. In the other pages, Dr. Kullak has busily compiled all the testimony published regarding the way in which Beethoven played his own sonatas. As the proper interpretation of these sonatas by modern virtuosi is the most disputed point in present-day criticism, the utility of this little volume is obvious. It will supply gunpowder for both camps, as the testimony varies. Perhaps Clementi best summed up the truth when he wrote, regarding

Beethoven, that "his playing was but little cultivated, not seldom violent, but always full of spirit."

Mr. Pratt is professor of music and hymnology in the Hartford Theological Seminary. His little book addresses itself to ministerial candidates rather than to musicians, the subjects being "Religion and the Art of Music," "Hymns and Hymn-Singing," "The Choir," "The Organ and the Organist," "The Minister's Responsibility." There are also some carefully compiled lists of books on church music and of books on hymns and hymn-writers. It is a valuable little book for those whom it concerns. The author declares his hearty belief in choirs and choir music, and he thinks that "the musical leader is an assistant pastor."

Mr. Tomlins's collection of songs is intended for advanced classes in school and for choral societies, as well as domestic circles. It differs from most other similar collections in having a considerable number of contemporary American composers on the list—Waller, Hadley, Harris, Foote, Whiting, Chadwick, Huss, Parker, Gilchrist, and others, whose contributions are by no means unworthy of the company in which they appear. A special merit of these songs is that they are not set to translations, but in all cases to original verses of the best English and American poets. Mr. Tomlins, who has a national reputation as a successful chorus-trainer, has also taken great care to exclude cheap translations in the case of the foreign songs he has adopted. These include melodies by most of the great German and many English masters. It is an admirable collection.

Constantinople and its Problems: Its Peoples, Customs, Religions, and Progress. By Henry Otis Dwight, LL.D. Revell Co. 1901. Pp. 298.

It is long since we have had a sociological study like this—sociological in the broadest sense—of Constantinople. "Odysseus," in his recent admirable book on Turkey, developed more largely the historical side, not only of the Turks, but of the other Balkan peoples, and declined explicitly to enter upon a description of things in Constantinople itself. Here it is precisely Constantinopolitan affairs which are dealt with, and that not on the political side, but rather where politics are rooted, in the problems of the populace. For a missionary, Dr. Dwight is singularly free from prejudice of any kind. This is probably due, to some extent, to the metropolitan, or rather cosmopolitan, position which he held as head of the Bible House in Constantinople, but it is still more largely due to his own breadth of sympathy and keenness of insight. He evidently is not a case of the missionary of commerce, that most unfortunate development of our religious life, but a calm-eyed man who has seen and knows the world, and can have no sympathy with hysterics of one kind or another. In view of that, it is a pity that he has not allowed himself much more space, and secured for his book a better get-up than its present cheap-looking exterior. It might be one of the most commonplace of missionary publications.

Its dominant idea is a true and weighty one. Constantinople by its position must be one of the imperial cities of the world. There all the threads of western Asia run in and are knotted together; there one may sit and see the crowds pass and have a finger on the pulses beating from Samarcand to Morocco. It has held the gorgeous East in fee, and will do so again. Meanwhile, it is the centre of Islam, and missionary work and influence exerted there are felt wherever the Koran has gone. It is there that the Muslim problem exists in its quintessence, and there it must be studied and attacked. This the book goes on to do. The real Islam of to-day is stated tersely and fairly; as it is for good and for evil. There is no display of learning in this statement, but it has not either any of those inexplicable blunders which haunt the non-specialist when he meddles with the Faith of Muhammad. The Turkish woman question is described graphically and incisively. Evidently the Young Turks have achieved little yet in that matter; the few years of English rule in Egypt have done far more to shake those characteristic institutions. And in Turkey, as in Egypt, the remedy must lie in girls' schools. Those, above all, who think that woman in the East has little power or influence should read this chapter. The following one on the Eastern Church begins with much severe but true criticism. It ends with a confession, most refreshing from a missionary, that only through that church again become alive can the masses of western Asia be reached and helped. The problem is how to arouse the Church. For that and for the arousing of Turkey in general, Dr. Dwight holds that Western civilization in itself can have little value. There has been a European colony at Pera for years, and it has accomplished nothing but to bring Christianity into disrepute. The meeting there of East and West is most amusingly pictured, and more fully than we have seen elsewhere.

The last two chapters describe the school system in Constantinople—the ecclesiastical schools, if the term is allowable, in which the future Ulama are trained; the secular schools up to what is practically a university; and the different missionary enterprises from Robert College down—and the book trade as it is and is not. These chapters are admirable. They give a mass of information nowhere else brought together in English, and our regret is that they do not contain far more details. It is part of our general regret at the limits of an admirable book. We trust that Dr. Dwight will take this to heart, and give us a thorough and exhaustive study of Constantinople supplementing the present most interesting sketch.

The Arabian Nights' Entertainments. Translated from the Arabic by E. W. Lane. With one hundred illustrations in photogravure by Stanley Wood. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1901. 6 vols.

Experience has accustomed us in Messrs. Dent's books to a combination of artistic excellence in the get-up and of scholarly excellence in the editing. But in this edition the scholarship has left us deplorably in the lurch, and the pity is the greater as there is actual need of a beautiful and not too expensive 'Arabian Nights' which could be read by all and offend or injure none. Family editions are usually the abomination of desolation, but 'The Nights' demand such. They demand, too, however, in their editors a keen æsthetic sense joined to self-restraint, discretion, and real knowledge. But it has been their unlucky fate to draw upon themselves, like captive queens of romance, the awkward caresses of the would-be learned. Amateur Orientalists hazard wondrous conjectures on their origin and nature, and the dear public takes it all very gravely. For that public, in its unconscious wisdom, remains calmly unlearned, and, for it, "The Nights" still pass in an undisturbed land of faery.

On its title-page this edition professes to contain the translation of Lane. As a matter of fact, that part of it which is derived from Lane is a reprint, page by page, and it may be from the same plates, of the edition of Mr. J. Jacobs in 1896, which, in its turn, was a reproduction of the editions of Lane published in 1847 and 1850 by John Murray. In these, Lane's commentary was cut away, and the old spelling of the proper names was restored. The anecdotes and short tales which Lane put in small type also vanished, and with them much of the characteristic flavor of the book. On Lane's protest, the two editions were withdrawn and suppressed. The present reprint follows Mr. Jacobs so closely that, in the table of contents, we have account taken of two appendices which the Jacobs edition has, but which here are fortunately absent. As for the few notes, which probably go back to the editions of 1847 and 1850, the less said about them the better. But in the "Foreword" we are further informed that this edition contains the additional tales to be found in Galland and not in Lane. That is true with a remarkable plus and a still more remarkable minus. The minus is of the entertaining story of "Prince Ahmed and the Fairy Peri Banon," expressly mentioned in said "Foreword" and an illustration to which absurdly heads volume v.; also of the story of "Codadad and his Brothers," which we can better spare. The plus is of the tales first translated and printed by Jonathan Scott in the sixth volume of his edition of Galland in 1811. These are not given entire, nor do they seem ever to have been completely reprinted since that first edition. The illustrations are those which accompanied the reprint of Scott by Pickering in 1890. To put it shortly, we have here a reprint of Mr. Jacobs's edition of Lane and of the Pickering Scott, in which, when the same tales occur in both, the Jacobs Lane is given the preference. That all this should masquerade as Lane's translation shows, at the least, a singular elasticity of conscience.

Of the little "Foreword" we need not say much. Its unnamed author evidently derives his learning from Mr. Jacobs's preface, and, as that erudite essay is full of the most curious blunders, the disciple here comes off but sorrily. It may be enough to say that Professor de Goeje would probably be moved to mirth if he were to hear that his acute reconstruction of the references to Homai was "the generally accepted tradition of the origin" of 'The Nights,' and that "the probability is that the tradition here represents facts." Further, Aladdin has been found in an Arabic MS. of 'The Nights.' It may be worth while to draw attention to a converse blun-

der in the life of Sir Richard Burton in the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Suppl. i., p. 355), where we are told that the Arabic original of Ali Baba has come to light. In reality it is the one of Galland's tales to which we have yet no clue. Further, Lane's translation is by no means complete, though it is certainly the most scholarly. And, again, Lane's text is most emphatically "bowdlerized." Lastly, Lane's "monumental edition" was fully and, so far as Oriental tone is concerned, admirably illustrated. Mr. Stanley Wood's pictures may be artistic; as illustrations of 'The Nights' they cannot compete for a moment with those of Harvey or Letchford.

If there had been neither editor nor "Foreword," but simply a bibliographical note, as in the Temple series, referring to the two editions from which this book is derived, it would have been open to much less exception. But it seems to be the fate of 'The Nights' to draw upon themselves such attentions.

Culture and Restraint. By Hugh Black. Fleming H. Revell Co. 1901.

It is not an indifferent problem of abstract philosophy, but an urgent question of every-day life, that Mr. Black discusses in this fascinating volume. And it is not as a pedant, but as a practical man, that he deals with it, anxious not to spin plausible theories, but to give facts their exact weight. His work is that of a critic in the true sense of the word: he is not a special pleader, but recognizes both the merits and the defects of the opposing cases, with the result that his summing-up is a reconciliation. Not many books on ethical questions show such a breadth of sympathy with divergent views; and it is not often that we find one which, while free from casuistry, supplies its readers with such wholesome guidance for the direction of their own practice.

Its subject—the old conflict between Hebraism and Hellenism, self-repression and self-expression, restraint and culture—needs for its satisfactory treatment a more catholic spirit than commonly belongs to the partisans of either side. This equipment is possessed by Mr. Black, who knows, and rightly appreciates, his Montaigne as well as his Augustine. First he describes, with adequate understanding, the æsthetic ideal, and follows his account of it by a discussion of its value, laying special emphasis upon the test of history. He then proceeds to deal with the ascetic ideal in the same way. He attributes the failure of the latter to the facts—in addition to its creation of an artificial distinction in the ethical standard—that it raises into an end what can be justified only as a means; that it leaves out an essential element of the moral ideal, happiness, and is therefore led to look upon pain as in itself good; that it makes abstinence a higher virtue than temperance, and the evasion of natural responsibilities more worthy than the mastery of the temptations involved in them; and that it is on that account a mistake in method, spending its force on external and repressive rules. He therefore reaches the conclusion that, of the two ideals, that of culture is essentially higher than that of restraint, since culture is at least a positive end, and to some extent must include restraint as a means to reach its full fruition. His final solution is that, while neither culture for its own sake nor sacrifice for its own sake is a sufficient end, they each find scope and are made reasonable by the thought of service. This "does not mean that all must become professional or amateur philanthropists, but it does mean some form of consecration of gifts. The artist and poet serve by creating their works of beauty or of inspiring song, and to ask them to leave the spheres for which they are specially endowed, in order to work in a city slum, would be folly." This purpose combines both the fullest self-expression and the stern temper which takes self-discipline as a serious task. For the true moral of the brevity of life is not Pater's, that we should gather all we are into one desperate effort to see and touch by the stirring of the senses, but the better part mentioned by Amiel: "Life is short, and we have never too much time for gladdening the hearts of those who are travelling the dark journey with us."

Australasia, Old and New. By J. Grattan Grey. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. Pp. xvi, 396.

This is a readable, somewhat loosely written book. The author is a journalist, and his style shows it. "Old and New" is correctly descriptive of his treatment of the theme "Australasia." We are told most of the foundation and present condition of the several colonies. Their middle state is somewhat lightly passed over. Jenks's 'Australian Colonies,' of the Cambridge Historical Series, is a more evenly constructed book on the same subject, and has the great advantage of being furnished with an index. The reader who has both publications at hand may acquire a good working knowledge concerning Australasia.

Mr. Grey is to be commended for his sympathetic attitude towards the aborigines. We miss treatment of the complicated question of the employment of Kanaka labor in Queensland. He gives a gloomy enough history of the transportation period and system, which, with bushranging and the affair of the Eureka stockade in 1854, furnish so far the main picturesque incidents in the history of Australia proper. He is at times inclined to exaggerate horrors, as where he writes of Smith O'Brien's "dungeon" on Maria Island. The cottage he occupied, though small, was in truth cheerful, with a little garden. Taken as a whole, the book does not convey an unfair impression of Australian soil and climate; there are, however, passages that unduly extol it.

Mr. Grey would have done better to assimilate for this book information previously given by him in other books, instead of repeating whole paragraphs between quotation marks. It gives to his work an impression of *réchauffé* which it does not deserve. He holds decided opinions upon leading questions, calls New Zealand severely to task for not entering the new southern commonwealth, and is "convinced that, long before this century draws to an end, Australia will be an independent nation, politically and in all other respects." He "spent a very large portion" of his life in Australasia. This has in many respects fitted him for writing such a book as the present. In others he may have imbibed strong political prejudices. We know, although it is not mentioned by him here, that he was hardly treated by the New Zealand Government because of his sympathy with the Transvaal. (The Australian communities out-Heroded the mother country in their ungenerous attitude towards the minorities that opposed the war.) Whether unduly biassed or more clear-sighted than other observers, his views of New Zealand politics and experiments are gloomy in the extreme, and he has brought upon himself a storm of abuse, from both New Zealand and other parts of the world, from the advocates of principles being there tried in practice. "New Zealand abounds in politicians who are incapable of grasping the situation, whose ideals are not of a very lofty kind, and who fear, above all things else, . . . their own political extinction." He accuses them of having established "a reign of terror."

"So the whole community has been blighted by this reign of terror, by this policy of 'spoils to the victors, of punishments and rewards'; until feelings of personal interest have dominated all classes, sapped their manliness, and made them what they are—either arrant hypocrites or dumb, unresisting spectators of a system which should be fearlessly condemned by every honest man who has the real interests of a pure, untarnished democracy at heart."

He considers female suffrage in New Zealand to have proved a failure:

"Not only has it not fulfilled any one of the improving and refining services which were claimed for it when the measure was before Parliament, but, as an absolute fact, public and political life and the *personnel* of Parliament itself have degenerated to a most deplorable degree ever since the introduction of female franchise at Parliamentary elections in that colony."

Of the old-age pension scheme he writes: "The system at work there is not a solution of the problem: it is outdoor relief pure and simple, with the high-sounding title of old-age pensions applied to it." In like manner he considers that the boards for settlement of disputes between employers and employed have not answered their purpose: "These boards are a constant source of irritation to employers, and the cost and loss of time entailed upon employers and employed is enormous."

These are not times when we can well afford to have dashed more of our old golden anticipations for humanity. Mr. Gray's book claims the careful consideration of reformers.

Christopher in his Sporting Jacket. By John Wilson (Christopher North). Illustrated. McClure, Phillips & Co. 1901.

This handsome little book is a reprint of the article which originally appeared in *Blackwood's Magazine* for September, 1823, and is included in the 'Recreations.' Christopher North is thought by many to have been the best writer of his day on sport, and this little volume treats of all varieties of out-door amusements of the time, from rat-catching to deer-stalking, at all of which, as well as every form of athletic exercises, "Christopher" was proficient. The angling chapters, with which the volume commences, are charming in their descriptions of the natural healthy boy beginning his pastime with a minnow and ending with a salmon. Then follows shooting, and so on, with various excursions into other themes of nature, art, and literature, all

treated in the fascinating, simple, manly way native to Christopher North.

It is a great service to literature that these articles are reprinted in so attractive a form, and it is to be hoped that they may bring to many of the younger generation a knowledge they will increase by a larger acquaintance with the books of this wonderful and versatile professor, of whom a distinguished writer says, "I can never read the 'Recreations' without a feeling of exaltation and delight, as if I were treading the heather beside 'Christopher in his Sporting Jacket,' with the free breezes of the Highlands tingling in my cheeks."

Practical X-Ray Work. By Frank J. Addyman. London: Scott, Greenwood & Co.; New York: The Van Nostrand Co. 1901. 8vo, pp. 207. With twelve plates and 52 cuts.

Being really well written and put together with good judgment, this book better deserves mention than the common run of technical publications. It treats amply of every part of its art without being swamped by inutilities. The historical division of the work is naturally brief. More than half of it is taken up with discussing the advantages of different forms of apparatus, sources of electricity, coils, tubes, air-pumps, screens, localizers, etc. Then there are chapters on Installations, Radioscopy, Radiography, and the applications of the new art to dentistry, to chemistry, and to war. Much depends upon the fact that, other things being equal, opacity to X-rays is apparently increased by the presence of an element of high atomic weight, although nothing that can be called a law has been formulated. But lead glass is far more opaque than soda glass; Iceland spar than silica or alumina; imitations than genuine precious stones (exclusive of the pearl). The application of X-rays to examinations of the roots of teeth and their surroundings must be a matter of no little difficulty; which explains a chapter being devoted to it. The localization of what is seen is a branch of the art which time will, no doubt, greatly improve. At present, it is done on the principle of a plane-table triangulation, but with various sorts of instruments. Apparatus depending upon our natural stereoscopic judgments has hitherto been found too troublesome.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ashmore, S. G. A Brief Survey of the Writings of Quintus Horatius Flaccus. The Grafton Press.
Beacon Biographies: (1) Schouler, James. Alexander Hamilton; and (2) Carpenter, G. R. Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. Boston; Small, Maynard & Co.
Bell's Miniature Series of Painters: (1) Williamson, G. C. Fra Angelico; (2) Bell, Malcolm. Sir Edward Burne-Jones; (3) Williamson, G. C. Velasquez. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Biblical and Semitic Studies. (Yale Bi-Centennial Publications.) Scribners. $2.50.
Brownell, Elizabeth B. Dream Children. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co. 95 cents.
Burroughs, John. Songs of Nature. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Caffin, C. H. Photography as a Fine Art. Doubleday, Page & Co. $3.
Capps, Edward. From Homer to Theocritus. Scribners. $1.50.
Carrion, M. R., and Aza, Vital. Zaragüeta. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Carruth, W. H. Schiller's Die Braut von Messina. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Castiglione, Baldesar. The Book of the Courtier. Scribners.
Colton, Arthur. "The Debatable Land." Harpers. $1.50.
Curtis, D. A. The Science of Draw Poker. Published by the Author.
Daudet, Alphonse. (1) Letters from My Mill; (2) Monday Tales. (Little Masterpieces.) Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $2.50.
Daskam, Josephine D. The Best Nonsense Verses. Evanston (Ill.): William S. Lord.
Davis, R. H. Her First Appearance. Harpers.
Digby, W. 'Prosperous' British India: A Revelation from Official Records. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Fuller, H. B. Under the Skylights. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Gamble, Rev. H. R. Sunday and the Sabbath. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Gates, Josephine S. The Story of Live Dolls. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co. $1.
Gummere, Amelia Mott. The Quaker: A Study in Costume. Philadelphia: Ferris & Leach. $3.
Happy Playtimes. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Hardy, Thomas. Poems of the Past and the Present. Harpers. $1.60.
Hassall, Arthur. The French People. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Hird, Frank. King Fritz's A. D. C. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Holmes, Edmond. Walt Whitman's Poetry: A Study and a Selection. John Lane.
Ilchester, Countess of, and Stavordale, Lord. The Life and Letters of Lady Sarah Lennox, 1745-1826. 2 vols. London: John Murray; New York: Scribners. $9.
Kuhns, Oscar. The German and Swiss Settlements of Colonial Pennsylvania. H. Holt & Co.
La Mara. Franz Liszt's Briefe an die Fürstin Carolyne Sayn-Wittgenstein. III. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel. 7 marks.
Lawrence, Katherine D. The Fairy Dream. Bonnell, Silver & Co. 60 cents.
Lee, Dr. G. H. Kith and Kin. Washington, D. C.: The Neale Co.
Lounsbury, T. R. Shakespeare as a Dramatic Artist. Scribners. $3.
Merriman, H. S. The Velvet Glove. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Meynell, Alice. Later Poems. John Lane. $1.
Morgan, T. H. Regeneration. Macmillan. $3.
Morison, M. Time Table of Modern History: A. D. 400-1870. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Morris, M. C. F. The Vowel-Sounds of the East Yorkshire Folk-Speech. Henry Frowde.
Murger, Henry. The Latin Quarter. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Peabody, Josephine P. Marlowe: a Drama in Five Acts. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Ramsay, William. Modern Chemistry: Theoretical and Systematic. 2 vols. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan.
Rankin, Reginald. Wagner's Nibelungen Ring. Done into English Verse. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Rathery, E. J. B. Journal and Memoirs of the Marquis d'Argenson. 2 vols. Boston: Hardy, Pratt & Co.
Riley, J. W. Riley Farm Rhymes. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Rousiers, Paul de. Les Syndicats Industriels at Producteurs en France et à l'Etranger. Paris: Armand Colin.
Salvarona. The Wisdom of Passion. Boston: Mystic River Book Co. $2.
Sheldon, H. D. Student Life and Customs. (International Education Series.) D. Appleton & Co. $1.20.
Singleton, Esther. The Furniture of Our Forefathers. Parts VI., VII., and VIII. Doubleday, Page & Co.
Stedman, E. C. Mater Coronata: Recited at the Bicentennial Celebration of Yale University. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Tilton, G. H. A Memorial of Marshall Henshaw. Cambridge (Mass.): University Press.
Tennyson, Alfred. In Memoriam. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Trübner, K. Minerva Jahrbuch der Gelehrten Welt. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner; New York; Lemcke & Buechner.
Vielé, H. K. The Last of the Knickerbockers: A Comedy Romance. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.

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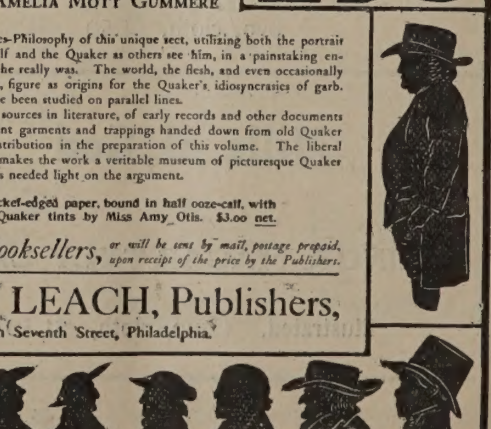

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 19, 1901.

The Week.

The ratification of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty has not been in doubt at any time since its terms were made public, but the majority in favor of it was unexpectedly great. Out of seventy-eight Senators voting, only six were in the negative. All the amendments offered were voted down. All private interpretations now go to the waste-paper basket. The treaty is to be interpreted by its own language, and if disputes arise hereafter as to its meaning, they will no doubt be settled under the terms of the Hague Conference. Certain Senators pretended to find in the treaty a reserved right to grant discriminations in tolls in favor of our ships engaged in trade between our Atlantic and Pacific ports—in face of the clause which forbids discriminations of any kind. It does not apply, they said, to our coasting trade. The fact is—and it is the bottom fact of the whole business from the time of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty to the present moment—that the aim of the two governments has been to give absolute equality of rights to all ships, not merely of the United States and Great Britain, but, as the text says, of those of all nations, in order to avoid any conflict in reference to the use of the canal. That is the very *raison d'être* of the present treaty. That is the reason why the words were added providing that the anti-discrimination clause should still apply even if the country traversed by the canal should hereafter become a part of our territory. An amendment offered by Senator Bacon of Georgia to strike out the latter clause received only eighteen votes, out of seventy-eight, and not one Republican vote. On this particular amendment the Democrats divided sixteen yeas to ten nays. Senator Morgan of Alabama rendered a great service to civilization by his efforts to prevent the Democratic party from "lining up" against the treaty.

It is by no means likely that the Philippine Commission will be supported either by Congress or by the Administration in its extravagant demands for almost royal powers. The Commission not only asks the right to issue bonds to improve Manila and to buy up the lands of the religious orders—a tremendous undertaking—but also sole power to grant municipal and insular franchises, subject to confirmation by an overworked President 10,000 miles away. It demands the right to grant lands to railroad companies, and wishes Congress to require an educational suffrage qualification. Both President Roosevelt and Secretary Root are committed to the granting of franchises for the "legitimate exploitation" of the islands as prerequisite to their development. But no complete plan has yet been published by which the award of such franchises can be properly made and kept out of the hands of politicians of the stripe of Representative Hull. The Administration will probably favor aiding capitalists ready to go into railroading, by land-grants, or by guaranteeing a modest return on necessary bond issues. It will be a new and radical departure in American methods of government if five men are given the right to carry out all these projects without the slightest check except their own feeling of responsibility, and without any reference to the millions upon whom their arbitrary rule is imposed.

The case of Cuba is infinitely more pressing than that of the Philippines, so far as the necessity of Congressional action is concerned, but the dominant party becomes very deliberate when it is a matter of saving an island from threatened and imminent ruin. The Ways and Means Committee has postponed all consideration of changes in the tariff affecting Cuba until after the holidays, and meanwhile the beet-sugar interests are rallying their forces to prevent anything being done even then. It is encouraging to observe, however, that leading Republican newspapers which believe in a high tariff will not consent to so heartless a policy. The *Tribune* returned to the subject on Saturday, citing the letter written in 1899 by Messrs. Oxnard and Cutting, the chiefs of the beet-sugar industry east of the Rocky Mountains, which the *Evening Post* published on Thursday, as a conclusive answer to the pleas that this industry would be harmed by concessions to the sugar interests of Cuba. It sums up the argument forcibly when it puts these questions:

> "In the face of these authoritative and voluntary declarations of only two years ago, with what consistency can the beet-sugar interests now oppose reciprocity with Cuba? If in 1899 they had nothing to fear from free trade in sugar with Cuba and all the world, what can they have to fear in 1901 from only a 50 per cent. reduction in the duty on Cuban sugar alone?"

The writers of the letter in question did not depend upon *a-priori* reasoning to prove that they could make sugar at a profit without tariff protection. They pointed to the fact that, under the McKinley tariff of 1890, when sugar was free of duty, the price of the article was 4 cents per pound. Yet a net profit of $3 per ton was made by the beet-sugar factories under those conditions, not counting any bounty on the home production of sugar. They boasted that they made this profit while working under absolute free trade, and they have a right to be proud of this result of their skill and industry. Many beet-sugar factories had been started in bygone years, in the sixties and seventies of the nineteenth century, and had failed, because the projectors did not understand the business. Since then great progress has been made, both here and abroad, in the cultivation and manipulation of the beet. What was impossible thirty years ago is now entirely feasible. The industry is already on a solid and enduring basis. There are factories in the United States, these gentlemen tell us in their letter, capable of using 350,000 tons of beets per annum at a profit of $3 per ton, and this would make a profit of $1,050,000 as the income to be earned under absolute free trade.

That is an extremely cruel amendment of the civil-service rules which President Roosevelt approved on December 10, and which forbids the disbursing and auditing officers to pay the salary or wages of any person "holding a place in the civil service in violation of the civil-service act and rules." The deliberate malice of this we must leave it to the spoilsmen to describe in suitable language. All their tricks and shifts to "beat the law" and get a "place" for a "man" will be in vain if the place is to be cut off from the money that goes with it. What shall it profit a spoilsmonger to compass sea and land to get a follower in the classified service by stratagem or irregularity, and then lose even the wages expected for the underhand work? It is the most heartless use of the power of the purse that ever was heard of. Little did the politicians think that Mr. Roosevelt would take advantage of the expert knowledge which he gained as Civil-Service Commissioner, for their special discomfiture.

Indiana politicians will consider the selection by President Roosevelt of Judge Baker of their State Supreme Court for the vacant United States Circuit Judgeship, in its real or supposed aspect, as an indication of the influence at the White House of the two Senators; Baker having been zealously urged by Mr. Beveridge, while Mr. Fairbanks preferred almost anybody else. A far more important feature of the appointment is the evidence which it furnishes that the President does not regard sympathy with the Expansion policy as an indispensable qualification of a new Federal judge. The appointee has been an Anti-Imperialist all along, and openly opposed

the Porto Rico policy of the McKinley Administration two years ago. Many politicians supposed that evidence of this would bar him from further consideration, despite his conspicuous fitness, and it is greatly to Mr. Roosevelt's credit that he attached no weight whatever to the argument.

Another anti-Addicks appointment in Delaware, with President Roosevelt's compliments to Senator Hanna! That gentleman's friends, North and South—particularly South—are beginning to mutter in pain over the entire disregard shown by the reckless young man in the White House for a carefully constructed political machine. Answering, but (as yet) subdued, wails of anguish come from the Fairbanks machine in Indiana and the Kerens machine in Missouri. The various chief engineers exchange looks of amazement. "He thinks he can get along without Us!" That is the thing which overcomes them with special wonder: a President of the United States goes coolly, even gayly, right over the heads of the bosses to select good men for office! Is he mad? Or does he not really want to be renominated? As to that last, we presume that President Roosevelt is not bothering his head about it. He does not need to. No President by taking thought could do so much to increase his real political strength as Mr. Roosevelt has done since he entered the White House by *not* taking thought. The country has seen in him a President unafraid and absolutely honest. For all that such a man needs to care, even in political matters, the bosses may go hang. Grover Cleveland showed how to be renominated though opposed by all his party bosses; and it may be that Theodore Roosevelt will again exhibit in that way the power of "bravery's simple gravitation."

Apropos of Saylor's appointment, the following paragraph from President Roosevelt's message has a special significance:

> "The guardianship and fostering of our rapidly expanding foreign commerce, the protection of American citizens resorting to foreign countries in lawful pursuit of their affairs, and the maintenance of the dignity of the nation abroad, combine to *make it essential that our consuls should be men of character*, knowledge, and enterprise. It is true that the service is now, in the main, efficient, but a standard of excellence cannot be permanently maintained until the principles set forth in the bills heretofore submitted to the Congress on this subject are enacted into law."

No words that we could write would be half so fitting to apply to the case of Saylor as those we have quoted. How is "the dignity of the nation abroad" to be promoted by an exposed swindler? The fact is, that an exequatur has been refused in Germany to a man appointed as American consul whose misconduct was less notorious than that of Saylor. If the Canadian authorities should refuse one to Saylor, they would deserve and receive the applause of the best portion of the American people. The nation ought not to be exposed to such a rebuke. Mr. Roosevelt owes it to himself and to the cause of consular reform, to which he is so grandly committed, to recall this nomination at once.

In the issue for November 25 of the *Revue Américaine*, a journal published in Brussels expressly in the interests of South America, the Consul of Venezuela in Amsterdam, Señor R. Blanco Fombona, set forth with great frankness and precision what he calls the true "formula" for the foreign policy of the Latin-American republics. This is, he declares, "to arm themselves with the Monroe Doctrine against Europe, and with the Latin idea and Latin commercial interests against the United States." Señor Fombona points to the successful way in which his own country, Venezuela, induced the United States to pull its chestnuts out of the fire in 1895. As for any real affinity, or grateful return on account of such favors, he scoffs at the idea. He has lived in the United States for several years, and thinks he knows the Yankees well; and this is what he says of them:

> "Between their ideals and ours there is an abyss. There is the greatest difference between their conception of life and our own. They, the children of the English, are selfish, proud, hateful; they believe only in their own race. They hold us to be their inferiors. We South Americans feel ourselves much nearer to Latin Europe. France, Italy, Spain are the land of our race and of our love. In literary matters, and socially and politically, these are the countries which influence us the most."

If there are some exaggerations and some oversights in this, there is undoubtedly a great deal of truth in it. That truth it is high time we got into our heads. We have been, in some respects, made tools of by the South Americans. Our interferences in their behalf have cost them nothing, but have cost us dear, while they have still given the greater part of their affection and their trade to Europe. This is an aspect of the international situation which the United States would do well to consider in the pending case of Germany's new claim against Venezuela. A German warship is said to be on her way to collect a Venezuelan debt, and our Jingoes are ruffling with displeasure. Has not the day come, however, to take a business view of these business matters? Are we going to let the South Americans think they can safely, in our shadow, play fast and loose with their European obligations while not even dissembling their aversion to us?

When the Fine Arts Federation, for its eleven constituent societies, passed resolutions favoring the construction of a "United States Arts Exhibition Building," it practically announced the successful completion of negotiations extending over some years. It meant the renunciation of many traditional rivalries, and the declaration of a spirit of comity which art societies have rarely shown. In its tersest expression, the plan is this: to build in a location above Fourteenth Street and, if possible, on some park or great thoroughfare in this city, an exhibition building, to occupy an acre of ground, and to cost not less than a million and a half dollars. Since the resources of the eleven societies which make up the Federation are totally inadequate to carry out the plan, the artists must count upon the support of such laymen as are interested in art. Good causes seldom languish in New York when they are properly presented, and we may assume that the Fine Arts Federation has in view some more elaborate presentation of its case than is contained in the recent resolutions. When the appeal for public support comes, it will be made clear that the building of a dignified home for current art is rather more in the interest of the public than of the artist. For the art societies are already creditably housed, and if artists generally are suffering from lack of popular appreciation, their case is not so grievous as to force them to open complaint. That the artists will gain by exhibiting in a more impressive fashion is certain, but the average cultivated New Yorker will find an even greater benefit and convenience in the annual exhibition of the Federated Art Societies. We greatly need in this city a clearing-house between the artist and the public. Studio visiting, as it obtains on the Continent, has never become a custom in New York. With the best will in the world, it is really difficult for one interested in the art of his own time to see and enjoy what is being done in his own town.

Mr. Coler took up on Saturday a neglected aspect of the debt-limit question. He acutely pointed out that, as things now stand, the more New York's assets amount to, the less it can borrow. That is to say, if such works as docks, the subway, and others of similar character were not owned by the city, they would be owned by individual corporations, and as such would be taxable. The city's borrowing power would thus be increased by the due proportion of the assessed valuation of these public works, whereas now they are not assessed at all. Of course, this assumes that if the city had not undertaken the works, some other agency would have done so, and that may not be wholly certain. But the main point of Mr. Coler's argument is clear—the works exist and do add to the tangible property of the city. They should, therefore, be regarded as an asset. Prob-

ably his suggested plan that the Constitution be so amended as to permit cities to assess their own property would be as feasible a process for getting at the matter as any.

The official announcement that the Pennsylvania Railroad Company is going to bring its line into the heart of New York city, by means of a tunnel under the North River, and is to extend this tunnel under the East River, so as to make an underground connection between its main system and the Long Island Railroad, which it now controls, insures the greatest advance in transportation facilities for the metropolis ever made in a single step. It will give the travelling public, for the first time, two lines by which people may leave the city for distant points in through cars, and may reach New York from the far West or South, without the delay and discomfort of transfer to ferryboats; and it will also enable residents of Manhattan to take cars from a central locality on this island to any point on Long Island without having recourse, as now, to a ferryboat across the East River. With the assured growth of Long Island as a summer resort for New Yorkers, this latter change alone would be one of great importance. Of tremendous consequence also to the people of Brooklyn is the fact that it will be possible to take through cars for remote points in the country from the business centre of that borough, and in like manner to reach that spot from a distance as easily as though Brooklyn were a part of the mainland. But it is in the larger aspect of the matter—as showing the conclusion of the best engineering experts and the wisest financiers that, with electrical development, the tunnel is superior to the bridge when there is a choice between the two—that the action of the Pennsylvania Company is most important. Such an example will attract attention and secure imitation all over the country.

The shrinkage in Europe's use of copper, since the sudden contraction in the French and German electrical industry, has been so great that, notwithstanding a decrease of some 60 per cent. in Europe's copper imports from the United States, the European price has fallen within a year some £20 per ton, or more than 25 per cent. Of this violent decline, the greater part has occurred in the past three months. Only last month "spot copper" sold in London at £66.17 per ton; a week ago it was quoted at £52.10. Keeping in view the suddenness and widespread violence of the trade contraction, this fall in prices was scarcely to be wondered at. It may conceivably have been exaggerated, though it must be remembered that the price of copper has been ruling about the highest level reached in the Secretan corner of 1889, and that the world's present copper production is probably nearly double what it was at that time. In the face of this heavy and continuous break in the European price of copper, the so-called official price of our Amalgamated Copper Company has virtually not been reduced at all. Two very interesting results have followed this curious situation. A large stock of unsold copper has accumulated in the hands of the American company, which has had to cut dividends in consequence. On the other side, European companies have actually increased production from nine thousand tons a month to ten thousand; and that they have sold all this increased output, even in the depressed condition of European trade, is shown by the fact that Europe's reported visible supply has not increased at all. This, on the whole, was a very comfortable situation for such properties as the Rio Tinto, which operates the rich Spanish copper mines. But it was obviously less agreeable for the Amalgamated Copper, which last month was confronted with a further fall in American copper exports to the lowest monthly total in five years. Nothing is more natural than that the Amalgamated Copper Company should use every effort to bring the Rio Tinto Company to terms—at least, to stop this continued increase in competitive European production.

Marconi's marvellous experiments of Thursday and Friday last naturally find doubters, for it not only strains the faith, but almost baffles the imagination of the layman, to believe that from a signal pole in England to a kite in Newfoundland recognizable signals passed across eighteen hundred miles of ocean. That such was the fact, however, there seems hardly the slightest ground for doubting. In fact, Mr. Marconi's published interviews on the subject only heighten the confidence that is felt in him as a man of science. The frank acknowledgment that a signal rather than a verbal message was chosen because the instruments are still too imperfect for the more difficult test, shows the temper of the scientist rather than the headlong enthusiasm of the mere inventor. When the first Atlantic cable was laid, it worked badly, and transmitted few public messages, and many cautious people denied that it had worked at all. The most circumstantial evidence was necessary to prove that the uncertain and intermittent workings of an imperfect cable were anything other than fabrications of a disappointed and unscrupulous promoter. It is needless to say that Cyrus W. Field's vindication came. It seems as unlikely that Marconi and his skilled operators can have been deceived in the repeated experiments of two days, as it was either that the first operators of the Atlantic cable imagined they got messages from Ireland, or that Cyrus W. Field lied about his great enterprise. In the enthusiasm that the marvellous success naturally arouses, and in the field it offers to the imagination, one may well imitate the example of moderation which the great inventor himself has shown. Wireless telegraphy is still in its beginnings, and while there seems reason to hope that its practical application may prove successful until it is in every-day use across great distances, we suspend speculation upon the changes which such an invention may effect.

A movement now on foot against duelling in Austria-Hungary gives hopes that the days of the code in that empire are numbered. Duelling has survived the last century only in virtue of a factitious but most tyrannical public opinion. Its discontinuance in England and America has been less the result of legislation than of social disapproval. The fact that the Viennese committee, consisting of three hundred persons, has secured the adherence of the best Austrian society, is the most encouraging sign that the campaign against a barbarous practice is likely to prove successful. The proposal that personal disputes of a serious nature be referred to courts of honor has a mediæval flavor, although it may be very well suited to Continental conditions. For the Continent differs from England and America in having a more highly developed social and collective sense, and a deeper regard for aristocratic tradition. Since the duel, though rare, is still a fight to the death in Austria, where a distressing case has recently aroused general indignation, one cannot doubt that the reform is undertaken in all sincerity.

The report that the Kaiser will henceforth pass on all cases where the military courts of honor have declared a duel necessary, seems to show that the attitude of the court towards duelling has changed of late, and that the horror which Germany has felt at the sacrifice of Lieut. Blaskowitch to the code is shared in the highest quarters. It has been overlooked that the imperial order of 1897 for the courts of honor was already admirable in tone. "If an officer has given offence in haste or in passion," it reads, "his honorable course is not to persist in the wrong, but to strike hands in an amicable arrangement"; and, again, the duty of a council of honor is "to use every intelligent effort to secure a friendly explanation." It was the signal failure of Lieut. Blaskowitch's commanding officer, since dismissed the service, to act in the spirit of this order, which has led the Emperor to supervise personally the decisions of the courts of honor, and to make himself the arbiter in cases of deadly insult.

THE CUBAN PERIL.

In his recent message to Congress President Roosevelt called attention to the distressing conditions impending in the island of Cuba, and pointed out the necessity of some immediate steps to avert a grave danger. He said:

"I most earnestly ask your attention to the wisdom, indeed to the vital need, of providing for a substantial reduction in the tariff duties on Cuban imports into the United States. Cuba has in her Constitution affirmed what we desired, that she should stand, in international matters, in closer and more friendly relations with us than with any other Power; and we are bound by every consideration of honor and expediency to pass commercial measures in the interest of her material well-being."

Since these words were uttered by the President, additional information has been received from the Military Governor, showing that unless something is done at once to afford relief to the planters, bankruptcy will befall the greater number of them. They will not be able to pay the money they have borrowed to make the present crop. They cannot keep their laborers employed, and the latter will be reduced to beggary or brigandage. The situation is already desperate. It may become revolutionary.

The President is said to be contemplating a special message to Congress to recommend the passage of a temporary measure for the admission of Cuban sugar to our ports free of duty, or at half the present rates, for six months, in order to save the island from the impending disaster. It is to be hoped that he may do so before the holiday recess, and that he may put into it the energy that he displayed in pushing the Franchise Tax Bill in New York. He might not be able to secure the immediate passage of the bill, but he could produce so profound an impression on public opinion that it would be likely to pass early in January, and so avert the threatened calamity.

Of course, it will be said that the bill is unphilosophical; that it will be virtually a donation of money from the United States to Cuba, and that if such a donation is to be made, it would be better to make it directly by an appropriation of Congress than indirectly by a contribution from the taxpayers. It will be said also that if we admit Cuban sugar at half rates for six months, we shall be obliged to admit the sugar of other countries at the same rates, under the "most favored nation clause" of our foreign treaties. It has already been urged by objectors to the proposed plan that it would give a large additional profit to the Sugar Refineries Company, or Trust.

It is certainly desirable that the remission of duties shall be shared by the American consumer as well as by the Cuban producer. This might be secured by making the remission or reduction applicable to all the sugar imported during the six months. No American interest could be much harmed in that short period, and if some of them should lose a profit which they are now enjoying at the expense of the people, the latter will merely have recovered a small portion of their just dues. The admission of all sugar, refined as well as raw, for six months, at half the present rates, would prevent the Trust from getting any greater advantage than it enjoys under the present law. It would also prevent any difficulty from arising under the most-favored-nation clause.

Our own sugar-producers will resist the small concession to Cuba because it embodies what they call a breach of the principle of protection. They fear the effect of one example, even if it is only of six months' duration. They take the same ground that the owners of pine forests took after the great fire at Chicago, thirty years ago. The burned-out people of that city petitioned Congress for a remission of the duties on lumber used solely to replace buildings in the burned districts. This was a very small matter in itself, but it would be a very great matter if it should be customary to allow burned-out Americans to rebuild their houses without paying a tax to the lumber barons. When the Chicago petition reached Congress, it was opposed in the bitterest terms by the pine-forest owners of the State of Michigan, and they actually defeated the measure.

The protected sugar interests should bear in mind that the annexation of Cuba is one of the alternatives that they have to face. By resisting any and every measure for the relief of Cuba now, and by thus precipitating bankruptcy, beggary, and lawlessness upon the island so lately freed by American blood and treasure, they can create a public opinion which will bring Cuba into the American Union with all the trade privileges that Porto Rico now enjoys. Then there will be no duty on Cuban sugar. That is the future which our cane and beet-producers will have to face if they are blinded by their greed to the present danger.

It is plain that a treaty of reciprocity would not meet the present exigency. Even if there were parties by whom it could be negotiated, the time is not sufficient. It could not be made effective in regard to the present crop. But there is no treaty-making authority in Cuba now. There can be none until after the election next February. Our Supreme Court has decided that Cuba is a foreign country, yet the present government of the island is our government. We cannot make a treaty with ourselves, or with our own Military Governor in Cuba. Therefore, the crisis can be met only by an act of Congress.

THE SCHLEY VERDICT.

It was an English Admiral, John Byng, whose execution, on the verdict of a naval court-martial, gave point to the famous irony in "Candide," that he was shot "pour encourager les autres." Byng was found guilty simply of "negligence." He was expressly acquitted of "cowardice or disaffection," and the court recommended him to the mercy of the King. Yet the articles of war assigned the penalty of death for neglect in a naval officer to "do his utmost" to take or destroy the enemy's ships, and the sentence was carried out for reasons which, of course, were long and bitterly debated.

The real reason, however, may well have lain hidden in Voltaire's sarcasm. To "encourage the others" is, after all, the most powerful argument for holding a naval officer to the strictest accountability. The discipline, the prestige, the high sense of duty of the whole service are at stake in every naval court-martial or inquiry. Personal considerations cannot live in the atmosphere which should envelop the officers sitting in such a court—namely, that of pure devotion to the highest interests of the navy. They have nothing to do with the distribution of glory or the nice assignment of rewards. Their one duty is to determine and apply the loftiest standard of professional responsibility. For an American board of inquiry the sole questions should be, "Does the conduct of the officer before us conform to the stern laws and the glorious traditions of the American navy? Does it measure up to the example of a Lawrence, a Decatur, or a Farragut? Will it be an inspiration or a discouragement to the youngest midshipman, taught and resolved that to do his duty at all hazards is the one ambition and the sufficient laurel of every American naval officer?"

It goes without saying that the verdict against Admiral Schley, made public on Saturday, was rendered only in the discharge of a painful duty laid upon the able and high-minded officers composing the Board of Inquiry which the accused Admiral so tardily demanded. They find him guilty of "vacillation, dilatoriness, and lack of enterprise." They assert that "he did not do his utmost" to capture or destroy the Colon on May 31, 1898. This offence is punishable, in the American Articles of War, as in the English, with death. The verdict also finds that Schley did not "promptly obey" the order of the Navy Department, that his official reports regarding the coal supply and the coaling facilities of the Flying Squadron were "inaccurate and misleading," and that he "did injustice" to Lieutenant-Commander Hodgson by publishing a garbled version of the correspondence that passed between them. Schley's personal coolness and courage in battle are, on the other hand, certified to as unquestioned. This last is reason for general congratulation. The American navy is at least

relieved from the charge—always unthinkable—that it had an officer in high command capable of cowardice in the face of the enemy.

The verdict of the Board of Inquiry, by a further example of the unhappy fate which has attended the Schley controversy from the beginning, is exposed to misunderstanding by the public. The Admiral's friends at once began to shout that he was condemned only by a majority of the court—composed of two officers who were never in a really important battle—while glorious Dewey stood by his brother-hero in every particular. But what is the cold fact? Admiral Dewey must be held to agree with Admirals Benham and Ramsay except in the points where he records a specific dissent. These are entirely minor. They do not touch those capital features of the verdict which we have already quoted, and which constitute the final condemnation of Admiral Schley. Dewey, in other words, found him guilty on all the main counts of the indictment, but cleared him on subordinate charges. Then, in a burst of amiable but mistaken generosity, he gave an opinion on a matter not before the Board, and on which evidence had been rigidly excluded—namely, that Schley was senior officer present in the battle of Santiago, and was entitled to the credit for the "glorious victory." That this is the total legal effect of Dewey's "vindication" of Schley is made clear by the Judge-Advocate's explanation, which has, indeed, silenced all but the more unblushing partisans.

Much keen disappointment and indignation is naturally expressed by Schley's counsel at the damaging nature of the verdict against their client, and some of his partisans are clamoring for a Congressional investigation to break the effect of the findings of the Board of Inquiry. But this is only a counsel of rage, which will be given no heed, we devoutly hope, after the first ebullitions have subsided, and after the crushing character of the findings against Admiral Schley has had time to impress itself upon the public mind. The Board recommends that nothing be done, and surely that is the one way to relieve the Navy from further bitterness and impairment of morale in connection with this most unfortunate affair. Leave it hereafter to the historians. Let the case take its place among the historic disputes like that over the conduct of Grouchy in connection with the battle of Waterloo, about which men may debate to the end of time without coming to an agreement. It is enough that Schley's brother-officers have now spoken. To them the Navy, at any rate, will listen. And their verdict will accomplish the one great result desired—that is, make it certain that no American commodore will ever again think that he can be dilatory, negligent, inaccurate, vacillating, and disobedient, when charged with an important mission, and still be able to retain the approval and respect of his brothers in arms.

BRANCH BANKING.

Mr. A. B. Stickney, President of the Chicago Great Western Railway, delivered an address before the Marquette Club in Chicago on Saturday evening, in which he set forth, at somewhat greater length, the views on changes needed in our banking system which he had given in outline at the Bankers' Convention in Milwaukee last October. He holds that we need a "Central Reserve Bank," akin to the Bank of England in its function as keeper of the ultimate gold reserve of the country, but not as a Government bank, like the old Bank of the United States, nor as a note-issuing institution. It should be an outgrowth, a product of evolution, and would be such, in his opinion, if the Government would simply withdraw from the banking business itself and allow the national banks to have branches, according to the system prevailing in Great Britain, and especially in Scotland, where it has reached its highest perfection.

In some comments on Mr. Stickney's address at Milwaukee, we assumed that he contemplated the establishment of an institution akin to the Bank of the United States, which expired in Jackson's second Presidential term after a bitter political contest. This, we said, was "practically and politically impossible, and could be expected only by a thorough Utopist." Mr. Stickney disavows and expressly repudiates any such intention, saying:

> "It was not my intention to advocate the establishment of such a bank. I entirely agree that the establishment of such a bank, which would be rehabilitating the old Biddle Bank of the United States, is practically and politically impossible. I am prepared to go further than my critics. I deny that it is ideally perfect in theory, and it is my conviction that such a bank not only never could, but never should, be again established in the United States."

Mr. Stickney goes even further, and says that he does not advocate any system to be established by Congressional legislation. He merely wants Congress to keep hands off and leave banks to grow in their own way. But in order to keep hands off, the Government must retire its circulating notes of all kinds. The Treasury must restrict itself to the collection and disbursement of the public revenues, and cease to act as the keeper of the ultimate gold reserve which guarantees the solvency of all business, public and private. It must leave the banks free as regards their deposit and discount operations—as free as they are in Europe. They must be allowed to have branches, many or few. Out of such a system he thinks that a central reserve bank would grow as a labor-saving device, in order to avoid the necessity of duplicating the reserves and moving large masses of metal hither and thither. Any existing bank might be selected for this purpose, or a new one might be created by common consent, and it might be incorporated under the law of a State.

We have at all times favored the retirement of the Government from the banking business. By this is meant its restriction to the fiscal operation which it performed before the civil war. By the act of March 14, 1900, the fiscal and the banking functions of the Treasury were separated from each other, and two departments were created, one containing the divisions of issue and redemption, and the other the general fund. The divisions of issue and redemption embrace what are commonly called the banking functions. Once get rid of these, and the Treasury reverts to the ante-bellum conditions. To get rid of them altogether is only a question of detail, but it is a formidable one, requiring, in the first place, a renovation of public opinion on the whole question of banking and currency. This does not seem so formidable to Mr. Stickney as the change which has been effected on the silver question since the enactment of the Bland Silver Law in 1878. In this conjecture he is probably right. At all events, this divorce is what all advocates of a sound currency system must continue to strive for. It is only six years since it was a doubtful question whether the legal-tender notes of the United States should be redeemed in gold or not, and if the decision had been left to Congress, they would not have been redeemed. President Cleveland and Secretary Carlisle received no help from that quarter, but rather the contrary, in their endeavors to perform in good faith the banking functions of the Government, by maintaining the parity of the greenbacks.

We agree with Mr. Stickney that the banks should be allowed to have branches for discount and deposit wherever they please. Such a system would be greatly to the advantage of the borrower, by distributing the capital of the banks where it is most needed. Under such a system the rates of interest would be equalized, or would tend toward equality, between the large cities and the small towns. Knowledge of the demand and supply of money would be quickly conveyed by the branch at the small town to the parent bank in the city, and funds could be quickly transferred to the branch, either from the parent bank or from any other branch where the demand was less pressing. The advantage of branch banking consists in the facility which it affords for gaining knowledge of the relative needs of business in different places and of responding to those needs, through agents on

the ground possessing the necessary local knowledge. It is this which has made the Scotch system so effective and useful to the small industries of that country, and especially to agriculture.

Whether a central reserve bank would result naturally from the branch system or not, that system should be adopted for its own sake. This might be done without waiting for the Government to retire its greenbacks and take itself out of the banking field.

THE EIGHT-HOUR DAY.

Mr. Low's stand in favor of a short working day for public employees, and President Roosevelt's urging of further Federal legislation on the same subject, give special timeliness to a comprehensive account of the eight-hour movement published by Dr. A. F. Weber, in the last report of the New York Bureau of Labor Statistics. It appears that the movement has thus far failed to attain its object, except in special classes of industries. The only country which does not fall under this general statement is Australia, where the hours of the working day have, all round, been reduced to eight. Great Britain and the United States follow with averages of 9 and 9¾ hours, respectively, but most Continental laborers work longer. While these averages hold good for the general field of industry, the eight-hour day has frequently been secured in employments where the nature of the industry made it possible to form a close organization among the men, and where employers were not directly exposed to competition with others who could get labor on more favorable terms. Of such occupations the building trades furnish a conspicuous example, the world over. Although the hours of work in other trades have materially decreased, there are not more than three or four cases in the United States in which they have been generally reduced to so low a figure.

The slowness with which the movement has progressed by private agreement has naturally led to a demand for legislation. Uniform laws on the subject have, however, been impossible in our commonwealths, because of the Constitutional guarantees of freedom of contract. New York was among the earliest States to pass laws for an eight-hour day, and her experience is typical. The original law of 1870, amended in 1894, 1897, 1899, and 1900, is very explicit in fixing eight hours as the standard day, but the provisions of the act have been practically a dead letter because of the Constitutional necessity of admitting agreements for overtime. Yet this has not prevented the regulation of the work of women and children in factories and stores, as regards both their hours of labor and the age at which they may take up such employment.

Quite a different phase of the question is presented in regulating the work of public servants. The Government may, of course, prescribe the conditions under which it will enter into contracts, and many of the States have limited the hours of work for public employees —usually to eight. Furthermore, it has been sought to interpret some of these short-hour statutes in such wise as to include not merely direct public service, but also the work of all employed in the manufacture of commodities under public contract. Such an issue was involved in the recent New York case of Downey vs. Bender. The decision of the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court last January rejected this attempted extension of the scope of the law. How difficult would be the enforcement of an act covering indirect labor for the public was clearly shown by Secretary Gage in a letter written March 12, 1898, when a similar bill limiting the hours of all workmen employed in producing goods or engaged in services for the Federal Government was being discussed before the House Committee on Labor. Mr. Gage pointed out that:

> "A proper and efficient supervision of the hours of service of the employees of contractors and sub-contractors, for the purpose of noting any violation of the law, would necessitate the employment of a force of inspectors sufficient to oversee the work performed under every contract and sub-contract, extending out indefinitely."

Before an eight-hour law can be intelligently enacted, it must be understood whether or not a reduction in hours is to be accompanied by a corresponding reduction in pay. If wages are to be lower, the eight-hour plan is merely a proposal to subdivide work and to help solve the problem of the unemployed. Such an altruistic motive as this is very far from the intention of the advocates of a shorter working day. What they mean when they ask for eight hours, is eight hours with the same wages that are now paid for a considerably longer period. The main economic argument advanced in support of such a demand is the fallacy that limitation of hours will necessarily result in higher wages. This idea was recently expressed by a labor journal, cited by Dr. Weber, as follows: "If we succeed in passing this bill [a Federal eight-hour law], it will create such a demand for labor as was never experienced, will raise wages, and give a boost to the labor movement that will make it respected by those who are its antagonists."

From the purely economic standpoint, the eight-hour question turns merely upon the point at which the maximum productiveness of the worker is reached. Whether this point is represented by the 9½-hour day is, of course, open to question. One thing, however, is certain—a maximum efficiency cannot be attained by equal hours of work in all occupations. An example of the strange results which may follow a general enforcement of the eight-hour plan is seen in the experience under the New York law of 1899, which necessitated largely increased payments to lock-tenders employed on the State canals—a class of men to whom the eight-hour principle is absolutely inapplicable, since their work is intermittent, and most of their time may be spent at their homes near the locks of which they are in charge. The absurdity of an eight-hour day in domestic service and in farming is manifest. Yet there are many occupations in which it would lead to difficulties fully as great. The point of maximum efficiency of labor can be determined, not theoretically, but only by the study of a large number of specific instances, under free competition. As for the reasons advanced for granting unusually favorable terms to public employees, thus making them a favored class, we have frequently expressed the opinion that they are not sound.

ROSEBERY AND ENGLISH POLITICS.

Lord Rosebery might well pray to be saved from those friends of his who aroused such extravagant expectations in regard to his Chesterfield speech. No orator could have so cleft the earth with a single utterance as it was thundered in the index that he would do. The result is inevitable disappointment. Like the French plenipotentiary who sent relays of heralds and messengers to announce his coming with excited and repeated cries of *Monseigneur vient!* it is a rather pitiful figure which his Lordship cuts when we at last see the real man instead of the trumpeted hero. As a trained public speaker, Lord Rosebery must know that it is a tactical mistake to key up in advance the curiosity of his audience to a pitch which it is impossible for him to satisfy; and nothing is more disastrous to a political leader than for predictions of his supernatural wisdom to have no fulfilment. If Rosebery's speech had not been heralded as a kind of new political gospel of salvation for English parties, one might have thought rather well of it; the odious comparison is that of the assumed demigod with the man himself, who has to confess that he sometimes thinks he has no more wit than an ordinary Christian.

Punch had, some time ago, a clever cartoon in which Lord Rosebery appeared as the "Deus *in* (not *ex*) Machina." He was staying in the bathing-machine, thence safely to give bland advice to those struggling in the waves. This air of detachment clings to his latest deliverance, in spite of his somewhat theatric intimation that the country would know where to find him if it wanted his services. Yes, but how is he to serve? Not by well-turned phrases about efficiency of government and the

need of technical education. Salisbury or Bannerman would agree to all that; what politician, in fact, so abandoned as not to agree? Political service in England means service through a party, and what has Rosebery to say about party government? Not a word that alters the situation. He severely arraigns the Conservatives, and says that Great Britain is lost if there is no possibility of an alternative party in power. But what about the only possible alternative party, the Liberals? They are hopelessly divided. They ought to "get together"; but how, Lord Rosebery warns his hearers not to ask him. He does not know. But he did know how further to divide the Liberal party, and proceeded to do it, so far as in him lay, by contemptuously throwing over the Irish alliance, and by going out of his way to differ with the National Liberal Federation. As late as December 4, that body of more than 500 delegates unanimously adopted a resolution calling for the displacement of Lord Milner as High Commissioner in South Africa. On December 16, Rosebery coolly remarks that he cannot understand the desire of "certain persons" to "get rid of Lord Milner"! Thus to flout the accredited action of his party is his way to harmonize it and to lead it.

We can see no promise either of a programme or of leadership in Lord Rosebery's speech, so long awaited with such comical anxiety. The most that he can possibly do at present is to form a small "cave." Into it he could probably draw a few Liberals. Into it there might also tentatively go a discontented Conservative faction. There can be no doubt of the great and growing dissatisfaction with Lord Salisbury's Government within the ranks of his own nominal followers. Mr. Winston Churchill has already organized a little group of dissident Conservatives. Bluff Lord Charles Beresford is expected to join them when he gives up his Mediterranean command in February and enters Parliament again. He recently wrote a letter expressing the gloomiest discontent with the course of the Conservatives, and saying, "We have no strong, bold, clear-headed leader, and we are drifting—where?" This body of disgusted Conservatives, joined possibly by a few Liberal Unionists, have been thought of as possibly going over to Lord Rosebery's Liberal nucleus to form a new party—the party of "all the best men," as it has been called. It is indeed true that such an independent element in Parliament might play a valuable part in the way of fearless criticism; it might even, in time, become a new party if it had a definite programme and a resolute and untiring leader; but with Rosebery cracking jokes in the Lords, instead of pushing the fight in the Commons, and with no platform except disagreement with both parties, what hope is there of the formation of any such new party? We confess we see none.

On all the questions connected with the Boer war, Lord Rosebery's trumpet gives a perfectly modulated but most uncertain sound. Where he would have changed the Government's policy in the past, or would alter it in the present, he scarcely intimates, except in the one matter of greater tact. He seems to think that a graceful and honied speaker in the Colonial Office could have prevented the general ill-will which Great Britain has suffered as a result of the South African war. Mr. Chamberlain's blunt and unmannerly phrases have, he apparently believes, wrought all the mischief. This is an amazing evidence of the purely academic view which Lord Rosebery takes of the whole matter. Skilful phraseology, in his mind, could make ignoble actions seem worthy; fine words could have kept Germany and France and the United States from feeling as they do about England's attitude in the Boer war. Talk about the efficiency of Government comes ill from a statesman capable of such a pure trifler's inefficiency as that.

Let Rosebery say what he may, the Boer war lies like a frightful nightmare upon English politics. Until it is over, there is no possibility of turning out the Conservative Government. There are recent signs—chief among them the confident feeling in the financial world—that some way out of that horrible war may soon be found. Then there will undoubtedly come a readjustment of parties in England. When it does, and the Liberals look about for a new leader, it will be strange indeed if they turn to a man who has, in these times of stress, had no clear note of leadership to sound, and who has so perversely taken for his motto the advice given by Talleyrand to Thiers, "If you want to rise, make enemies."

A RELIGIOUS RIOT IN ATHENS.

ATHENS, November 23, 1901.

The Greek portion of the Eastern Church has never made any noteworthy effort to have the Bible become a popular book. The Septuagint version and the original texts of the New Testament cannot be read with ease by the uneducated Greek, because of words and constructions that are obsolete and unfamiliar to him. The Church has published and disseminated no official translation, although at least three patriarchs of Constantinople were in favor of doing so. The arguments commonly advanced here against such a translation are, that the original text should remain the palladium of Greek orthodoxy so long as a Greek people exists; that a paraphrase of it into modern Greek would be an unnecessary profanation; that the possession of the Testaments in ancient Greek is one of the special glories of the churches of Constantinople and Greece and the other Hellenic Sees of the East; that if a translation into modern Greek were sanctioned, then translations into Bulgarian and Albanian and Arabic and other languages of nations hostile to Greek interests would likewise have to be sanctioned, and thus the Greek division of the Eastern Church would lose her quasi-primacy and the Russians come into undisputed supremacy; finally, that a translation would be injurious to traditional orthodoxy, and therefore likewise injurious to Hellenic national aspirations. Accordingly, the opposition is based partly on religious and partly on national grounds.

Notwithstanding these reasons, specious or honest, various translations have been made and have been freely circulated in the kingdom of Greece, both by foreign Bible Societies and by native Hellenes. About two years ago, under the patronage of Queen Olga, who is notably interested in the welfare and morality of the lower people, Dr. Papadopoulos, professor in the ecclesiastical seminary here, elaborated a careful translation of the New Testament, and the Queen made an effort to have it approved by the Holy Synod of Archbishops which directs the religious affairs of Greece. The Synod did not approve of the translation, but the Metropolitan of Athens, Prokopios, was personally in favor of it, and therefore the Queen felt at liberty to cause the translation to be privately published and quietly distributed, especially to the army. Ever since that time the question regarding the usefulness or harm of such a translation has come up for occasional discussion in the daily papers of Athens; and some months ago one of the leading morning journals, the *Akropolis*, began publishing as a serial an entirely new and sensational translation, the work of Mr. Palles, a Greek merchant residing in Manchester. His translation was made in a most vigorous popular form of language, not free from slang phrases and innumerable vulgarisms. It heated the indignation of various classes of opponents, for it was offensive not only to those who on principle object to all translations, but likewise to such as were unwilling to see the Bible used as a mere advertising scheme, and to such as for other reasons, glossological rather than religious, are opposed to the style of language adopted by Mr. Palles. The *Akropolis*, in leading articles, defended the Pallesan translation. All the other journals of Athens, except the *Asty*, attacked it fiercely.

Somewhat more than a month ago, the Patriarch of Constantinople addressed a letter to the Metropolitan and the Holy Synod of Athens, exhorting them to forbid the publishing and circulating of Palles's translation and others of the same kind. The Synod, instead of conforming with this wish, resented the Patriarch's interference, and took no action. The Patriarch has no jurisdiction over the Church of Greece. The professors of the theological faculty of the University likewise sent a memorial to the Synod, asking that decision be taken against translations. The Synod still remained inattentive. At the same time Palles directed a disrespectful open letter against the Patriarch, and the *Akropolis* used the theological professors as butts for its sarcasm.

The matter seemed to be chiefly a newspaper war until, on the afternoon of November 18, eight hundred students of the University unexpectedly assembled, and, compelling the professors to stop their lec-

tures, undertook to solve by riotous force all questions involved. Their anger was directed against Palles's translation and the *Akropolis*, which published it, against the *Asty*, which defended the translations, against the Holy Synod, which had not acted, and indirectly against Russian intriguing in Greece. Queen Olga is a Russian by birth and an active apostle of Panslavism, and the students imagined that her interest in the spread of the translations must in some way be a bit of Russian propaganda. The entire populace of Athens was in blind sympathy with the students. These, about two thousand in number, stormed the offices of the *Akropolis* and the *Asty*, and exacted promises that these papers would on the following day retract their defence of the translations. The promises were given, but were not kept. They gathered around the palace of the Metropolitan, and demanded that the Synod disapprove of the translations and anathematize them. The frightened Metropolitan immediately consented, and, on the following day, November 20, the Synod gave out a decision forbidding such translations and their use, without, however, adding the anathema. Because of this omission, on November 21 the students, accompanied by thousands of other men and boys, kept up the disturbance. Finally the Government, which kept detachments of soldiers and sailors drawn up in all the principal streets round the University, where the students had their headquarters, decided to interfere more energetically, and to prevent the students from leaving the University in a solid body. The result was a conflict of the students and populace against the police and soldiers. According to inadequate reports, eight were killed outright and thirty-four were wounded. For a few hours it was feared that a revolution might break out. News came over the wires announcing that the excitement had spread to the provinces, and that the men from other towns were preparing to come down into Athens. But the Government, entirely cowed, made overtures immediately to conciliate the students and the multitude, and agreed to withdraw the troops from the streets around the University.

On the following day, November 22, the bodies of the students who had been shot by the police were carried in funeral procession to the cathedral and cemetery, followed by thousands. The Government, to appease all excited spirits, promised to keep all police and soldiers away from the streets through which the funeral cortège was to pass, and kept its word. After the rites were over, the students returned to the University in a body and slept there during the following night, as they had been doing since November 18. They have stationed guards around the building, and no one is now allowed to approach save students. The Government has promised not to molest them there, if only they keep inside the premises. What the final outcome will be is not certain, but in all probability they will, after one or two days, return the keys of the University to the Rector, and this odd and disgraceful affair will be at an end. Possibly they may cause some further trouble by insisting on their demand that the Synod curse the translations. It seems, however, not easy to believe that the Synod will be so weak as to yield to such a demand made in such a way. To satisfy the students and all others concerned, the Metropolitan was on the 22d of November ordered to resign, and he obeyed at once. DANIEL QUINN.

THE WIFE OF JUNOT.—II.

PARIS, December 5, 1901.

On his return to France, after the Convention of Cintra, Junot was not allowed to come to Paris. He was to land at Nantes or at La Rochelle, and immediately go back to Spain. Napoleon, after he had landed at La Rochelle, showed Madame Junot the translation of a paragraph from an English newspaper, conceived in these terms: "We had the good fortune to bring back to France one of the brave generals of the army of the Corsican; but he was not alone, and we were able to convince ourselves again that the East has inculcated its manners in him. His seraglio was even more numerous than in 1801; Madame F—— and the Countess d'Éga had the first place in it." Madame F—— was wife of one of the French officers then serving in Spain. Madame Junot went, nevertheless, to La Rochelle. Her meeting with her husband was painful, as they had many reproaches to make to each other. War against Austria was imminent, and Metternich had to leave France, but he continued to keep up a very active correspondence with Madame Junot. "Every week," says the "journal intime," "I had two letters, which came to me by a very safe channel."

Junot was not allowed to take part in the campaign of Wagram. He was appointed commander of the Third Corps in Spain, and had to lay siege to Saragossa before returning to Portugal. The siege, as is well known, was terrible. The Emperor, discontented with Junot, replaced him with Lannes. Marbot tells us in his Memoirs that during the siege Junot, "established in a rich convent, a league from the town, led a very gay life." When Junot returned to France, his wife found him greatly altered; he had become very irritable. He learned soon afterwards that his wife was still in correspondence with Metternich. Caroline, Queen of Naples, bribed the old maid-servant who received Metternich's letters to tell her where Madame Junot kept them. A terrible scene ensued between Junot and his wife, and the "journal intime" tells us all the details of it. In order to save appearances, Madame Junot resolved to follow her husband to Spain, where he was again sent by the Emperor. "It was I, and I alone, who wished to follow him. The Emperor at first objected, and then consented; but, I repeat, it was my own will which took me to Spain."

Junot left with his wife for Spain on the 2d of February, 1810. He stopped a few days at Bordeaux, and Thiébault says, in his Memoirs, that "Junot went there to see an actress, and, after a single visit, gave her twelve hundred francs. Thereafter, she was commonly called in Bordeaux 'the Duchess.'" Madame Junot made the journey on horseback with her husband. She had much difficulty in hindering him from fighting a duel with Masséna, the commander-in-chief of the army. Junot was with Madame Junot, at Valladolid, in the great palace constructed by Charles V., when Masséna arrived with a young mistress whom he dragged all over Spain with him, dressed in the costume of a lieutenant of dragoons.

"Marbot," says M. Turquan, "who was on Masséna's staff, and had come in advance to prepare lodgings, warned General Junot of this circumstance; but, says Marbot, in his Memoirs, the General only laughed at my observations, saying that he and Masséna had often lodged in the same *casine* in Italy, and that the ladies would arrange matters between themselves. Junot did not know that the ladies, who often do not arrange matters with men, find it even more difficult between themselves."

Madame Junot made great objections. She did not like to be lady-in-waiting to the mistress of the old Marshal, and avoided her company. The Memoirs of the Duchess d'Abrantès gave many particulars about the life of privation and sometimes of danger which she led in Spain. She was confined at Ciudad-Rodrigo, which was in ruins after a bloody siege, and Junot desired his son to be named Rodrigo. (This son, born on a battleground, died on one, as colonel, at Solferino, in 1859.)

Madame Junot stayed for some time in Salamanca, which was under the command of Gen. Thiébault (whose Memoirs were published a few years ago).

"It was," says Thiébault, "an inconceivable piece of good fortune, the society of so distinguished a person in Estramadura. Desirable everywhere, she was more so among those provincial Spanish ladies, the best of whom did not in education or in breeding approach our ladies' maids of good houses. She was all that our time could produce that was most amiable, literary, and brilliant; she transported a Paris salon amidst a population who seemed to belong to past ages."

Junot was recalled to France, and his wife returned with him. She immediately opened her salon in Paris and her house at Le Raincy. When the Russian war was decided on, Napoleon took Junot on his staff; he afterwards gave him, during the campaign, the command of the Eighth Corps, which he took away from his own brother Jerome. Madame Junot remained at Aix during the campaign. She received news from her husband regularly at first; then came a long silence, which was first interrupted by a letter written by Junot from Mozhaisk: "I advise you not to torment yourself on reading the bulletin of the 23d; you know well that many innocent victims have felt the fury of Vesuvius. It is a dangerous volcano. Woe to him whom he wants to strike, at the time of his eruption." "Vesuvius" was the Emperor, and the enigmatic letter showed that Junot had incurred his wrath. He had, in fact, disobeyed orders, and the Emperor, in the bulletin of October 23, 1812, made him responsible for the ill success of the movements prepared by Marshal Ney against the Russians after their retreat from Smolensk. Murat loudly complained of Junot, and found an occasion to satisfy his old grudge against him. "Junot," says Napoleon, in the 'Memorial of Saint Helena,' "greatly displeased me; I could no longer recognize him. He made some capital mistakes, which cost us very dear."

Junot was, in reality, no longer the same man, and could not console himself. The bulletin in which he had been blamed by Napoleon became a "fixed idea"; his mind became seriously affected. He received an appointment as Governor of the Illyrian provinces. His wife could not follow him; she hoped that he would find tranquillity in occupations more administrative than mili-

tary. Her hope was disappointed, and, after having given at Trieste many marks of extravagance, caused by a cerebral disease, Junot had to return to France. He came back by way of Geneva, but would not stop there. His wife was on the point of being confined, and the news she received from her husband affected her so much that a still-birth was the result. She could not go to Montbard, where Junot had stopped, but sent her brother, M. de Permon, to meet him. M. de Permon found him quite delirious. Being left alone for an instant, Junot quitted his bed, stabbed himself with a pair of scissors, and threw himself out of the window. He died from his wounds on the 29th of July, 1813.

The Duchess d'Abrantès, after thirteen years of married life, was left with four children—with many debts, too, as she, like her husband, had always been most improvident and extravagant. Junot had always counted on the boundless generosity of the Emperor, from whose hand he had received large estates in Prussia. His wife, when the Allies came to Paris, was visited by the Emperor Alexander, who offered to intercede in her behalf in order that these dotations might be preserved for her children. Hardenberg informed her, a few days after, that he would bring her letters-patent giving a new investiture of the Prussian dotations for her children, on condition that her sons should be naturalized Prussians. She refused. She asked Louis XVIII. to give her eldest son the *majorat* of 200,000 francs a year which Junot had received from the Emperor. Louis XVIII. received her most graciously, and told her he would pay to her children the country's debt to Junot.

There are curious details in M. Turquan's book on the relations which she had in 1814 with Wellington, Metternich, and others. During the Hundred Days she remained quietly in Paris, but did not go to the Tuileries. We find her in Rome in 1818. After this journey to Italy she returned to Paris, living on the small pension which she received as widow of a general. She had to leave Paris for Versailles, where life was cheaper, and Balzac, in his 'Femme de Trente Ans,' gives us the exact description of her house, a large pavilion in the midst of gardens. He describes her, too, under the name of Madame d'Aiglemont, with that extraordinary abundance of items which, under his pen, are never fatiguing. The Duchess d'Abrantès was not thirty but forty years old at the time; she became the type chosen by Balzac for the woman who has lost her youth, but has still many charms, and who seems more pathetic in the autumn of her life. He made her acquaintance in the salon of Madame Sophie Gay, a literary star of her time, now well and justly forgotten. He took the greatest interest in her, and she had a great influence over him and his work; she has, in many ways, left great traces in the prodigious construction of the "Comédie Humaine." It was Balzac who advised her not to write novels, but to publish her Memoirs. With all their faults, these Memoirs had an enormous success; they gave the Duchess a new reputation. She was, unfortunately, always the same person, entirely unable to conform her expenses to her means. Her last years were spent in constant difficulties. Balzac was faithful to his friendship for her, and dedicated to her in 1832 a short novel, 'La Femme Abandonnée,' a very eloquent and suggestive title, though all his thoughts belonged now to Madame Hanska, who became his wife.

The Duchess d'Abrantès died on the 7th of June, 1838, after several years spent almost without the necessaries of life.

Correspondence.

TOASTS DRUNK AND OMITTED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: At a recent banquet given in New York by the Chamber of Commerce, where were present the Secretary of State, Senators, Representatives, and business men of affairs, one of the first toasts drunk was to his Imperial Highness King Edward of England. A sense of the propriety of things leads me to inquire why that toast should not have been followed by one in honor of the kingling Alphonso of Spain, whose crown we robbed of one of its brightest diadems. It is not so long since the Senate chamber echoed with fervent speeches condemning Spanish cruelties then being perpetrated upon the Cubans. Spain being a third-rate Power, matters were settled to our satisfaction. Later on, Solons in that chamber listened with indifference and without results to resolutions tendering our sympathy to the struggling little sister republics against whom King Edward's armies, under the valiant Roberts and Kitchener, were then and are now waging a relentless warfare, imitating and adopting the mode of warfare of the notorious Weyler. An inquiry in Parliament elicited the information that the army of Roberts, on its victorious march to Pretoria, burned 600 farmhouses, and from English sources we learn that, *à la* Weyler, the great portion of the hostile South African population are now confined in concentration pens, where they are dying at an excessive rate.

For reasons given, my toast would rather be to that heroic people who are now so valiantly struggling through "the last sweet hours of freedom's morn."

N. Christensen.

Beaufort, S. C., December 9, 1901.

"EQUITY'S" INEQUITABLE PLEADING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I observe from a perusal of your last issue that "Equity" is again pleading the "cause" of the Blameless Boer against the Brutal Briton. He devotes his last communication to an attempt to emphasize the "difference" of the treatment accorded to the belligerent Boers by the British and that accorded to the Confederates by the Federals during and at the close of the civil war, suggesting that that of the United States was far more humane than that of the British. He evidently is of opinion that he has proved his case by merely hinting at this supposed "difference."

Says "Equity": "The demeanor of the Federal Government, its generals and the Northern people generally towards the vanquished Confederates was generous and magnanimous. They did not insolently insist on abject and humiliating submission." Did they not? It happens, as any one acquainted with the facts very well knows, that they did ("insolently" or not) insist upon this very thing—if "abject and humiliating submission" mean, as "Equity" evidently intends it to mean, "unconditional surrender." These were the terms of Gen. Lee's capitulation; and when Sherman took upon himself to accept Johnston's surrender, subject to a few minor conditions, his action was disavowed by the Federal authorities, and he himself censured for his action.

In every respect the terms lately offered to the Boers, and rejected by them, guaranteed as liberal treatment as that given to the South by the Northern authorities, if not more so. They were to have representative government, in which every man of them was to be represented by men of their own choice, and this without any period of probation, such as the Southern States were subjected to, and which engendered such ill-feeling toward Northern officials. No iron-clad test oath was required of them, as it was of the belligerents of the South; and in deference to their racial feeling it was stipulated that their language should be taught in the schools. This last provision was ill-advised, and will not be renewed, but every other privilege offered is theirs for the asking, or even without the asking; for, when the final surrender of the Boer leaders comes, such a form of government will be inaugurated as soon as the country has become peaceable. The only thing that was—and is and will be—refused them is such an autonomous government as would give them the legal right to invade the territory of their neighbors, as they have done before, or to keep them in a ferment of disquiet by their intrigues. Would any Northern man in the possession of his senses have been in favor of granting such terms to the Confederates?

Again says "Equity": "Nor did the Federal press and platform pour a torrent of bloodthirsty insult and menace upon the fallen. There was no hanging for disloyalty." Well, the press and the platform did not by any means sprinkle them with rose-water. Something very like "a torrent of abuse" against the secession leaders, political and military, was not unknown during the civil war, as the writer can testify to having heard and read at the time. If "Equity" be not old enough to have heard such, he may still satisfy himself of the fact by turning over a file of old newspapers. As to "bloodthirstiness," no less a personage than Gen. Sherman wrote recommending the banishment and execution of the Confederates who did not surrender within a stated period.

As to "hanging." The Boers who have been executed have been tried by the laws of war, and fairly convicted. They were one and all British subjects, and had been so all their lives. They had enjoyed all the political rights of any other British citizen, but had taken up arms against the country to which they owed allegiance. In spite of this fact, with a generosity that never would have been exercised by the people of the European nations that are now denouncing England for her barbarity, they had been treated as prisoners of war and paroled upon taking the oath of neutrality. They had broken that oath and again had gone to killing Englishmen, and were taken red-handed. At least one of them had been proved guilty of slaying

peaceable non-combatants in cold blood. Would the military authorities be doing justice to the brave men that they command if they had spared such malefactors?

"Equity" implies, in his usual fashion, that there was no hanging for "disloyalty" by the North during the civil war. He should better inform himself. The writer was living in the city of Cincinnati at the close of the war, and well remembers standing on the spot where, a few days before, a youth of seventeen or eighteen had been shot by the orders of the general in command, after a hurried drum-head court-martial, for the crime of being found with a loaded musket in his hands. This, I think, was shortly after Lee's surrender, and took place in a State which had never been the seat of war. Some time after this, the writer met Mr. Murat Halstead, who informed him that he had just come from Louisville, where he had witnessed the hanging of three Confederates. These men had been convicted of being "guerrillas," but I am confident that they had violated the laws of war to no greater extent than had the men executed in South Africa.

"Equity" has something to say of "farm burning," and insinuates that the Northern troops never resorted to this practice. If he had ridden, as has the writer, through the war-devastated regions of the South during the war, he would not have suggested such an idea. The desolated farms, with their fences, out-houses, and dwellings lying in ashes, with nothing left but the chimneys, pointing like tall fingers to the sky, would have taught him his error. Has he never heard of the Shenandoah Valley so devastated by the orders of Gen. Sheridan that, as was said at the time, a crow could not fly across it without carrying his rations with him?

ARTHUR JOHNSTON.

SANTA ANA, CALIFORNIA, December 5, 1901.

Notes.

Mr. Edmund Clarence Stedman has assumed the chief-editorship of a 'History of the New York Stock Exchange,' undertaken by the Stock Exchange Historical Company. It is expected to be ready upon the completion of the Exchange's new building.

F. Tennyson Neely will issue immediately, to subscribers only, 'Men and Memories,' by the late John Russell Young, edited by his wife.

A FitzGerald Omar, done (after the first translation) entirely on vellum, at the Astolat Press, Guilford, England, will be marketed in this country by M. F. Mansfield & Co., who have also arranged to be Mr. R. Brimley Johnson's factor on this side of the water. In still another conjunction, they are about to issue 'Fifty Bookplates Engraved on Copper' and 'One Hundred Bookplates Engraved on Wood,' done by Thomas Moring.

Mr. Berenson's 'Lorenzo Lotto,' published by the Putnams in 1895, has just been reissued, in a "revised edition, with additional illustrations," by Bell-Macmillan. The illustrations now number sixty-two, as against thirty in the first edition. A cursory inspection shows no other change in the text than the discussion of certain pictures and drawings by Lotto and Alvise Vivarini, discovered or identified since the first publication. In the additions to the preface, Mr. Berenson shows that he is outgrowing the point of view from which the book was written, and "feels bound to confess that he now concerns himself little with the work of art as a document in the history of civilization, and laments the confusion that such an interest is apt to create between historical and æsthetical standards." In other words, he is coming gradually to have the artist's concern only with the work of art as such, and the artist's lack of interest in other and non-essential matters. The book has gained in appearance and material beauty of paper and print. There is a short table of errata, which, however, does not mention the error by which the titles of Lotto's "S. Vito" and of "A Herald" by Jacopo di Barbari have been interchanged.

Six additional volumes of Professor de Sumichrast's admirable translation of Gautier (George D. Sproul) demand fully as fervent commendation as their forerunners. Their contents, which include travels, tales, and a selection of artistic criticisms, naturally offer a great variety of styles, to each of which ample justice is done in this most careful English version. Without evading a single serious difficulty, or completely dislocating typical constructions, the translator has nevertheless succeeded in writing eminently readable English. Such passages as the descriptions of Venice, the remarks on Venetian painting, and the tales of "King Candaules," "Arria Marcella," or "The Vampire" ("La Morte Amoureuse"), are in every respect models of accurate work.

S. G. Tallentyre's 'Women of the Salons, and Other French Portraits' (Longmans) falls in the same class with Gribble's 'Lake Geneva and its Literary Landmarks,' being cheap and pert in style and extravagant in its judgments, but also handsomely printed and illustrated with portraits which are the purchaser's almost sole return for his money. The author's subjects are Mmes. Dudeffand, Geoffrin, d'Épinay, Necker, de Staël, Récamier, Sévigné, Vigée le Brun, and Napoleon's mother, with Dr. Tronchin thrown in. We quote a few phrases from the notice of Mme. d'Épinay: "Not one so characteristic of the worst side of that great eighteenth century as Madame d'Épinay"; "with the falsest smiling face that ever woman had"; her husband "was more cheerfully and good-naturedly wicked than any other Frenchman in history"; she discovered one day that he, "The 'angel,' had been giving his portrait, mounted in pearls, to Some Other Person"; "there is no sentence in history, perhaps, which reveals so total a depravity of all moral sense as this one"; "Madame had now the satisfaction of seeing every day the greatest scoundrel and genius of his time [Rousseau]"; "there was a coldness. Then she sent Rousseau some flannel for a waistcoat—to restore warmth, one may suppose." We need add no more.

Prof. Maurice Francis Egan has prepared, apparently for the use of parochial schools, 'An Introduction to English Literature' (Boston: Marlier & Co.). A text-book of English literature so arranged that the notice of Bishop Berkeley precedes by many pages the account of the 'Shepherd's Calendar' will not be taken seriously by any but those who are compelled to study it. Indeed, a work which sums up Shelley with the remark that he "was born a poet of a very high order; he made himself a bad man," does not rise to a level where serious criticism can touch it. Professor Egan's book may be characterized for the judicious, and at the same time commended to those for whose use it was written, by the simple statement that in it Carew, Herrick, Suckling, Lovelace, Shelley, Keats, Southey, Landor, Matthew Arnold, and Clough, taken together, occupy no more space than is given to the singular verse of Robert Southwell, S. J.

'Kemble's Pickaninnies: A Collection of Southern Sketches' (R. H. Russell) forms a thin folio in this artist's well-known vein. Each plate is a character study, and a single line suffices for legend. The humor is unmarred by vulgarity or race prejudice, and the enjoyment of it need not be limited to white folks.

Uncle Remus's imitator, Raymond Fuller Ayers, abandons dialect in his 'Four-Footed Folk' (R. H. Russell), exchanges "Brer" for "Mr.," and writes as good English as he permits himself. Whoever reads his opening story, "Mr. Wildcat and Mr. Owl Go Hunting," will be favorably disposed at first, only to find a writer who is not destitute of invention needlessly indulging in slang which children should be spared and cannot appreciate. J. M. Condé's illustrations also make their best bow at the very beginning, in the frontispiece, though we must say a good word for the decorative vignette that faces the story, "Why Mr. Tiger has Stripes on his Back."

Any child will be interested in the great colored drawings of 'The Big Book of Horses and Goats,' by Edward Penfield (R. H. Russell). The jingles might easily have been improved, and illustrate a too common disregard for the rights of adults who have to read "the story" to young ears.

'Pictures from *Forest and Stream*,' thirty-two proof impressions (folio) selected from that journal's illustrations, are excellent half-tones from nature and from drawings of wild game (including nine bird portraits from Audubon) or aquatic sport. They are naturally of uneven quality, and on purely æsthetic grounds would not have been bound up together; but they appeal to the sportsman's taste.

In 'Stories of Bird Life' (Richmond: B. F. Johnson Publishing Company) Prof. T. Gilbert Pearson does for birds of Southern States what many writers have done for the birds of New England. He is well acquainted with the literature of his subject, and has a good deal of productive field-work to his credit. He records observations made in Virginia, North Carolina, and Florida, descriptive chiefly of the feeding and breeding habits of birds, and relating largely to birds of prey and water birds, species often omitted from popular works. Some of his sketches have the story form, and nearly all describe individual birds in particular localities. He tells of finding in Florida a bald eagle's nest that had been used for fifteen years. It was 120 feet from the ground, in a pine tree, but he reached it after an hour and a half of climbing, and inspected it and its two downy eaglets. The account of a robin drunk with the juice of china berries is one of the most interesting notes in the book, for comparatively few observers find so good

a verification of the statement that these berries are intoxicating to birds. Professor Pearson aims to teach the usefulness of birds and their right to protection. He illustrates the wanton destruction of the useful sparrow hawks and barred owls, tells of robin hunts in Tennessee that caused the slaughter of 400 innocents in a night, and describes the work of feather hunters who, on Cobb's Island, Virginia, gathered the skins of 10,000 terns in a single season to furnish forth the milliners. The book is interesting to the general reader, but is adapted to the school-room by the insertion of questions and supplementary information and suggestions. It is to be regretted that more care was not taken to avoid errors in style.

Less than two hours suffice for the perusal of the entertaining little book, entitled 'Louis Agassiz,' by Alice Bache Gould (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.). It gives the main points in the career of the great naturalist and teacher and the more prominent items of his personality. The portrayal necessarily lacks much of detail, but is thoroughly pertinent. The picture is drawn by a woman, and evidences her judgment and touch; the features that most appeal to her are deftly outlined, happiness and sunshine are dwelt upon, the shadows are more lightly suggested. One is most impressed by the industry, hopefulness, and cheerfulness, by the splendid accomplishments and the recognitions following them, and hardly notices such vexations and disappointments as may have been. In the difficult task of epitomizing, the author has succeeded admirably, and her book is comparatively free from minor defects. The name over the entrance of the museum is "Museum of Comparative Zoölogy" without the prefixed word "University" of this volume. Apparently the great Professor is not given credit enough for his first grand work in the simple statement, "He edited the *Brazilian Fishes.*" This gives a poor idea of what the work really amounted to; it is a very insufficient rendering of the legend on the title-page; "Digessit, descripsit et observationibus anatomicis illustravit Dr. L. Agassiz."

The Geological Survey of Canada has begun the publication of a "Catalogue of Canadian Birds," by John Macoun, in which it is intended to enumerate all the birds of the Dominion, Newfoundland, Greenland, and Alaska, and to bring together the principal known facts in regard to their distribution, migrations, and breeding habits. The first part has appeared, and is devoted to water birds, gallinaceous birds, and pigeons. As the work aims at being popular and practical, the English names are placed first, but the species are arranged in their scientific order and in accordance with the nomenclature of the latest Check-list of the American Ornithologists' Union. It is proposed to issue the second and concluding part as soon as possible.

The same Survey has recently published its annual report for 1898. It opens with a summary of operations during the year by the director, the late Dr. George M. Dawson, which fills 208 pages. The special reports, all of which are illustrated, are on the geology and natural resources of the country traversed by the Yellow Head Pass route from Edmonton to Tête Jaune Cache, by James McEvoy; on the geology of the west shore and islands of Lake Winnipeg, by D. B. Dowling; on the east shore of Lake Winnipeg and adjacent parts of Manitoba and Keewatin, by J. B. Tyrrell; and on the geology of the region comprised in the "Three Rivers map-sheet," by R. W. Ells. The south shore of Hudson Strait and of Ungava Bay, and the northern side of Hudson Strait are described by A. P. Low and Robert Bell, respectively. In the report of the section of mineral statistics and mines, Elfric D. Ingall declares the growth of Canada's mineral industries to be very encouraging. During 1898 all the metalliferous products except lead and silver showed marked increases.

The *Annales de Géographie* for November opens with an account of the recent evolution of agriculture in Europe, in which numerous statistics exhibit the increase and specialization of crops, as well as the rise of agricultural schools and coöperative associations. There is also a description of the Hungarian plain and the peculiar life of its inhabitants—townspeople in the winter, shepherds and semi-nomad cultivators of the soil in summer—a condition dating back to and the result of the Mohammedan invasion. A change is at hand, however, and, with the construction of roads and artificial irrigation, the strife between sedentary and nomadic life will cease, and the plain will become one of the richest provinces of the dual empire.

We have received—useful and valuable works all, but not amenable to literary criticism—the fourth edition of the 'Newspaper Rate-Book' of Nelson Chesman & Co. (St. Louis, Pittsburgh, and Chicago), which consists of a catalogue of newspapers and periodicals in the United States and Canada having a circulation of 5,000 or over; the older, larger, and complete 'National Newspaper Directory and Gazetteer' of Pettingill & Co. (Boston and New York), for 1901; the 'American Bank Reporter' (Stumpf & Steurer), issued every ninety days, and now in its sixty-sixth year; and the 'International Cable Directory of the World, in conjunction with the Western Union Telegraphic-Code System,' published in this city at No. 30 Broad Street. This directory, now four years old, lists not only corporations and firms, but individuals, with local and cable addresses and nature of business, and is a clear economy for those who avail themselves of it.

—In a peculiar sense the December *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* is the Editor's number. It has for frontispiece a portrait of Mr. Henry Lee Higginson, whose latest munificence to the University has been the Harvard Union; and it contains the proceedings at the opening of this general college club on October 15. Mr. William Roscoe Thayer, who first projected the Union, has therefore the satisfaction of recording its realization among the news of the magazine which he conducts and had so large a share in founding also. Both Mr. Higginson and President Eliot in their speeches dwelt on the democratic intent of the new gathering-place for undergraduates, graduates, and the teaching force; and democratic its operation undoubtedly is, with the sole limitation of the annual fee of ten dollars. That it does not invent democracy at Harvard is suggested by the writer (in the same number) of "From a Graduate's Window," who takes up the common contrast of Yale and Harvard in this particular, candidly and forcibly. The number is extremely good reading in all departments. Mr. Curtis Guild tells not fulsomely of Theodore Roosevelt at Harvard, and there are obituary sketches, with portraits, of the late Joseph Le Conte and J. B. Greenough, while Mr. F. B. Sanborn contributes his reminiscences of Prof. E. A. Sophocles, with a copy of a contemporary "caricature" (by no means gross) of that monkish but kindly scholar, drawn by Austin Flint and lithographed by Rowse—a remarkable combination of talent. Professor Hart lucidly relates the rise and fortunes of the three-year A.B. degree, and shows that it is attained by one-sixth of the students who enter and persist to graduation; and the proportion tends to grow. Amid the various official reports on the departments, Professor Storer's on the Bussey Institution and its students should not be overlooked. Here will be found a very curious comparison of the receptivity and perseverance of the three classes who seek instruction, particularly the sons of farmers and the sons of florists. Of the former, Professor Storer says that "the best of them have been sons of New England yeoman farmers, descended from the old English stock, *i. e.*, men of that typical town-meeting pattern which many uninstructed people have erroneously supposed to be as good as extinct."

—Not since the publication of the Records of the Plymouth Colony has so important a contribution to the early history of Massachusetts been made as in Mr. John Noble's 'Records of the Court of Assistants.' Unfortunately, the first volume of the manuscript records of this court has long been lost, and the present publication begins with the second, but covers the period from 1673 to 1692, during which many of the early regulations of the colony were in force. The Court of Assistants was the first form of the existing Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, and represented the highest jurisdiction in judicial matters prior to the granting of the Province Charter in 1692. Its records, therefore, give the best picture of the many questions relating to persons and property of which the Government assumed control, and throw much light upon the minute supervision exercised under a body of law strongly influenced by Biblical precept and intense religious fanaticism. The very form of complaint in criminal cases illustrates this, for it reads, "he not having the fear of God before his eyes, being instigated by the Devil"; but the temporal authorities were not overlooked, as the fault was "contrary to the peace of our sovereign Lord the King his Crown and Dignity the laws of God & of this Jurisdiction." It is on the criminal side that this book is most suggestive, and a careful study of the procedure and decisions of the court will do much to clarify our ideas of the public and private morality of the time. Whether it was a Quaker, an Indian, or a pirate, the charge and evidence as presented in the formal language of the court illustrate the attitude of the rulers towards those who had unfortunately run against their decrees.

—It would be interesting to dip into these pages for striking examples of dogmatic justice, but the opportunity is offered for dwelling rather upon the manner of their editing. Mr. Noble has long been known for his interest in the great collection of court records in his keeping, and for the

devoted care which has placed them beyond loss or injury. That is the mechanical aspect of the case, and the danger of turning editor lay in a too rigid application of mechanical rules. The result, however, disproves the fear, as the volume represents the best example of careful and scholarly editing we have seen in many a year. The old spelling and arrangement are retained, and enough of the odd symbols used by Rawson, the scribe, have been reproduced to increase the flavor of antiquity. The names of persons and places are not tampered with, either to confuse or to force upon the reader what is self-evident. The marginal notes of the original have been retained in full, and every omission and interlined word is indicated without marring the typographical appearance of the page. A page of the original record is reproduced by the photogravure process, and the hogskin cover is also shown, adding to the sense of reality as well as proving the difficulties encountered in transcribing. Finally, a very full index, almost too full for most purposes, offers a complete guide to the contents of this notable book, and amply proves the loving care bestowed upon it by Mr. Noble and his assistant, Mr. Upham. The size of the page is dignified, as suited to the matter, and the type is clear, in spite of the old letters and signs plentifully sprinkled through the lines. Altogether, it is an issue that is extremely creditable to the city of Boston and the editor, and of very high service to the student of early Massachusetts history.

—Mr. Charles Hastings's 'The Theatre, its Development in France and England, and a History of its Greek and Latin Origins' (London: Duckworth & Co.; Philadelphia: Lippincott) is a translation by Miss Frances Welby from the original French edition of the work, which appeared some eighteen months ago. It is the misfortune of writers upon theatrical history—that is, upon the concrete, physical factors of the dramatic art—continually to defeat expectation. Mr. Hastings has proved no exception to the rule. Despite the presence upon the title-page of the great name of Victorien Sardou, whose note of personal compliment is somewhat gratuitously prefixed to Mr. Hastings's essay, the work itself is far from satisfactory. For use as a supplementary text-book in a college course upon dramatic history it is probably sufficient, but as a treatise for the special student, or even for the general reader, its shortcomings are numerous. There is a distinct place for a compact book in English presenting a concise documentary account of the rise of the mimetic art, the development of stage properties, the historical schools of acting, the accumulation of conventional stage "business," the relation of the actor to the dramatist at various periods and in different countries, the psychological evolution in the audience, and similar matters subsidiary but indispensable to dramatic history proper. Mr. Hastings, it seems, has aimed to produce such a book, but he has fallen a little beside the mark. In the first place, there is, in the architectonic scheme of his book, a *hiatus valde deflendus*. By the general tone and temper, the confiding reader will be led to believe that the whole course of theatrical history is being unrolled to his view. But no word is said of the theatre in Germany, Scandinavia, Italy, or Spain. The definitive historian of the theatre will have to consider the play-acting of each of these with the utmost care. To the stage upon which were produced the multitudinous plays of Lope de Vega and the marvellous poetic dramas of Calderon, he must pay particular heed. Moreover, there are similar lapses in the narrative even as Mr. Hastings has limited it. Of many very important matters there is scant mention or none at all. On such significant points as the relation of the masque to the later Elizabethan stage, and of the opera to the Restoration heroic play, or the part played by the *commedia dell' arte* in determining the histrionic tradition of Molière's comic stage, Mr. Hastings is especially baffling. Indeed, if there were space for more detailed criticism of this unprofitable sort, it would be a long way to the end. It is, perhaps, ungracious to complain that a serviceable text-book is not other than it is, and a permanent contribution to theatrical history; but when one contemplates this field in which the harvest is so plentiful, and the laborers numerous but inefficient, it is a cause for regret that a writer with such excellent intentions as Mr. Hastings should not have lent a more attentive ear to counsels of perfection.

—'The Diamond Necklace' (Lippincott) is a translation by H. Sutherland Edwards of M. Funck-Brentano's excellent work on this most celebrated of *causes célèbres*. Never has an intricate story been more lucidly explained. From the moment when Marie Antoinette arrived at Strassburg in April, 1770, to August, 1843, when the French courts were still perplexed by a lawsuit springing out of the too famous jewels, each figure and each incident are brought forward at the proper moment, given their place in the development of the drama, and dismissed when no longer needed. By combining the critical methods of the École des Chartes with the talent of a raconteur, M. Funck-Brentano creates a vivid effect, while at the same time the bounds of sober fact are not transgressed. So much evidence was taken at the time of the different trials that it becomes possible to insert passages of lively dialogue which nevertheless appear to be quite authentic, and thus extraordinary situations are reproduced in colors unborrowed from romance. Regarding the innocence of the Queen there can be no doubt, and her indiscretion is equally unquestionable. Had Vergennes been consulted, the arrest of Rohan would not, probably, have occurred, the Cardinal would have paid for the diamonds out of which he had been swindled by Mme. La Motte, and a scandal involving grave political consequences would have been averted. The Queen's dislike of Rohan, which had so long been fanned by Maria Theresa, led to the issue of a *lettre de cachet*, the Cardinal's imprisonment in the Bastille, and universal publicity. However innocent the Queen and however innocent the Cardinal, the mind of contemporaries could not be disabused of the most sinister ideas. As Beugnot says: "The great fact which dominated the whole affair was this, that M. and Mme. de La Motte had had the audacity to feign, one night, in one of the groves of Versailles, the Queen of France. The wife of the King had made an appointment with Cardinal de Rohan, had spoken to him, had given him a rose, and had suffered him to throw himself at her feet. That was the crime that respect for religion, majesty, morals, outraged to the last degree, could not but condemn." M. Funck-Bretano gives Rohan full credit for a kind heart and many attractive qualities, but does not spare his incredible gullibility. The daring and ingenuity of Mme. La Motte are also depicted with much force. The translation runs smoothly; but the author never intended to say that Jeanne de Valois had a "spiritual physiognomy"!

—'Washington, and Other American Addresses,' by Mr. Frederic Harrison (Macmillan), recalls a visit which was made to this country by the author in February and March of the present year. Mr. Harrison has recently been much interested in the life and works of King Alfred, but it was not through the arrangements for the Winchester Millenary that he was led to come to America. "The occasion of my visit," he says, "was an invitation with which I was honored by the Union League Club of Chicago to deliver the public address in the Auditorium of that city on the annual commemoration of the birthday of George Washington." The paper on "Washington and the Republican Ideal" furnishes the title, and in importance it is also the most considerable factor of the volume. Mr. Harrison, though in a spirit of profound sympathy, approaches Washington from the European standpoint, and his method of treatment is one which a citizen of the United States would hardly think of employing. It is perhaps on this account the more interesting; certainly the address is in a high and stimulating strain and strikes the right note for its peroration: "He anticipated the great social reformation accomplished in this commonwealth some sixty years after his death, when he freed his own estate by will from the curse of negro slavery. No man that ever bore power over his fellow-citizens shrank with a more scrupulous, more religious horror from the thought of ruling by force instead of by free choice—no man was more truly the republican to the very marrow of his bones, and was less the despot or the master. May the spirit of George Washington, the just, the free, the far-sighted patriot, inspire the people of this commonwealth in all their problems of government; guide them in all the tasks they undertake to wise and prosperous ends; enable them to crown his work when, in the words of our English historian, 'he founded a democratic republic with no shadow on it of military despotism.'" Of the other addresses, two are on King Alfred, while the remaining seven deal with such varied subjects as Lincoln, Republicanism and Democracy, the Dutch Republic, recent biographies of Cromwell, municipal government, and the nineteenth century. There is also a delightful discourse entitled "Personal Reminiscences," which the undergraduates of Bryn Mawr were fortunate enough to hear. It is bright and anecdotal, without being garrulous, and its frank admiration for the best in human genius is an invigorating tonic after the vile detraction of contemporaries which is affected by the baser journals and critics. Whatever else Mr. Harrison may or may not have learned from the writings of Auguste Comte, he has been taught by them to revere great men, and to worship the aspirations by which the noblest souls are moved.

SOME BOOKS ON ART.

Italian Sculpture of the Renaissance. By L. J. Freeman, M.A. Macmillan.

William Hamilton Gibson, Artist, Naturalist, Author. By John Coleman Adams. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Photography as a Fine Art: The Achievements and Possibilities of Photographic Art in America. By Charles H. Caffin. Doubleday, Page & Co.

Bell's Miniature Series of Painters. Edited by G. C. Williamson, Litt.D. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. (*Velazquez.* By G. C. Williamson, Litt.D. *Sir E. Burne-Jones.* By Malcolm Bell. *Fra Angelico.* By G. C. Williamson, Litt.D. *G. F. Watts, R.A.* By C. T. Bateman. *George Romney.* By Rowley Cleeve.)

Mr. Freeman's book on 'Italian Sculpture of the Renaissance' is of a kind that is somewhat rare in these days, and rather refreshing. The author has occupied himself little with history and less with connoisseurship. There is no attempt to treat of all the sculptors of the period, no attempt at complete lists of the works of the sculptors dealt with, no biography, and next to no consideration of art as an historical document, and only the minimum of reference to questions of authenticity and attribution. What Mr. Freeman attempts is criticism, pure and simple; his interest is with the work of art "as in itself it really is," not with those who produced it or with what it can tell us of the time when it was produced. The works discussed are well known, and, for the most part, undisputed, and the effort is to explain the nature of their æsthetic appeal—the kind and quality of pleasure to be received from them; and the success of this effort is considerable if not distinguished. The author's style, if neither eloquent nor fascinating, is lucid, his reasoning is sound, and his point of view eminently sane. He has produced a work not for the specialist but for the general public, and we know of no book more likely to give that public some idea of the artistic qualities of Renaissance sculpture. The illustrations are well selected, well executed, and sufficiently abundant, and we only regret the smallness of scale in a few of them which renders deciphering difficult. A plate, on a larger scale, of at least one of Della Quercia's wonderful reliefs on the doorway of S. Petronio at Bologna would have been a great addition; these reliefs having, apart from their own merit, an especial interest from their influence on Michelangelo. When we reflect that these reliefs and those of Ghiberti on the gates of the Baptistery of Florence were produced nearly a century before the ceiling of the Sistine and the Stanze of the Vatican, we see how far sculpture anticipated painting in both the force and the grace of the Renaissance.

Looking at William Hamilton Gibson from the point of view of the author of 'Nature Studies in Berkshire,' it is natural that Mr. Adams should somewhat overrate that artist's purely artistic achievement. If Mr. Ruskin's teaching were true, Mr. Gibson should have been a very great artist indeed, for, though there is no evidence of interest in geology, he studied botany with a thoroughness and a minuteness and accuracy of observation that are rare indeed. Mr. Adams holds, as did Mr. Gibson himself, that there is no little and big in nature, and that the microscope is as great a revealer of infinity as the telescope. Undoubtedly, this is true for science, but it is not true for art. A minute study of the little facts of nature may result in valuable contributions to science and interesting contributions to literature, but it has never resulted in great art. The eye "only fit," as Millais said of Ruskin's, "to judge of insects," is not the eye of a great painter. The accuracy of botanizing attributed to some of the old masters has been greatly exaggerated. Fra Angelico, or Botticelli, or the young Titian may have placed a certain number of carefully drawn flowering plants in their foregrounds, but their aim in so doing was primarily decorative—the creation of a pleasant pattern to fill, like a mediæval diaper, an otherwise empty space. They were mainly occupied with other things, with the human figure and the large balancing of masses; and as landscape art was developed, it became more and more an art concerning itself with composition and expression, with light and air and color, and less and less with the depiction of natural detail.

Mr. Gibson, then, was a naturalist equipped with the power of drawing delicately what he finely observed, rather than an artist able to observe closely when it suited his artistic purpose. He saw nature in detail, and only moderately succeeded in building his details into some sort of a whole, whereas the artist sees a whole into which he builds, on occasion, a certain amount of detail. Mr. Gibson's work is graceful, fine, intensely interesting; it is not large, massive, or truly decorative. How scientific was his naturalism it is not for an art critic to judge, but it is as a student of nature that he has interested the world. Mr. Adams has rightly placed him with Thoreau and Burroughs as a popularizer of nature study, and we suspect that his writing is of more importance than his drawing. The latter was admirable for diagrammatic illustration, and as art it had delicacy and charm, but its qualities are not of the highest order. The man, as depicted in Mr. Adams's pages, seems to have had a hearty, wholesome nature, but there is no convincing proof of intellectual distinction.

Mr. Caffin's book is an attempt, to which the treatment of particular pictures by particular men is subordinate, to prove that photography may be, and already is or is becoming, a fine art, fairly comparable in some degree with painting, sculpture, or architecture. He contends, what we should not deny, that a photographer may be possessed of artistic feeling, and may show true artistic taste in the selection of material in nature, in the posing and grouping of figures, etc. The possession of taste, however, is not enough to constitute an artist, or its display enough to constitute a fine art, and Mr. Caffin is, therefore, interested to show that photography may be creative and self-expressive, and that the art affords means of manipulation and alteration of mere record which place it beside painting as a method of expressing the individuality of the artist. He is constantly bracketing the truly artistic painter and photographer together and contrasting them with the mere recorder of fact, and he considers the mechanical action of the lens as a mere "limitation" through which the photographic artist has to work, like the limitations of construction and utility in architecture or the limitation of the power of pigment to express color and light. He thinks that "the most important difference between the painter and the photographer is in their respective tools," and that "if he has the equipment of an artist and an artistic individuality, the photographer can . . . produce work which, barring colors, may have the characteristics of a beautiful picture."

We do not think Mr. Caffin has made out his case, or that any one ever can make it out. His error comes from a radical misapprehension, of the aim of art and the processes of the artist, which is widespread, but which it surprises us that he should entertain. This misapprehension is, that the aim of the fine arts is so to modify the record of natural fact as to express the personality of the artist and to attain to a certain harmony and beauty. This is indeed all that a good deal which passes for art attains to, and there are, undoubtedly, a good many painters whose art reaches no farther than that of the artistic photographer; but true art escapes entirely from this formula. The true fine arts aim first of all to create beauty and harmony and to express the individual feeling of the artist, and they accept of natural fact only as incidental to that end. "Both painter and photographer work from a model," says Mr. Caffin. Pardon, but they do not in the same sense. The ordinary painter may "work from a model," trying only to soften defects and to improve beauties; the great artist works "out of his head"—works from a preconceived notion of what he wishes to do, often without any reference at all to nature, and always with such reference only to help out the defects of his conception.

Even the means at the photographer's disposal for such alterations of record as Mr. Caffin seems to conceive of as the aim of art, are extremely limited. It is not necessary to go into details of processes, but what it comes to is that the photographer can blur or eliminate details, can alter light and shade, can produce effects of tone unlike those furnished him by nature. He cannot, however, to any considerable degree or with any success, alter form or composition. In these matters he can only select and arrange. His landscapes, however modified in effect, must be always topographical; his figures must be starkly naturalistic in form, and with no other composition than accident or the painful *tableau vivant* may furnish. If he should attempt the serious alteration of form, his art, whatever else it might be, would cease to be photography, though it might utilize photography, as painters sometimes —too often—do. Imagine Turner compelled to get what he could out of a picture the lines of which must be literally accurate to the facts of a given scene, or Michelangelo trying to express himself through a photographic outline of a real model, and one has a measure of the smallness of the claim of photography to be called a fine art. Even such alterations of light and shade as the tricks of the trade permit of seem to us, in the instances illustrated in this volume, to fail of real artistic result while spoiling the integrity of record; and the best things shown are "straight photographs," in which the operator has attempted no more than may be accomplished by intelligence and taste in selection and arrangement of material, choice of lighting, etc., etc.

Mr. Caffin's most astonishing paragraph is the following. He is comparing Millet's "Sower" with certain photographs of a peasart sowing, and says:

"Can the photographer emulate the methods of the painter, even if he fail to reach his results? I am unable to see why not. Millet must have made an exhaustive analysis of the man at his work until he had mastered the salient features of the operation; then, many studies were probably executed before he reached the final formula of expression. The analysis is certainly within the possibilities of the photographer; and repeated snap-shots might take the place of sketches, until, at last, the desired result had been attained."

One might as well "emulate the methods" of the sculptor of the Medici tombs by taking repeated casts from nature in the hope of evolving another "Night."

No, photography does not, and never can, possess "the qualities common to painting, with the sole exception of many colors." There are other exceptions to be made—such as drawing, composition, imagination, creative power. The composition of the great figure painters is entirely impossible of imitation by arrangement of actual figures, as the *tableau vivant* proves; and composition of landscape is, of course, a denial of topography. The photographer may be sensitive to composition when he sees it, and may record accidental composition when he finds it, but he can never compose. The camera may record form correctly, sometimes, but it can never give us anything remotely resembling the life-enhancing and significant drawing of the masters. Photography is not a fine art because it can invent nothing. It can give us a true record or a muddled and falsified one, and it can show the taste and judgment of him who selects the facts to be recorded. It is true that many so-called artists do no more and do not do that so well. If artistic photography shall succeed in showing us the difference between their work and that of the true artists, it will have done much.

The little volumes of Bell's "Miniature Series of Painters" vary considerably in quality. The first three are admirable little works in their way, giving as much fact and as much sound criticism as could well be expected in so small a compass. Dr. Williamson's 'Velazquez' takes its tone largely from R. A. M. Stevenson's 'The Art of Velasquez,' and his 'Fra Angelico' is greatly influenced by Langton Douglas's work on that artist, though the traditional view is also recognized. In both cases the choice of a guide was judicious and natural, not to say inevitable, and we by no means wish it to be understood that Dr. Williamson has no feelings or ideas of his own. The volumes on Watts and Romney are much less satisfactory, the former dwelling on the artist's avowed didactic purpose, to the almost entire exclusion of any consideration of his artistic merits, while the latter tends to lose itself in anecdote and sentiment. The books are well printed, decently illustrated, and hideously bound.

STILL MORE NOVELS.

Bagsby's Daughter. By Bessie and Marie Van Vorst. Harper & Brothers.

Maggie MacLanehan. By Gullelma Zollinger. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

The Westerners. By Stewart Edward White. McClure, Phillips & Co.

Flood-Tide. By Sarah P. McLean Greene. Harper & Brothers.

Blue-grass and Rhododendron. By John Fox, jr. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Laird's Luck. By A. T. Quiller-Couch. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Calumet K. By Merwin-Webster. Macmillan.

The Making of Jane. By Sarah Barnwell Elliott. Scribners.

In the opening scene of 'Bagsby's Daughter,' the hero first meets the heroine at an afternoon reception in a Chicago drawing-room. After the introduction, she retreats to the library and ensconces herself in a crimson leather chair, to bend intently over the score in following the music of a Hungarian orchestra. (Young girls do this at afternoon teas. In the words of the old-time showman, "My brother has often seen them myself.") The hero, as he prettily says, follows her when she departs to follow the score, and invites her to come to the window for the view. Having conducted her thither, he says: "Miss Bagsby, will you be my wife?" This seems to indicate farce, but the hero means it; the heroine says yes, after considering for two pages (large type). Dutiful papa, the conscientious and wealthy manufacturer of Bagsby's Capsules, assents, and the marriage takes place in a few days, as the hero has a pressing engagement in London. The trousseau is as miraculous as if papa's factories turned out lingerie instead of pills. So far, the wonder has grown from page to page how a grown-up novel between real covers is to be evolved from beginnings that are certainly not without money, but, so far, without great price. Yet on it goes with burlesque jumps, taking itself more and more seriously, getting more and more involved in incident and situation. Pasts come up; innocent but evil-seeming travellers lose their steamers, rich men their fortunes, ladies their jewels, husbands their wives' London addresses—in short, everything is lost save honor; and that at moments is strayed and stolen. The principals, however, settle down to story-book bliss after a wild-goose chase, mental, moral, physical, and literary, leaving the reader uncertain whether he has been at the vaudeville or the grand opera. The indecision between comic and serious is fatal; the overplus of clothes and local manners is unhappy. ("Every detail of his get-up was faultless, conventional, but worn with a personality which gave even his pockets charm"—and he the mere sub-hero!) The secret of the hero's past is rather neatly concealed, and, as secrets go, a good one. Its disclosure by the jealous woman in as frantic a desire to help the hero as she has hitherto shown to hurt him, is a device well-worn, but one that grows no more probable with the using. There must be merit in the book, for the reader undeniably wants to know how it is coming out; though why he should care, it is not given him to understand.

From fiction which we have found at moments juvenile, we turn to fiction for juveniles in the shape of 'Maggie McLanehan,' a sturdy little story of an Irish girl who made her way in the world by sense and work. Noteworthily sane is its moral of concentration, whether one is picking strawberries or cooking beefsteak; equally sane and even more noteworthy in young people's literature "as she is wrote," are the facts that Maggie feels no mission to reform her elders, and that the rich, childless couple do not adopt her, but that her reward comes in opportunities for more work. The humble Irish folk who form the *dramatis personæ* are genially drawn. It is a healthful story for girls and possibly some boys.

Mr. White's book, 'The Westerners,' is of Indian wars and mining-camps in the early seventies, and shows an intimate understanding of both on the author's part. He seems to be writing from the inner consciousness of Indian, of half-breed, of frontiersman, and prospector, so as to be instantly felt as an authority. The long-planned and elaborate revenge of a half-breed for a wrong done him by a scout is the motive of a long and elaborate study of a complicated yet one-idea'd personality. If it is hard for the reader to accept all that is told him of nourished and fiendish vindictiveness, yet he is compelled to belief by the author's terse "You may not understand this unless you have known a half-breed, but it is true." Contrasted as a race-study is the picture of the young girl Molly, born of New Englanders and brought up among Indians, in ignorance of her origin—Molly, whom Lafond tries to make as base as her surroundings at the mining-camp simply that he may tell her of her ancestry and gloat over her humiliation; Molly, saved from disaster at the critical moment by the promptings of instinct, while punishment in its most horrid form overtakes the evil-doer. Other portraits there are, startling in relief and color, even where they merely appear for an instant. The author's feeling in relation to Government breaches of contract with the Indians finds brief but emphatic expression. A moment of breathless psychological interest is that when the dead face of the massacred Custer smiles up at the baffled Indian, who, in that instant, perceives that his race's seeming victory is really defeat. Throughout the story, whether in the characters or in their surroundings, there is abundant power. The fault of power is found, too, in an overplus of material—of antecedent biography, of incident, episodes, horrors; so that, while nothing is feebly done in this remarkable work, it suffers from congestion. One must approach it in a strong mood, for there is much that is horrible, little that is lovely, while yet one feels that all may be true.

To readers of 'Cape Cod Folk' and 'Vesty of the Basins,' it is not necessary to describe the salient attractions in Mrs. Greene's 'Flood-Tide.' They will expect and find a rare treat in fisher-folk portraiture; a salty coast, the winds "a-breezin' "; life, love, and death in simple, solemn guise as they come to dwellers by the sea; boundless humor shown in figures that are matchless, speaking a dialect that is peerless. The city-bred and the moneyed ones are less happily drawn, but they are a needed foil, perhaps. We wish the writer would forego a certain preciosity of language too often found in books of the sagaciously tender tone of this. We wish she would not say; "She glanced at him with contempt spotless of reproach," nor "She cherished herself, drawing the wrap closer"; nor "conspicuous traveller"; nor "glimpsed" for "seen" (the reverse of precious, this); nor "conquery" for conquest. A noun is a name, and is not *ex officio* ac-

companied by an adjective. These criticisms, however, are spotless of any conspicuous reproach, and do but free the reviewer's conscience. That done, there is nothing but delight in the fisher people and their ways, of week-days and of Sundays. Who can read of them and not long to sit on an inverted pail at the spring with all the other drawers of water, and "converse with the ease of those for whom frettish time has ceased and bland eternity begun"? Think what it would be to talk over the "topic" one had been "put under" by the "saints" for the coming Sunday. And what to hear Dorna say, "So 'tis as 'tis, and it can't be no 'tiser," or oh, desirable Dorna! "The lambness of a steer is like Sodom and Gomorrer to all them that puts their trust therein." And, for soberer mood, to lean on the strength of the great-hearted Infra or the cheery trust of Capt. Abe, whose doctrine was, "When ye've turned the evil inter good, then ye've killt it."

There has not, to our knowledge, been written a more illumining document upon Kentucky open-air life than Mr. Fox's little book of sketches. Of Kentucky life we inadvertently said; but there is quite as much of death as of life in this graphic history. (The bearing of this observation lies in the application of it.) From men to 'coons there is hardly a chapter without its glut of "kill." The Kentucky mountaineer kills his enemies among the rhododendrons; the Blue-grass lad and lass kill their foxes. The pages are punctured with rifle and pistol shots, even as we learn that the tavern sign-boards are, in the mountain towns. These, however, are familiar features in stories of the region. Where Mr. Fox has given fresh and valuable matter to think about is in the pedigree he suggests for the mountaineer's customs, traits, and codes, and the fair showing he makes of the lights whose shadows we already know. This pedigree he finds first of all in the mountains themselves, reminding us that mountains have always imparted, as a birthright, isolation, individualism, and the necessity for righting wrongs outside the law. To these influences may be traced the feud, characteristic of the Kentuckian above other mountaineers, who know it, indeed, but not in so persistent and deadly a type. "It is not a wild fancy," he writes, "that the Kentucky mountain feud takes root in Scotland"—meaning that the instincts of the Revolution, the Whig and Tory wars, the clansmen's code, were handed down as instincts to wreak themselves upon the hostilities of to-day. Thirty years of local war resulted from a boy's making fun of a patch on another boy's trousers about thirty-five years ago, the factions fighting on after the cause had been forgotten. Intenser, too, than with other mountaineers is the Kentuckian's every trait, good and bad. If he is more fierce, bitter, and, "when he is mean," mean, so is he more proud, hospitable, and loyal; he has his religion, "sternly orthodox and literal," shooting and praying in a breath. A curious fact, simple enough when once noted, is that, after the failure of Baring Brothers and the accompanying stop to the influx of English capital, with the interruption to railroading and civilizing, feuds that had been checked in '90 and '91 slowly started up once more.

Strikingly interesting is Mr. Fox's account of the formation of the first law-enforcing guard, made as it was of young Blue-grass men going up into the mountains to make their fortunes in the iron and coal mines. In a sketch of terrible picturesqueness he tells how this police guard of gentlemen secured the first "victim to law and order" in the border region between Virginia and Kentucky, "two sister States whose skirts are there stitched together with pine and pin-oak along the crest of the Cumberland." There is no page of all the book without its visible picture, its revealing incident. Tropical flowers of rhetoric are happily absent, but Mr. Fox is a poet, and even a lyric poet, when, as now and then, his theme permits; yet he does not poetize when he means prose. His manner fits his matter—fresh and springing like blue-grass; sturdy and stinging like rhododendron. His book is a little masterpiece of evidence in a case profoundly interesting to Americans and others.

A "Q" is not discovered every day, nor may one in reason expect a discovery in every new volume from "Q's" hand. It is perhaps as a rebound from unreasonable anticipation that one explains a certain disappointment in the book of stories entitled "The Laird's Luck." They are ingenious and original; they are written with "Q's" most facile and descriptive pen, and still, as one reads, one is half inclined to think that here is one more "nobleman gone wrong" on the modern hobby of ancient adventure. True, subjects, scenes, and excitements lack neither distinction nor the effect of probability that only an artist can give to wild and moving tales. But the documentary evidence is almost too complete; we have the witnesses summoned and sworn unto the third and fourth generations; while the tale-within-tale method is followed in a way that even the Arabian Nights has never succeeded in making attractive. The fearsome story of buccaneering in Panama is one of the best and best-told of the number. Another is the concluding story, where myth and legend on the Cornish Coast bring Mr. Quiller-Couch to the field of many of his most shining successes.

The building of a grain elevator does not at first sight seem to open up opportunities for romance, but the authors of 'Calumet K' have succeeded in making industrial life furnish a tale full of dramatic incident. With a corner in wheat depending on the erection of a huge elevator by a certain date, with unfriendly railroads and frequent possibilities of strikes, there is no lack of occasions for the resourcefulness of the hero. Bannon, the foreman, on whom the issue of the work depends, is a genuinely American type. His passion is the overcoming of obstacles and the management of men. A love affair with the stenographer is only an incident between two jobs, and is inserted as a concession to the taste of the general reader. The grain-elevator, "Calumet K," is the real heroine, and the reader's attention is fixed on the problem that exercises Bannon, and its triumphant solution. This is perhaps the sort of fiction that will one day supplant the sword-and-ruffles variety. At any rate, no one who thinks that great industrial enterprises are interesting could find 'Calumet K' dull reading. It has the wind of real life blowing through its pages, and we commend it to those who grow weary of the perfumed airs of historical fiction.

'The Making of Jane' is a rather long study in individualism. Jane's aunt, Mrs. Saunders, is a repulsive individualist, while Jane is meant to be an attractive exponent of the creed. We cannot say that we like Jane much better than her aunt. To sacrifice luxuries for the sake of having one's own way, even if it entails discomfort and hard work, is merely another form of selfishness. Nor are Jane's adventures as a school-teacher in the South, as a milliner, and finally as a manager of a large department store, convincing. Life is not made so easy, nor are chances of work so abundant, for a young woman who, without any previous training, abandons the delights of Newport and New York for the novel pleasure of developing herself. Of course, she ends by marrying a millionaire, which is precisely the ending that real life would not have supplied, since real life does not offer the charming coincidences and eligible openings that console us in fiction.

KINGS OF THE ROD.

Kings of the Rod, Rifle, and Gun. By "Thormanby." London: Hutchinson & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1901. 2 vols., 8vo. With portraits and illustrations.

The above title fails to indicate the most interesting features of a series of biographies which include men far better known in other departments of life than that of sport, together with many details and incidents of general interest hitherto unpublished. There are twenty-five of these sketches—among others, of Walton and Cotton; the Rev. W. B. Daniel, author of 'Rural Sports,' Col. Peter Hawker, Christopher North, Sir Humphry Davy, William Scrope, Sir Samuel Baker, Landseer, Millais. The article on Walton and Cotton, which follows "The Fathers of Angling," is second in information and interest to none of the many which preface the Waltonian editions or have an independent existence. "Thormanby" thinks Cotton to have been incomparably a better sportsman than his friend Walton, and that it was marvellous to find two men, so utterly dissimilar in their lives and character, firm and affectionate friends. Walton, except for his amiable and interesting tendency to draw the long bow, which probably came from his excessive credulity, was a man of the most exemplary character and pure life. "I love such mirth," he says, "as does not make friends ashamed to look upon one another next morning." Cotton, on the contrary, was a "roystering, dissipated, reckless young squire," who says on one occasion in his later life:

> "I speak it with tears:
> I've been a toss-pot these twenty good years,
> And have drunk as much liquor as made me a debtor."

Withal, Cotton was a "generous, free-handed, big-hearted gentleman, whose purse, cellar, and larder were ever at the disposal of a friend." He assisted the luckless poet Richard Lovelace for years, rescuing him twice from prison, and, towards the end of Lovelace's life, when near poverty himself, sending him twenty shillings weekly as he lay slowly dying.

That interesting character, so dear to Scotsmen as an author and angler, Thomas

Tod Stoddart, is the subject of a most interesting fifty pages. One of his best angling songs, "The Taking of the Salmon," is apparently misquoted; at least, "Thormanby's" version is quite different from and inferior to that in Stoddart's 'An Angler's Rambles and Angling Songs.' Stoddart was a friend of Professor Wilson, who has immortalized his famous "Gaelic Sermon" in 'Noctes Ambrosianæ.' Stoddart did not know a word of Gaelic, but he once heard an eloquent Highland minister deliver a sermon in that tongue in such a dramatic and impressive way that he grasped the meaning; and so great was his power of mimicry that he was able to reproduce every gesture and sound with such marvellous fidelity that a party of Highland drovers who overheard him give the sermon to some friends on board the *Clansman* (that historic craft), listened entranced, never doubting it was Gaelic they heard.

The essay on "Christopher North" is a fitting tribute to that remarkable man, and full of fascinating details of his versatile accomplishments. No kind of sport or amusement seemed amiss to him. When at Oxford he jumped twenty-three feet, across the Cherwell, which was unbeaten until six years ago; and in his day there was no one in the three kingdoms who could approach him as a jumper. As a boxer, "Thormanby" says: "He was one of the best amateurs of his day, and no undergraduate of his time could take a diploma in boxing unless Wilson had tried him and awarded him a certificate of merit." On one occasion a professional pugilist of note obstructed Wilson's passage across a bridge. "Will you fight me?" exclaimed the angry undergraduate. "You'd better not try that game on, mister. I'm Tom So-and-so." "I don't care who you are, come on." Then each put up his fists, and at it they went. The professional was licked, and as he surlily gave in, said: "You must either be the devil or Jack Wilson of Magdalen." "The latter, at your service," quoth the victor, and the pair of them adjourned to a neighboring tavern and quaffed a friendly pot of porter together. Among Wilson's pedestrian feats was a night walk from London to Oxford in nine hours, from Liverpool to Elleray, his home, within twenty-four hours, a distance of about eighty miles; and from Kelso to Edinburgh, forty miles, to attend a public dinner. As a shot he was equally eminent. In 'Recreation' he tells of having killed fifty grouse in fifty successive shots, one bird to each shot. In angling, however, Wilson found his greatest and most enduring delight, and this pastime he kept up until the end of his out-of-door life. Even in his later hours, his daughter says: "It was an affecting sight to see him busy, nay quite absorbed, with the fishing-tackle scattered about his bed, propped up with pillows—his noble head yet glorious with its flowing locks carefully combed by attentive hands, and falling each side of his unfaded face."

"The Cokes of Holkham" is really devoted to Thomas William Coke, afterwards Earl of Leicester, "the father of modern agriculture." When member of Parliament, Coke was of the minority who voted against the American War, in 1776, and he moved and presented the petition to the King for the independence of the colonies. In recognition of this, Mr. Stephenson, the United States Ambassador, paid a visit to Holkham, for the purpose of offering, in the name of his countrymen, their "grateful acknowledgment to the man who had acted so early and so noble a part in vindication of America." Coke's numerous and successful experiments in scientific agriculture, which resulted in the transformation of his estate of 44,000 acres of poor and barren soil into the richest arable land in Norfolk, and in an increase of annual rental from £2,000 to £20,000, were the prime incentive to the advanced agricultural methods now prevailing in England. As a sportsman Mr. Coke was considered the best game shot of his day. Among his feats was that of killing 82 partridges in 84 shots, and it was at Holkham that the famous sculptor Chantrey performed his memorable feat of killing two woodcock at one shot, which was considered the more remarkable as he had but one eye, and that the left one. When sixty-eight years old, and for twenty-one years a widower, Mr. Coke married his goddaughter, a girl of eighteen and a daughter of the Earl of Albemarle. By her he had five sons and a daughter, and the eldest of the sons is the present Earl of Leicester, succeeding his father, on whom the title was conferred when he was eighty-three years of age.

The exploits of Lord Kennedy and Capt. Horatio Ross were almost entirely of a sporting nature, but their recital introduces many interesting details of life in Britain in the early part of this century. George Osbaldiston is alluded to, but, rather strangely, a sketch of him is omitted, though it is not missed amid the wealth of other good matter. Sir Humphry Davy, we learn, used to go fishing in an entire suit of green cloth, which he thought from its color more likely to elude the observation of the fish; and his brother says, as to his patience and perseverance: "I remember fishing with him from early dawn to twilight in the River Awe, in June, for salmon, with little interruption, without raising a fish." This must have meant sixteen to eighteen hours at least of hard, fruitless labor. Sir Richard Sutton, so eminent as a Master of Hounds, was at the same time a wonderful shot, as the following anecdote will show: He was once sitting on his shooting pony during a shower, with his gun in his right hand and an umbrella over his head in his left, when a covey of birds rose at about thirty yards' distance. Without losing hold of the umbrella, Sir Richard killed a bird with each barrel.

In the sketch of Alexander Russel of the *Scotsman*, who, "Thormanby" says, was "something far more than a great editor: he was the greatest Scottish force of his generation; greater even than Norman Macleod or Thomas Guthrie, because he appealed to the Scottish head as well as to the Scottish heart," this story is told:

"On one of his fishing holidays, Russel met a clergyman with whom he had the following colloquy: 'Do you ever fish?' asked the editor of the *Scotsman*. 'Yes,' replied the man in black, with a peculiarly sanctimonious smile, 'but I do not fish for salmon or trout, I am only a fisher of men.' 'I am afraid,' rejoined Russel, 'you don't make much of it, then, for I looked into your creel on Sunday, and there was very little in it.'"

With this we will end our notice of two captivating volumes, the half of whose richness still remains untouched. They are well worth reading by any one fond of sport and of reminiscences of well-known and slightly known personages, charmingly told.

FAMOUS BRITISH HOMES.

More Famous Homes of Great Britain and their Stories.—Other Famous Homes of Great Britain and their Stories. Edited by A. H. Malan. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900. Pp. xx+ 337. 1901. Pp. xxv+ 352.

Two years ago we reviewed in these columns the first volume of this series, and there are now before us the second and third, whose titles are the same as that of the first, with merely an addition of the words "More" and "Other." Each volume is, in fact, composed of wholly separate papers treating of wholly distinct individual subjects, namely, the different great mansions of England; and these papers are by many different authors. Much the greater number are by the editor, A. H. Malan, but others are by the owners of the great houses in question or by persons closely connected with them. Thus, Knole is described by Lord Sackville, the owner; Glamis by Lady Glamis; Mount Edgcumbe by Lady Ernestine Edgcumbe, and Rufford Abbey by Lord Savile. As the essays differ greatly from each other, so do the illustrations, for Wilton House, which is described by the Countess of Pembroke, is illustrated by sixteen photographs, to which must be added two other photographs of famous paintings in the house; whereas the immensely important subject of Knole and its contents has but one photographic illustration, and is otherwise rendered in reproductions of drawings which, however accurate, are not at all the same thing as photographs when it comes to questions of delicate seventeenth-century furniture and decoration. There is one interesting feature which seems worthy of mention—the table of contents, in which a brief summary of what is notable concerning each home is given, and the position of the author with relation to the building named. An additional good quality is to be made much of, namely, that, although the papers are of such a character that they would almost seem destined to be wordy and "gushing," this fault is conspicuous by its absence. How the editor has contrived to persuade his noble contributors to write simply and modestly about their own mansions, and how he has managed himself to avoid undue emphasis in his treatment of the buildings and their contents, in spite of the influence of the powerful families controlling them, must remain unexplained, except by his own reputation for good taste and dignity as a critic. In short, the series, consisting now of three large octavo volumes, with hundreds of illustrations, is to be accepted with far greater confidence than the look of the thing, or the title, would lead one to give to a work of such a character. Books about "Gentlemen's Seats" are usually such dreadful rubbish that it is very hard to shift the mental attitude and to accept the books before us as really valuable contributions to the architectural history of England and Scotland, as well as to that very curious and elusive study called Family History.

Each volume contains twelve essays, and is concerned with twelve mansions, and it

seems worth while to name them. The following, then, have been treated by the editor, namely, Blickling Hall, Cotehele, Longleat, Naworth Castle, and Inverary, all in the second volume of the series; and in the third volume, Dunvegan alone. By persons closely connected with the houses described are the papers on Knole in Kent; Glamis, with its mystery known only to the Earl of the day, his eldest son, and one confidant; Levens Hall in Westmoreland; Mount Edgcumbe at Plymouth, beloved by Charles Kingsley; Wilton House in Wiltshire; Rufford Abbey in Nottinghamshire; Compton Wynyates, described by Miss Alice Dryden; Wollaton, the house with the lofty hall rising like a tower above the other buildings, described by Lady Middleton; Castle Bromwich, by the Countess of Bradford; Castle Howard, a famous piece of classical designing, the masterwork of Vanbrugh, by Lord Ronald Sutherland Gower; Osterley Park, near London, by the Countess of Jersey; Clumber in Nottinghamshire, by the Duchess of Newcastle; Audley End, by Elizabeth J. Savile; Dunrobin Castle, by the same author as Castle Howard; Stoneleigh, in Warwickshire; Dalkeith Palace in Scotland, St. Michael's Mount in Cornwall, and Stowe in Buckinghamshire, each by some person closely connected with the estate itself. All of those papers which we have as yet had time to examine are written in a simple and pleasant style, and, though differing greatly in merit, when considered as instructive accounts of a great building and its contents, or as pieces of English history, are still worthy of their place in a collection which maintains a proper standard of literary merit.

One has to be a student of art to appreciate to the full the extraordinary gathering of treasures which certain ones of these great houses offer to the visitor. We cannot help returning to Knole as being the well-known shelter of the greatest collection of ancient furniture in England. Not only are the carved cabinets and sideboards and ponderous tables of old time carefully preserved, but the upholstery of James I.'s reign is in place, the crimson velvet turned gray, and even more lovely for the change, the passementerie and tassels tarnished, but in perfect preservation. Paintings of very considerable importance, not all of them family portraits, hang on the walls of the long gallery, and the ball-room, and the drawing-room. Recent centuries have added to the ancient stock of artistic treasures a collection of porcelain, a collection of furniture by the famous makers of the eighteenth century, tapestry and gorgeous silks. And all this is housed in a castellated structure enclosing two greater and several smaller courts, and adorned within by the fitting decoration of staircases, screens, plaster ceilings, oak wainscotings, and the like to an extent and with a uniformity of excellence that makes the house more than a museum—that makes it something which America has not yet seen, and may never see: a palace perfect in itself and in its appointments.

Osterley Park is almost altogether an eighteenth-century mansion, so completely was it remodelled by the famous Robert Adam and his brothers. Grandeur, therefore, is not what this mansion pretends to; but order, symmetry, the dignity of reserve, are all given you in Osterley, and it is especially fortunate that we have these eight photographs of the house within and without, inasmuch as a house so near London as this is must needs be kept shut up and shown to visitors only under exceptional circumstances. It is, moreover, ignored by the guidebooks, which deal with every county in England except Middlesex, while Middlesex is lost in London, and all extra-metropolitan regions are ignored.

Audley End is an unspoiled Elizabethan mansion, although it is not now exactly as it was first built between 1600 and 1615; and here are pictures of singular importance, the portraits alone being of merit sufficient to make the house famous, while the pictures in the long gallery prevent the curious visitor from seeing the extraordinary display of treasures in cases and on tables which this long room also presents.

At Dalkeith Palace is Reynolds's "Pink Boy," not necessarily painted, as tradition has it, in competition with Gainsborough's painting having a similar name, but interesting enough by itself; and here are other paintings, too, in great numbers, which fortunately have interested the photographer so much that a large number of them are given in very tolerable half-tones. All these, and many other portable treasures of art, are enshrined here within the most sombre and unattractive eighteenth-century house that can be imagined, but its gravity may be thought to suit the rainy climate which is given to the neighborhood of the "gray metropolis of the north"; and certainly the noble trees which reach almost to Edinburgh are there for our admiration if the exterior of the house itself be unattractive.

In this manner is given a much needed addition to the ordinary architectural histories such as we have had to review in recent numbers of this journal; with the single exception, noted in our review of two years ago, that no plans of the stories are to be had, nor even, except in one or two cases where there has been copied an old print in bird's-eye view, anything which can give the student a general sense of what the building is. This is the more to be regretted because few are the books in which any of these plans can be found. One folio volume known by the misappropriated title, 'Vitruvius Britannicus,' and published in 1847, gives plans of Woburn Abbey, Hatfield House, Hardwicke Hall, and Cassiobury Park. Sutton Place, Guildford, is given in a series of measured drawings in connection with Frederick Harrison's admirable monograph, 'Annals of an Old Manor House.' Shaw's 'Elizabethan Architecture' offers a few partial plans; and further aid is afforded by the recent folio books of Belcher and Macartney, and Gotch, as well as in Blomfield's 'History of Renaissance Architecture in England,' though the plans here are usually taken from drawings in old collections, and are not of necessity up to date. In fact, the same curious indifference to their own national archæology which is characteristic of Englishmen of thought and research, and which has been the cause of almost no ruined abbeys or partly destroyed castles having been studied spade in hand by any investigator, allows a valuable book such as this to appear without the essential information to be had only from measured drawings. There is, of course, to be considered the natural reluctance of the occupants of a home, however stately, to have the arrangements of their sitting-rooms made clear to the world; but the reluctance is easy to overcome in most cases, and would disappear of itself in the face of anything like a serious interest in the architectural problems involved in the plan and structure of these ancient mansions.

Heroines of Fiction. By W. D. Howells. Harper & Brothers.

These two volumes constitute Mr. Howells's most extensive and important contribution to critical literature. Though the Heroines receive particular attention, he really passes in review the whole work of the most distinguished English novelists, from Richardson to Mrs. Ward, including in their company a few Americans. It is a case where the distinction between English and American must be noted, because the author's point of view compels its recognition, and is itself, perhaps, most acutely the distinction. What comes out most sharply is the American view of the right use of fiction, of its importance in literature, and of the methods by which its best and most enduring effects may be attained. This is the view which Mr. Howells would perhaps most wish to emphasize; but one consequence of his attitude, whether deliberately or unconsciously taken, is that his judgment of English novelists is, in several directions, and especially with reference to their art, or want of it, more interesting as the judgment of a foreigner passionately attached to his own canons of art, than just in the way that even a less appreciative and approving Englishman could be just.

The difference underlying disagreement about the values of æsthetic principles and artistic methods seems to rest, if not on a scant sympathy with the people by and primarily for whom English fiction is (or at least has been) written, certainly on an imperfect understanding. To Mr. Howells the novel appears the most serious and important form of literature, and its function is to represent life (limited by the decencies) with accurate and unsparing truth. "Thackeray," he says (more in sorrow than in anger), "would talk of fiction as fableland, when he ought to have known it and proclaimed it the very home of truth." To make the novel a thing of worth and beauty there is, he contends, only one method, the objective, impersonal method. The author's business is to represent. He must not intrude directly his personal opinions or feelings; he must not explain his characters or action, or comment upon them; he must just fling a bit of life without notes at the reader and leave him to make what he likes or what he can out of it. Very little stress should be laid on what the people in this bit of life do; they should, indeed, do nothing, if possible, because, through a representation of psychological states, the mystery of being may be more positively declared and the novel elevated to a proper supremacy among literary forms.

In respect to the use of the novel, Mr. Howells expresses the prevailing view of the American public; and in respect to the art, he expresses the American literary view derived from the French. Whether these views are the soundest, best, and final, and should, therefore, be vehemently urged for universal acceptance, is arguable, but must

be left to combative spirits with plenty of space at their disposal. Here we can find fault with them only in their bearing on Mr. Howells's judgments of some great English novelists, in their relation to his reiterated belief that those novelists would have been greater if they had cherished such views and conscientiously illustrated them, and in their constant provocation of his surprise that novelists with a somewhat frivolous conception of their vocation, practising false, blundering, ridiculous, even vicious methods, ever achieved any greatness at all. This judgment seems to us most interesting and faulty because, as we have said, it implies failure of intimacy with Anglo-Saxons at home, and has the quality of a foreign judgment. It is not a question of a degree of greatness that transcends the limit of race and language and defies time, but of that inferior degree appealing chiefly to one race and influencing most profoundly one generation. The English people at home are romantic and sentimental in action, very staid and prosaic in opinion. They like to do without reasoning why; and, in their novels, which they regard primarily as a means of distraction, they seek a reflection of their temperament. They demand that things shall be kept going at a pace; they have very little curiosity about mental states, and psychology is an amusement or fad tolerated in a small class but past understanding of the general. They are keen on the story, and, if there must be edification or reflection or moralizing, they like the author to give it in doses. They then know where to skip without loss. To the cry of art in prose they are indecently callous, whereas in poetry they respond to it instinctively.

The great novelists of the nineteenth century did not spring from the aristocracy or from an exclusive literary class. They belonged to the people, and the methods they adopted were their natural methods through which they could express themselves most clearly, and by which their public could be most readily and profoundly influenced. We cannot agree with Mr. Howells that Sir Walter Scott, Dickens, and Thackeray would have been greater had they been different, or that they would have delighted to write in conformity with modern Continental and American theories of art, if only they had known how. English prose has indeed always thriven in a state of anarchy as to art, and an English author, like an English judge, has always the privilege of establishing a precedent. The novelists especially have used this privilege, instinctively yielding to the will of the people, knowing, perhaps, that an arbitrary method would result only in their rejection as alien, and that, if they should insist on writing by rule, they would be read only by a limited class, while their greatness would be a matter to be searched for by posterity in library shelves, between the cracking covers of a first and only edition.

It is not possible to go into the personal preferences and prejudices expressed by Mr. Howells, though they are, of course, worth reflection and contradiction. He extends greater leniency than of old to Sir Walter Scott, but cannot help showing how much he dislikes the spirit of that conscienceless romancer's work and despises his method. He cannot, however, bring himself to speak tolerantly of Thackeray's 'Esmond,' nor to see the use and beauty of an aristocracy; while towards the Stuarts, especially Prince Charlie, he maintains an austere contempt, an implacable hostility.

In his selection of heroines of American fiction, Mr. Howells's obligation to ignore his own constitutes a great loss to the interest and completeness of his volumes. "Novelists," he remarks repeatedly, "are great in proportion to the accuracy and fulness with which they portray women." Again we hear the national note, and, as we recall Mr. Howells's numerous and admirable portraits of women, we feel no inclination to disown or qualify it.

The volumes are profusely and, on the whole, agreeably illustrated, though, like the text, the point of view is sometimes too national to do the subject justice. The Vicar of Wakefield's Sophia is endowed with aggressively modern and American beauty, and to Gwendoline Harlett is given an air and a bodice like unto those of the up-to-date girls of *Life's* society legends.

The Fireside Sphinx. By Agnes Repplier. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901.

The cat was created in the Ark, as the legend goes; and the Garden of Eden, where the comforts of home were incompletely organized, lacked the small inscrutable goddess of the hearth in whose honor Miss Repplier has compiled these entertaining chapters. The Egyptians, true to their love of all animals, literally adored dogs and cats. "When the family cat dies," says Herodotus, "they shave the eyebrows; when the dog dies, they shave the whole body and head." The Greeks, from Odysseus down, loved the dog, but Pussy came late to ornament Greek civilization. She was a caprice even then, not a necessary, as we see from the lament of the lover who lost his mistress because he would not buy her a kitten. We quote Graham Tomson's charming version:

"Arsinoë the fair, the amber-tressed,
Is mine no more;
Cold as the unsunned snows are is her breast,
And closed her door.
No more her ivory feet and tresses braided
Make glad mine eyes;
Snapt are my viol-strings, my flowers are faded,
My love-lamp dies.

. . . . . .

A little lion, small and dainty-sweet
(For such there be!),
With sea-grey eyes and softly stepping feet,
She prayed of me.
For this, through lands Egyptian far away,
She bade me pass:
But, in an evil hour, I said her nay;
And now, alas!
Far-travelled Nicias hath wooed and won
Arsinoë,
With gifts of furry creatures, white and dun,
From over sea."

The rejected youth probably shared the cynicism of the Greek in the comedy who says to an Egyptian acquaintance: "We really have nothing in common; if you see a sick cat, you shed tears, while my only thought is to kill it and get the skin."

The mediæval cat was rather feared than loved, and Miss Repplier's sprightly tales of her persecution are sad reading. Not even to-day has the cat wholly triumphed over her past. The pampered minority may tyrannize over the modern household as they tyrannized over the meek Egyptians; but you have only to watch a cat cross a street to realize that she has acquired that distrust and shrinking caution through the persecutions of all the centuries. The cat has long been the cherished companion of the literary man. It is a far cry from Cowper to Baudelaire; but, if they have not a single other idea in common, their feeling for the fireside Sphinx makes them kin. Cowper's affection was of course admirably regulated. Baudelaire's passion for cats touched the grotesque. When he entered a friend's house he was "restless and uneasy" till he had seen the cat, and his exaggerated ecstasies over "mon beau chat" sometimes alienate our sympathy. But the verse from "Les Chats" that Miss Repplier has placed on her title-page appeals to all for whom a favorite cat is the essential ornament of the library fireside:

"Les amoureux fervents et les savants austères
Aiment également, dans leur mûre saison,
Les chats puissants et doux, orgueil de la maison,
Qui comme eux sont frileux, et comme eux sédentaires."

Miss Repplier's book is entirely popular in its treatment, and is written in a tone that will endear it to all lovers of cats. We think that the illustrations, in these days of photography, might have been made more interesting. The frontispiece is a most appealing cat, but, for the rest, the book would be quite as attractive without them.

China in Convulsion. By Arthur H. Smith. Fleming H. Revell Co.

The difference between a personal and even romantic narrative of adventure written hastily on the spot by an enterprising traveller, and the sober record of one who has had twenty-eight years of experience and close observation, with accurate scholarship and leisure to correct hasty judgments, is shown when Landor and Smith are compared. Those who want reading for pleasure only must and will have Landor's 'China and the Allies.' Those who would know just what did happen will read 'China in Convulsion.' Dr. Smith's equipment for his work is sufficiently stated when the fact is grasped that he is the author of 'Chinese Characteristics' and 'Village Life in China.' The element of personal adventure is sufficiently prominent in his having seen and noted the genesis of the Boxer movement, in living through the siege in Peking, in being a witness of what afterwards took place, beholding both Peking and Tientsin in transformation, and last, but not least, able to talk with hundreds of native survivors. The two volumes are copiously illustrated with maps and index.

It is fortunate for the reader who attacks these portly volumes that the author's style is so clear, straightforward, and rich in literary graces. Yet, though strong in chastened rhetoric, Dr. Smith does not sacrifice facts to attractive statements. His knowledge of the background of events enables him to interpret them clearly, and with sufficient effectiveness. He is not only a narrator of events, but also a philosophic historian. His balance and judicial-mindedness are seen in his frankly facing the facts. He does not deny the disturbing nature of Christianity itself, or the effect upon the Chinese of the presence of civil and military avengers from Christendom, with their almost indiscriminate looting and indulgence of elemental passions. Further, he feels, even if he does not flatly express, his geographical limitations, which are shown in his restricted view. Without attempting to discuss the whole question of the Chinese Empire before the world, his view is

confined, too much, we think, to northern China and the region of Peking. Despite his intention and ability to be fair all round, there are some things which an outsider can see perhaps even more plainly. It seems quite clear now that, whether on account of the unintentional precipitation of the Boxer movement or otherwise, the whole series of events of the summer of 1900 is rather a matter belonging to northern China—an affair of Boxers and Mantchus—than a movement of "all the Chinas." Certainly, in the middle and southern parts of the empire, where reform, at least in intellectual conviction, has made more solid progress, where the Mantchu rule is less accepted, and the Mantchu dynasty most bitterly hated, there have been few signs of commotion or sympathy with either the Peking mandarins or the red-sashed Boxers.

Having frankly declared the limitations, along with manifest excellencies which time will only reveal more fully, we are now prepared to look at the contents of the book, which we have read with pleasure, and we confess with a little pride that the author is an American, albeit not a lover of Russian policy; withal counting that China has been extraordinarily fortunate in having so plausible a defender in Minister Wu of Washington. Of the thirty-eight chapters in the two volumes, thirteen are devoted to the causes of the convulsion of 1900. Dr. Smith treats of the remoter sources of antipathy of Chinese to foreigners. He shows that the normal mind of an orthodox Chinese is very much like that of those Christians of the Middle Ages, and later, who considered the "deposit" of faith divinely perfect, that they were the guardians of it, that originality of thought or any innovation of custom was not only blasphemy and sin, but in itself heresy, rebellion, and anarchy. As the logical fruit of mediæval Christian orthodoxy was the Inquisition with its unspeakable horrors, men like Philip II., and the slaughter of heretics, so from the Chinese mind antipathy, and, through provocation, violence and murder, are logically bred. Whereas we foreigners see the three religions of China, Confucianism, Taoism, and Buddhism, as distinct and separated cults, they exist in the average Chinese mind as but one amalgam. Whether Boxerism sprang out of Confucianism, or, as Landor would dogmatically assert, from Buddhism, or more immediately from the old superstition and witchcraft which underlie all formal or book religions in China, it is certain that the Mantchu mandarins, especially, were too happy to use the convenient weapon to rid China once and for all of disturbing influences. By extirpating not only Christianity but all things alien, they hoped to insulate China from the shock of change.

Dr. Smith demonstrates that, besides troubles from Protestants and Catholics, anti-foreign riots, and anti-foreign propaganda which, as early as 1890, was laid open to public view by the scholarly researches of the Rev. Timothy Richards, there were the "commercial intrusion" and the "territorial aggression," which convinced so strong a reformer as Li Hung Chang that foreigners were, in their morals, and notably in their greed, no better than Chinese. With masterly grasp and insight, the author describes the reaction against the reform which had been begun by the Emperor, advised by Kang Yu Wei. The genesis of the Boxer movement and the gathering of the storm are finely pictured. Dr. Smith makes clear the close collusion between the Boxer leaders and the Empress and Mantchu mandarins. Then follow fifteen chapters, describing the siege and rescue, given in smooth narrative, after laborious digest of details. Those on the punishment of Peking, the capital in transformation, the ruin of Tung-Chou, and Tientsin after the siege are wonderfully interesting.

Not the least valuable part of the work is that containing the personal narratives of native Christians from various places in the zone of disturbance. These are modest, and notably free from hysteria and heated rhetorical reports. They give a fresh revelation of the staying powers and intrinsic manhood of the Chinese, and open a new chapter in the annals of modern Christianity. The author confesses freely, with the shame that all civilized men must feel, the folly and cruelty in which the soldiers of "Christian" nations indulged. He does not spare exposure of the thieving propensities of civilians and tourists, nor does he hesitate to brand as abominable shams some of the so-called military and punitive expeditions of the Germans. He is firm in his conviction that more punishment ought to have been meted out to the native offenders in high office.

Nevertheless, acknowledging all these drawbacks without stint, and not palliating their evil effects on the native mind, Dr. Smith is an incorrigible optimist as to the future. China can never be the old China that she was, but must move into a new and better life. Not that the author has any faith whatever in a mere importation of "funded civilization" in the form of steamships, railways, and telegraphs. In themselves, these have no regenerating quality, but are simply disturbing forces, destitute of all ethical value, occasioning more evils than they remedy. It is true of the Chinese, more than of any other non-Christian people, that they have never been profoundly moved by other than moral forces. When the tumult of fighting, and the inevitable divisions among foreigners, whose union is feebleness, are over, moral forces will resume their sway. In short, one rises from this book, not only with the impression that it is a masterwork, but that the Chinese people are thoroughly human beings—no better, no worse, than those who call themselves Christians; and that honesty and unselfishness in work devoted to them are no more lost than the same ethical and philanthropic energy devoted to human beings elsewhere.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ayres, R. F. Four-Footed Folk. R. H. Russell.
Bateman, C. T. G. F. Watts. (Bell's Miniature Series of Painters.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Bertin, Georges. Madame de Lamballe. Godfrey A. S. Wieners. $1.50.
Besant, Annie. Esoteric Christianity. John Lane.
Bryce, James. Studies in History and Jurisprudence. Henry Frowde.
Caxton Series of Reprints: (1) Tennyson's In Memoriam; (2) La Motte-Fouqué. Undine and Aslauga's Knight. London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners. $1.20 each.
Chinnock, E. J. A Few Notes on Julian. London: David Nutt. 1s. 6d.
Chubb, E. W. English Words. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 75 cents.
Clark, E. B. Bird Jingles. A. W. Mumford. 60 cents.
Clark, E. B. Birds of Lakeside and Prairie. A. W. Mumford. $1.
Clark, G. O. Nightmare Land. R. H. Russell.
Clay, Beatrice. Stories from Le Morte d'Arthur and the Mabinogion. (Temple Classics.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan.
Cleeve, Rowley. George Romney. (Bell's Miniature Series of Painters.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Coleman, W. M. Economics as a Foundation for a Theory of Government. New York: Published by the Author. $1.
Coman, Katharine, and Kendall, Elizabeth. A Short History of England for School Use. Macmillan. 90 cents.
Cooper, E. T. Linear Perspective. Adapted for Colleges, Schools, and Teachers, and for Self-Instruction. Cleveland: Lamson & Carpenter.
Curtis, Isabel G. Left-Overs Made Palatable. Orange Judd Co.
Diehl, Anna R. The Story of Jennie O'Neil Potter. Isaac H. Blanchard Co.
Doolittle, Eric. Measures of 900 Double and Multiple Stars. (University of Pennsylvania Publications.)
Doub, W. C. A Topical Discussion of Geography. Macmillan.
Dryer, C. R. Lessons in Physical Geography. American Book Co. $1.20.
Fitchett, W. H. The Tale of the Great Mutiny. Scribners. $1.50.
Giffen, Lilian. The Ghost of the Belle-Alliance Plantation, and Other Stories. Published by the Author.
Gilder, R. W. Poems and Inscriptions. Century Co. $1.
Gower, R. S. The Tower of London. Vol. I. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $6.
Grinnell, G. B. American Duck Shooting. Forest & Stream Pub. Co. $3.50.
Heaven, Louise P. An Idol of Bronze. The Grafton Press.
Hesse-Wartegg, Ernst von. Samoa, Bismarck-archipel und Neuguinea. Leipzig: J. J. Weber. 15 marks.
Hill, Constance. Jane Austen: Her Homes and her Friends. John Lane. $6.
Holman, L. A. Goethe's Reineke Fuchs: The First Five Cantos. H. Holt & Co. 50 cents.
Honeyman, A. V. Bright Days in Merrie England. Plainfield (N. J.): Honeyman & Co. $1.50.
Hopkins, E. W. India, Old and New. (Yale Bicentennial Publications.) Scribners. $2.50.
Hort, F. J. A. Notes Introductory to the Study of the Clementine Recognitions. Macmillan. $1.25.
Hufford, Lois G. Shakespeare in Tale and Verse. Macmillan.
Jastrow, Morris. The Study of Religion. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Josaphare, Lionel. Turquoise and Iron. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson. $1.20.
Judd, Mary C. The A-B-C Book of Birds. A. W. Mumford. $1.
Kemble, E. W. Kemble's Pickaninnies. R. H. Russell.
Kenyon, F. G. Handbook to the Textual Criticism of the New Testament. Macmillan. $3.25.
Kenyon, J. B. Loiterings in Old Fields. Eaton & Mains. $1.
Kropotkin, Prince. Fields, Factories, and Workshops. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 90 cents.
Labiche, Eugène, and Martin, M. E. Le Voyage de Monsieur Perrichon. American Book Co. 35 Cents.
Lanson, Gustave. L'Université et la Société Moderne. Paris: Armand Colin. 1 fr. 50c.
MacCracken, H. M. The Three Essentials: A Baccalaureate Discourse. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.
Machat, J. Le Développement Economique de la Russie. Paris: Armand Colin. 4 fr.
Neville, J. J. Famous Sayings of Famous Americans. Syracuse: Courier Printing Co.
Orcutt, Emma L. Esther Mather. The Grafton Press.
Palmer, A. H., and Eldridge, J. G. Die Braut von Messina. H. Holt & Co. 60 cents.
Penfield, Edward. The Big Book of Horses and Goats. R. H. Russell.
Pepper, Mary S. Maids and Matrons of New France. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Pocket Edition of Balzac, Vols. 27, 28, 29, and 30. Boston: Little Brown & Co.
Root, F. A., and Connelley, W. E. The Overland Stage to California. Topeka (Kan.): Published by the Authors.
Ruskin, John. Sesame and Lilies. H. Holt & Co.
Schwarz, G. F. Forest Trees and Forest Scenery. The Grafton Press.
Simpson, J. Y. Henry Drummond. (Famous Scots Series.) Scribners. 75 cents.
Stein, M. A. Preliminary Report on a Journey of Archæological and Topographical Exploration in Chinese Turkestan. London: Eyre & Spottiswoode.
Sutherland, H. V. Biggs's Bar, and Other Klondyke Ballads. Philadelphia: Drexel Biddle.
Teresa, Saint. The Way of Perfection. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.
The Twentieth Century New Testament, Part III. Fleming H. Revell Co. 50 cents.
Thomas, Calvin. The Life and Works of Friedrich Schiller. H. Holt & Co. $3.25.
Thomas, Calvin, and Hervey, W. A. A German Reader and Theme Book. H. Holt & Co. $1.
Thompson, Slason. Eugene Field. 2 vols. Scribners. $3.
Timrod, Henry. Verses from the Cotton Boll. Richmond (Va.): B. F. Johnson Pub. Co.
Trollope, Anthony. Doctor Thorne. John Lane. 75 cents.
Verne, Jules. Les Forceurs de Blocus. D. Appleton & Co. 30 cents.
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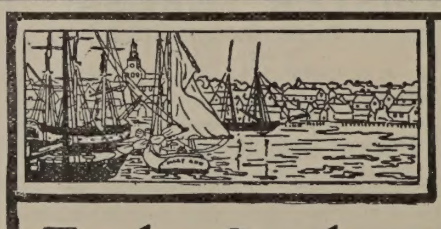

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 26, 1901.

The Week.

Rear-Admiral Schley's objections to the verdict of the Court of Inquiry are disingenuous in many respects. He refers throughout to the report of the "majority of the Court," even when touching on those points upon which Admiral Dewey was in full accord with Rear-Admirals Benham and Ramsay. In remarking upon the Hodgson matter, he calls attention merely to the question of the colloquy, when it was his treatment of the subsequent correspondence with Hodgson for which the Court censured him. As a whole, Rear-Admiral Schley's exceptions are simply those which any man might make in any court where a case had gone against him. To his question why the Court did not take his word on certain points, there is but one answer which the Court can give—it found the evidence to the contrary from many credible witnesses entirely too strong to be overlooked. It would hardly be advisable, if it were possible, for the Rear-Admiral to force the Court to still greater frankness. However he may succeed in puzzling the public by his protests, 95 per cent. of the officers of the navy have but one view, that he has got off remarkably well, and far better than he deserved. If this is a "conspiracy" on the part of his fellow-officers, it is the most complete, wholehearted, and generally remarkable conspiracy this country has ever seen.

Secretary Long's action in approving the finding of the Schley Court of Inquiry and mildly disapproving the dissenting opinion of Admiral Dewey can, of course, be attributed by the Schley press solely to the same conspiracy, which they know has so long "hounded" the hero. Even the evident fact that this was done with the consent of President Roosevelt will not, we are sure, save Secretary Long from more abuse at the hands of those who were quite ready to acknowledge and praise his able administration of the navy during the war with Spain, until they conceived the idea that he was wantonly planning to rob a gallant officer of his reputation and good name. As it is, we can only hope again that the incident is now closed for all time. The review of the case by the civilian tribunal composed of three lawyers proposed by Schley's adherents is not one to be entertained for an instant. So far as history is concerned, the facts are on record, and the nation and navy have been saved from having the Schley standard of efficiency and honor made that of the service, which, fortunately for its good name, has had but one such unhappy incident in its history.

The severity of the censure of Gen. Miles for his indiscreet interview upon the Schley case is probably without parallel in the history of the army, in view of his rank and prominence, yet it would be hard to say that it is undeserved. The habit of talking too much seems to have fastened itself upon high officers in this country, as it has upon the Bullers and Whites and Colvilles in England and the Von Waldersees in Germany. Wherever it establishes itself, it makes against discipline and subordination, and it must be checked if a military service is to be kept efficient. If it seems to the civilian a hardship, the reply is that it is one of the conditions of the service which every officer accepts voluntarily—however irksome it may be to omit opportunities for rushing into print. In Gen. Miles's case the length of his service and his knowledge of the regulations make his misdeed a far graver one than a similar indiscretion in the case of a younger officer. The frequency of the fault in others, and the fact that this is not Gen. Miles's first offence, undoubtedly gave edge to Secretary Root's rebuke. The truth is, that Gen. Miles has lost touch with the present administration of the War Department, as he did with previous ones. In any other service an officer of his rank so reprimanded would resign or retire, and give the Administration an opportunity to select a commanding General in active sympathy with its endeavors to take the army out of politics, and to reform it from the bottom up. Another slip on the part of Gen. Miles might easily result in his forcible retirement by direction of the President. As it is, the feeling in favor of the abolition of his position and the substitution of a chief of staff, to be appointed for four years by each President, is steadily growing.

It has unexpectedly transpired that Secretary Gage will shortly resign the portfolio of the Treasury and take up again the rôle of banker, which he abandoned five years ago at the instance of President McKinley. This change will be due wholly to his own volition, and not to any disagreement or friction with President Roosevelt. We have reason to believe that the latter would greatly prefer to retain the services of a financier so skilled, and an adviser so capable and many-sided, as Mr. Gage has shown himself to be. But Mr. Gage is not a rich man, and he probably considers that he has given as much of his time to the public service as he can afford to do. Mr. Gage was among the bankers of this city on Thursday evening, and made a speech to them which may, perhaps, be considered the last advice he can give them from the exalted position he has filled at Washington. He took this opportunity to repeat a suggestion which he made in his last report to Congress, in favor of a great financial institution to be formed by the voluntary action of the banks for mutual support and strength in times of trouble. He did not, however, indicate any means of bringing about such a union. He referred his hearers to his annual report, leaving the impression on their minds, perhaps, that they would there find a more definite exposition of his views. But the report itself does not supply the missing link. Mr. Gage there pronounces branch banking so opposed to the ideas and institutions of our people that it is not to be thought of. He does not now tell us whether the idea which he entertains depends for its realization upon the lawmaking power, but we infer from his general drift that it does not. The difference between his views and those of Mr. Stickney, on which we commented last week, is in reference to branch banks. Mr. Stickney favors them, Mr. Gage does not.

If we correctly apprehend Mr. Gage's thought, there is no obstacle to the carrying out of his suggestion now. The means for doing so already exist. It is only for the bankers to put their heads together and establish the great central institution. Some people may indeed ask whether this movement has not already begun. There has been an observed tendency toward bank consolidation in this great banking centre for some time. There has been a nucleus growing in the nebula for several years, and more latterly a second one has appeared. The first one in the field was the City National Bank and its consolidations and outside belongings. The second and later one is the First National Bank and its affiliations. Now the idea of a great central institution is not consistent with the idea of two great central institutions, and if there are to be two, why not three or more? The two already in progress, we may be sure, are not forming with any thought of public benefit. That is not a banking conception. It has no proper place in the categories of finance. The two nuclei are forming to make money for their shareholders and managers. They want to bring large sums of money together in one place and under one control, in order to take advantage of circumstances that may arise which promise gain. They may prove to be of advantage to the public in times of panic, or they may be promoters and

producers of panics, as the old Bank of the United States was, under its Pennsylvania charter.

The bright hopes founded upon Gov. Taft's report on the progress of civil government in the Philippines are dashed by a cablegram to the Associated Press, which says that Gen. George W. Davis recommends that the province of Misamis, Mindanao, be again placed under military control. He says that he has proof that the recently elected civil officers have been furnishing ammunition to the insurgents. Gen. Wade, who is in command on Cebu Island, concurs with Gen. Davis. Gen. Chaffee takes a more hopeful view, but thinks that military rule will be required in Samar for some months longer. "There," says the dispatch, "the situation demands a policy of rigid starvation, and the giving of food only to those who surrender or who stay in the towns." Reconcentration is the watchword in Samar and South Africa, and to this complexion have we, in common with our English cousins, come at last. Or, rather, we came to it long ago, and we are keeping it up because it is so beautifully adapted to the purpose of crushing out the "rebellion." We have to admit now that Weyler understood his business, and that when he introduced the "policy of rigid starvation," of which Senator Proctor drew such a moving picture, he was our master, our past-master, in the art of putting down rebellions.

One of the most striking and significant facts in connection with the relations of the United States to the Philippines is the prompt return to this country of all soldiers who can get away from the islands. Recruits are being sent thither at the rate of nearly 1,000 a month, yet Gen. Chaffee has had to cable for a thousand more cavalry recruits. This is by no means due to the losses from disease, or sickness, or disability, but to the circumstance that men cannot be got to reënlist when their terms have expired. Each returning transport brings several hundred discharged men to San Francisco, and a number of regiments in or near Manila which were reorganized and filled up with fresh recruits early in 1899, just after the war with Spain, have been almost paralyzed by the refusal of these men to reënlist. Thus, of the 1,200 men in the Twentieth Infantry, 600 have taken their discharges, including the majority of the non-commissioned officers, so that, as Col. McCaskey puts it, "the regiment will be practically disorganized." The First, Fifth, and Sixth Cavalry, and Third, Fourth, Eighth, Twelfth, Twenty-first, Twenty-second, and Twenty-ninth Infantry are similarly affected. The men have but one idea, namely, to get "home" as soon as possible. Not one per cent. wish to stay in the archipelago, and it is well that not many are so inclined. When the volunteer army was mustered out last spring, there was an immediate glut in the white labor market, and, to prevent disorder and destitution, some ex-soldiers who had elected to stay were sent home. Nothing could show more plainly how little the Philippines have to offer to Americans without considerable means, and how utterly unattractive the insular conditions are to men brought up in the United States. How different the history of the Louisiana Purchase, of Texas, of California!

Secretary Root's refusal to postpone the Cuban election set for December 31 is extremely creditable both to himself and to the Administration. It will be unsatisfactory only to the Maso party, which had hoped to bring about a delay, and it will not confirm the General's followers in their belief that there is to be governmental interference in the election. That there has been some partisanship displayed by Cuban office-holders is altogether probable. Secretary Root, however, takes this opportunity to reaffirm the intentions of our Government to get out of Cuba at the earliest possible moment, and to permit no delay in the programme except for the "most weighty and substantial reasons." As to the specific charge brought by Mr. Fidel G. Pierra, the representative of the Maso interests, Mr. Root points out that the political bias of the Central Board of Scrutiny in favor of one candidate furnishes no ground for overturning the complicated election machinery erected by the Constitutional Convention. He believes that to be a false theory of official responsibility which assumes that men in places of public trust will be guilty of malfeasance because they prefer one candidate to another. Most effective of all is Secretary Root's demonstration that a compliance with Mr. Pierra's request would be the very interference in the Cuban election against which the Maso party has all along protested. The Secretary's admirable letter should go far towards reassuring the Cuban public and all others interested that the United States will withdraw from Cuba in the first half of 1902, if the Cubans themselves will permit such a withdrawal by the prompt establishment of their republic.

The ship-subsidy people will take small comfort from the recent visit of the great English shipmaster, Sir Christopher Furness. He came to this country in order to see how we do things in the construction of seagoing vessels and in means of transportation generally. If he had had the interests of the subsidy people at heart, he would have pointed out the great disadvantage under which our infant shipping industry lies, and would have urged Congress to consider so pitiful a case. But, most inconsiderately, he had his own interests in mind, and left in American shipyards orders aggregating four million dollars for twelve steamers of an average carrying capacity of eight thousand tons. The insidiousness of such an act would in the good old times have aroused the suspicion that the treasury of the Cobden Club was somehow involved in the purchase. To-day "British gold" has not the hateful look it had a score of years ago, and probably even the ship-subsidy people will soon admit that we build ships cheaper than any other nation. Help is needed, not for the struggling ship-builder, but for the oppressed ship-owner. Sir Christopher Furness's untimely confirmation of the well-known fact that this is the best place in the world to buy ships, recalls vividly the aphorism that one should fear the Britishers even when they bring gifts.

One of the main difficulties to be encountered by the arbitration committee of the National Civic Federation was well illustrated on Sunday. While clergymen were terming the arbitration plan a great victory for humanity, the less gentle-mannered spokesmen of Cigarmakers' Union No. 144 pointedly suggested that the arbitrators could have no control over any labor bodies, and that therefore no attention should be paid the proposal by asking for a report concerning it. Aspersions were even cast upon the conduct of labor delegates to the Civic Federation conference. It is just this divergence in point of view between the clergymen and the cigarmakers that has always impeded the progress of arbitration. As soon as a plan which contains elements of fairness to both sides is prepared, and which consequently appeals to the outsider's sense of justice, it is likely to be viewed with suspicion by one party or the other. When confidence in labor leaders is lost by the men they represent, efforts at pacific settlement of a controversy are always regarded as showing readiness to play into the hands of the enemy. Labor organizations have not the close military discipline that enables bodies of men to accept defeat or its prospect without demoralization, and victory without arrogance.

Justice Jerome's proposal that the Legislature pass an act opening all the saloons in New York city Sunday afternoon and evening without consulting the voters of the city, has met the reception which was anticipated by those who know the strength of the home-rule sentiment in this State. Not a single newspaper, either in this city or in any other part of the commonwealth, endorses the idea that so radical a step should be

taken by the lawmakers at Albany without a reference to the people; and in this attitude the press undoubtedly reflects public opinion. It is obvious that the only policy which can possibly secure favorable consideration by the Legislature is that of local option, in the shape of a bill giving the voters of New York city a chance to show at the polls whether they want open saloons on Sunday or not. The movement for this referendum secures considerable support from people who oppose such opening, because it is now the general belief—shared by the shrewdest politicians in both parties—that the vote would show a large majority against Sunday saloons. For this very reason, however, those who favor Sunday opening are against applying the local-option idea—especially the liquor-dealers, who fear that, if the people should once vote against opening saloons on Sunday, there might be a movement for a similar vote by wards or election districts upon the question of having saloons open on week-days, which would result in making some sections of the city "dry" all the time.

If Senator Platt is really going to sue Mr. William Allen White and make it a test of personal and political friendship to read and denounce that writer's article on the boss, it can only be taken among the "boys" as a sign that the "old man" has lost his grip. Mr. White gives, to be sure, no flattering portrait of the boss, but it is difficult to find anything in his criticism which a jury would consider libellous. If Mr. White recalls a forgotten incident in Mr. Platt's career at Albany, and says that he recently dozed through an important Republican banquet, these are presumably matters of fact, not of opinion. It cannot be pleasant for Senator Platt to read that "he has no sort of conception of that part of a man which is called the moral nature"; but it would certainly be difficult for a more strenuous idealist than Senator Platt to prove to the satisfaction of a court of law that he had a conception of what is called the moral nature. These, in short, are matters of opinion, not of fact. Mr. William Allen White has been generally recognized as the eulogist, quite as much as the analyst, of those in high place, so that the very contemptuous tone of his article on Senator Platt constitutes a double grievance. But we believe that Senator Platt has no remedy except to appear so great and magnanimous to his fellow-citizens that the contemptible figure which Mr. White makes him out to be, will be generally execrated as a grotesquely false caricature. With this sword envy may be always slain.

Reciprocity has long been a favorite theme for meaningless verbal gymnastics, but the report of the Pan-American Committee conceals thought on that subject more successfully than even a political platform. It comes out strong for reciprocity treaties between the several American republics, based on "mutual concessions" and involving "reciprocal advantages." What these may be, the report, with more than Roman firmness, refuses to tell. It defies the world, however, to deny that reciprocity is "a fundamental principle of Pan-Americanism," and angrily resents the charge that it favors any kind of reciprocity treaties which would not be both "mutual" and "stable." We congratulate our delegate, Mr. Buchanan, former Minister to Argentina, for having put his name to a report containing such irreproachable sentiments. We congratulate him even more upon the skill with which he refrained from so much as mentioning the Argentine treaty of reciprocity with the United States, so contemptuously done to death in the Senate. This helps to make our national position clear. We are, to the last man, enthusiastically in favor of reciprocity in general; we are, to the last Senator, unalterably opposed to any given treaty of reciprocity.

The speech of Señor Casasus at Mexico (on December 17), on the proposal to establish a Pan-American bank, expressed the undoubted policy of the Mexican Government in declaring that such an institution is only a mirage. Governments, he said, cannot subsidize particular banks, since such a course would be unconstitutional, as well as unfair to other banks. It is good to find delegates at the Pan-American Congress perceiving the logic of the situation so clearly. In the first flush of enthusiasm at the Congress, a plan for a Pan-American railroad was proposed, and a committee was appointed to secure subsidies and land grants in support of the road from "those Governments that were economically able" to assist. The bank plan is another scheme of the same sort, and it is evident that Mexico is not to be one of the states that are "economically able" to support institutions without any clientèle. Probably every one of the South American countries would say the same thing. The suggestions of the Congress will, therefore, amount to no more than mild hints that the United States supply banking and trade instrumentalities to her neighbors on the south. The fact is that there is no use in establishing banks and railways until there is business for them.

Another occasion for Continental dread of American enterprise is afforded by the reported operations of the American Tobacco Trust in Germany. The ascendancy in the English market already acquired by the Trust makes this latest extension of its sphere all the more remarkable. President Duke of the American Tobacco Company is now said to have purchased four large German concerns. His plan is to unite two of these establishments and, with the three factories then remaining, to begin a contest for the control of the German market. It is too early as yet to express any opinion upon the possibility of the Trust's succeeding in its present effort to enter Russia as well as Germany. Both in France and in Russia the production of tobacco is a most profitable Government monopoly, and, unless the Trust could introduce very marked economies in production, it could scarcely afford to pay the heavy royalty that would be exacted. That this, however, is a possibility, the success of the Trust in acquiring the tobacco monopoly of Japan clearly proves. The significance of these foreign operations in tobacco lies in the fact that the Trust seems to be proceeding upon strictly commercial lines. In England, where it now has a firm foothold, it went only so far in its purchases of domestic firms as to gain a point of departure. It depends for the future upon its superior methods of production rather than upon artificial attempts at monopoly. How severely it is pushing the independent English concerns may be seen from their frantic appeals to patriotic smokers to use only home products.

An old sore was touched on Friday in the Italian Senate, when the question of the responsibility of the United States for the security of Italian citizens in America was raised. The Italian Minister of Foreign Affairs reasserted the eminently just position of his Government, that the payment of an indemnity as an act of grace is not adequate satisfaction for the failure to protect Italians in this country. That the families of lynched Italians should individually receive such indemnity he could not prevent, but he protested against a condition of things by which the United States refuses to foreigners the ordinary guarantees of a civilized nation. Invariably the President has had to make the humiliating confession that he had no jurisdiction in the matter, and as often Congress has taken the shabby course of offering blood-money, without apologies or guarantees for the future, or, indeed, any of the formal reparations which civilized nations offer in such a case. A simple act of Congress would remedy this discreditable state of affairs. Twice, in his annual messages of 1899 and 1900, President McKinley urged that Congress, by law, assign to the Federal courts jurisdiction in all cases in which the responsibility of the Government is involved. Twice the matter was ignored by Congress. President Roosevelt certainly does not yield to his predecessor in the sentiment of national honor, and we hope to see him take up vigorously a matter in which national honor is deeply concerned.

THE PANAMA SURRENDER.

Our Canal Commissioners at Washington must have read with peculiar and perhaps slightly malicious pleasure the dispatches from Paris telling of the complete surrender of the Panama Canal Company. By the action of its stockholders it has repudiated its former President, M. Hutin, whose discomfiture in the negotiation which he carried on, too cleverly by half, with Admiral Walker is now acknowledged. No one can read the correspondence which passed between them without smiling at the steady persistence with which the American met all the shifts and windings of the elusive Frenchman with the one question, "Tell us your price." At last M. Hutin named some figures—$109,000,000—which he said the Company would regard as "just," though from them it would doubtless make "reasonable concessions" if it should appear that they were justifiable. But implacable Admiral Walker took the Frenchman at his word, reported that the Panama Company had demanded an "unreasonable price," and, in view of that fact, he and his fellow-Commissioners favored the Nicaragua route.

"Too late," it is said, comes the consternation of the Panama stockholders at the blundering of their President; and too late their repentance and renewed offers to sell their property at a fair price. But why should it be too late for us to accept and profit by a situation which our Canal Commissioners labored long and earnestly to bring about? It is impossible to read their able report without seeing how strong is their inclination to the Panama route. In their final summary they say in so many words:

> "There are certain physical advantages, such as a shorter canal line, a more complete knowledge of the country through which it passes, and the lower cost of maintenance and operation, in favor of the Panama route; *but the price fixed* by the Panama Canal Company for a sale of its property is *so unreasonable* that its acceptance cannot be recommended by this Commission."

The "unreasonable" price was, as has been said, $109,000,000. What is the canal really worth to the United States? Not 109,000,000 cents, say the Nicaraguan enthusiasts. But softly, kind friends, we must not ignore our own Commissioners. They, as skilled engineers, made a careful estimate of the value of the Panama Canal, which may be found on p. 103 of their report. Leaving the plant entirely out of the account—since all the buildings, machinery, dredges, locomotives, etc., might be of no use to an American contractor—they reckon the whole to be worth in round numbers $40,000,000. This sum decomposes into $27,474,033 for the "excavation already done," $6,850,000 for the "Panama Railroad stock at par," and $2,000,000 for "maps, drawings, and records"—total $36,324,033, "to which add 10 per cent. to cover omissions, making the total value of the Panama Canal $40,000,000."

It is this valuation by the American Commissioners which the Panama stockholders have determined to accept. This shows how sweeping is Admiral Walker's triumph. He has succeeded in getting $69,000,000 knocked off the price named by M. Hutin. How will this leave the account between the two routes, purely on the money side? The Commissioners estimate the cost of constructing a Nicaragua canal at $189,864,620; to complete the Panama Canal will require, they say, $144,233,358. Add in the $40,000,000 for the estimated value of the work already done at Panama, and we have the latter route the cheaper by $5,600,000. But this is by no means the whole story. On p. 256 of the Commissioner's report is printed the estimated cost of maintaining and operating the two canals. The figures for Nicaragua are $3,300,000 a year; for Panama $2,000,000. This advantage of Panama represents a capitalized value of $40,000,000. Therefore, taking the estimate of our own engineers, we stand to save $45,000,000 by electing the Panama route. Is Uncle Sam so lavish and reckless that he will disdain to pick up a tidy sum like that?

This is saying nothing of the technical, engineering arguments. That these strongly favor the Panama route is now beyond dispute. There is practically a consensus, on this point, of the ablest engineers of all nations who have looked into the two projects. The engineering preferences of our own Commissioners are unmistakable in their report. They incline markedly to Panama, and bring out the difficulties and drawbacks of the Nicaragua route more conspicuously than has been done in any previous report. As they say, the "complete problem" involves a plan for a sea-level canal. This is wholly impossible through Nicaragua, and "the Panama route alone," say our Commissioners, "is feasible for a sea-level canal." To such a canal it is altogether likely that we shall want to come in the end; and this is but one of the engineering considerations which make powerfully for the choice of the Panama route. If the Frenchmen have perceived their great mistake and hastened to correct it, Americans should surely not seize the occasion to fall into a greater mistake of their own.

Happily, it is not too late for sober reconsideration. The President is not committed to the Nicaraguan route; his message spoke only of an Isthmian canal. The canal treaty leaves the door wide open for "whatever route may be expedient." With the Panama Company at last brought to their senses, and with their canal, which is demonstrably the cheaper and better, offered to the United States at a reasonable price, the opportunity for our Government is certainly fine both to save money and to build more wisely for the benefit of the generations and the commerce yet to be.

THE PHILIPPINE BURDEN.

President Roosevelt was never franker or terser than when, in his message to Congress, he called the Philippines "a great burden" to the United States. In that phrase he may have builded better than he knew. Boldly to throw down by one honest word the gorgeous fabric of empire and of glory built up in the Philippine oratory of a Beveridge, was to invite, whether consciously or not, a calm and sane review of our attitude and our policy. If a great burden, why bind it upon our backs one hour longer than absolutely necessary? This is the question which the march of events is more and more insistently pressing upon the Administration, upon Congress, and upon the people. There are many ways in which the Philippine burden is showing itself too grievous to be borne.

It is driving the Administration and the Republican party into self-stultification. On December 18 the House passed the bill reënacting the Dingley duties on Philippine products, which the Supreme Court had decided to have been unconstitutionally levied. But on the same day was published the report of our own Commissioners in the Philippines "earnestly recommending" that Congress "reduce by 50 per cent. the United States duty on tobacco, hemp, and sugar and other merchandise coming from these islands." Such a measure, affirm the Commissioners ("generosity" they call it), "would strengthen the bonds between the Filipino and American people." Out of our own mouths, therefore, we stand condemned. We do not need to hark back to Burke on the criminal folly of strangling the trade of colonies by tariffs and restrictions. Let Judge Taft, our own trusted agent in the Philippines, be our mentor. The action of the House was a blow full in his face.

Ignorant though they were of the urgent recommendations of the Philippine Commission, five Republicans broke away from their party in the vote on this tariff. Two of them—Messrs. McCall and Littlefield—by common consent stand for ability and character unsurpassed in the party, or in the House. Only the sternest pressure of conviction and of duty could have driven them to sever themselves from their fellow-Republicans. Why they were compelled to do so was clearly explained by Representative McCall. He had believed the annexation of the Philippines to be, from the beginning, an "infatuated policy." The present bill he regarded as inexpedient, unprincipled, and un-American. For his part, he was convinced that national honor, the integrity of republican institutions, our future peace and safety, together with every dictate of interest and justice, "demand that

we shall now so shape our steps that we may return to the God of our fathers."

This is the moral sword which is thrust into the vitals of the Republican party by our national treatment of the Filipinos. The division and dissent will be more marked as time goes on. We know of several Republican Congressmen who are privately crying out against the policy of retaining the Philippines, and who are only waiting occasion to ripen in order to publish their position. The tariff bill has yet to face the Senate, and justice will surely not be without its witnesses in that body. By the time the debate of the Senators comes on, the Philippine Commission's report will be seen to throw a strong light on the disastrous nature of the tariff bill. And it is to be hoped, too, that a sentiment of public indignation will be aroused, as at the time of the proposed Porto Rican tariff, to uphold the hands of those who believe that magnanimity to the Filipinos is the truest wisdom. For it is, at bottom, the modern spirit of humanity that makes most strongly against that application of the barbarous old colonial system which is proposed by the Republicans at Washington.

The fact that three Democrats voted for the Philippine Tariff Bill is comfortably taken, in some quarters, as a fair offset to the action of five Republicans in voting against it. Just the ordinary slight disregard of party lines, it is said. But the significant truth is, that the five broke away from party for the sake of principle, and the three for the sake of sugar. The Louisiana Democrats practically said to the Republican majority: "We see in your bill a recognition of those selfish notions of monopolistic taxation for which we stand. You mean to tax the Filipinos so as to prevent them from competing with us. You regard as perfect 'rot' the talk about being generous to the islanders, and would let them starve before you would take off a penny of their taxes. Those are our sentiments, too, and we are with you." This attitude really confirms and completes the condemnation of the bill expressed by the bolting Republicans. They charged that the measure was one of ruthless greed, and, to prove it so, had only to point to its support by the dissident Democrats who frankly accepted it as such. Thus, those who voted for it in defiance of party merely deepened the stigma placed upon it by those who forsook their colleagues to vote against it. The moral riddling of the bill was the more thorough for being double-barrelled.

We can but think that Secretary Root and President Roosevelt are making a grave mistake in assenting to, if they do not advise, the passage of the Philippine tariff bill, and that because of its necessarily harmful effect upon another project near their hearts. We refer to tariff relief for Cuba. This they mean to bend all their energies to obtain from Congress. But with what grace can it be asked for Cubans when denied to Filipinos? The latter are American citizens; the Cubans are foreigners. Will Congress be like flint to the prayers of its own, and relent at the petition of aliens? The Secretary and the President may think that a sullen and selfish protectionism will be more apt to be generous to the Cubans after having been allowed to make spoil of the Filipinos. But that is not the law of greed: it grows by what it feeds upon, and becomes more insolent with every triumph. This is the reason why we fear that the Administration, if it consents to tariff injustice in the Philippines, will make the removal of tariff injustice to Cuba more difficult, if not impossible.

The really crushing nature of the Philippine burden, however, appears in something other than these embarrassments of party management and Administration policy. Not even the enormous cost to us in money and life tells the whole story, or constitutes the main reason why American statesmanship should apply itself to the loosing of the Philippine burden at the earliest possible day. What we have got to see as a people is that we went on the wrong track in the Philippine venture from the first day; that it committed us to un-American ideas of human rights and government, and set us at war with all our past. It is said that, when Thiers met Ranke in Vienna during the fatal winter of 1870, he asked him, "With whom are you now fighting since the fall of the Emperor?" "With Louis XIV.," replied the German historian. It is, in like manner, George III. and Lord North with whom we opponents of the Philippine policy are still fighting. We cannot consent that those discredited rulers shall be dug out of their graves and allowed to dictate for us, in the American name, a colonial policy which drove America to revolt.

THE FUTURE OF COAL EXPORTS.

English coal-miners are just now suffering from another of their periodic chills, caused by the fear that they may have to share Continental markets with the United States. The immediate danger is not very apparent, since the latest returns of the Bureau of Statistics show that we exported only 6,403,008 tons of coal during the first ten months of the current year, as against 6,572,597 tons during the same period in 1900. Even if attention be confined to France and Germany, our two most favorable European markets, the actual increase over last year's exports is slight. In fact, our whole existing Continental trade in coal is relatively insignificant.

It is, however, acutely pointed out by the London *Economist* that "the exact extent which [American] exports have attained, is not material." The British coal trade is alarmed at certain tendencies which indicate that the present rudimentary export trade in American coal may grow to much greater importance. And undoubtedly there is some warrant for this apprehension. While our actual sales to Germany have been small, the present low freights are likely to increase them. Large recent purchases are reported, one Berlin wholesaler having contracted for 100,000 tons of anthracite. More important than this, many German consumers either prefer our anthracite, or recognize it as equal to the Welsh product, while, notwithstanding the crumbling suffered by our bituminous coal in transit, some authorities believe that it may compete successfully with German coal of the same character, so far as quality is concerned. It is not to be questioned that a great potential market for American coal exists on the Continent. About 12,000,000 tons are annually imported by France, 7,000,000 in round numbers by Germany, 6,000,000 by Austria, 3,000,000 by Sweden, and 4,000,000 by Italy. These quantities will be increased as manufacturing progresses and Continental mines deepen.

But the greatest impetus to the export of American coal comes from the industrial dissension caused by the trades-unions among the Welsh miners. Their power surpasses anything of the kind ever known in the United States, and their ability to control the conditions of production was clearly shown last autumn, when they fixed the "minimum" wage that will rule for two years. Moreover, they have recently insisted on a series of "stop days" at the mines, with a view to raising prices by limiting production—their wages increasing, on the sliding-scale principle, with the market price of the product. As a matter of fact, prices have not risen, though it may well be argued that the action of the miners has probably kept them from declining. The Welsh miners have forgotten that our output is now the largest in the world, and that consequently the price in any market must be determined by our cost of production, plus the cost of shipment to the point of consumption.

It is not to be expected that the Welsh miners will in the immediate future either relax their regulations or accept lower wages. The price of English coal is not, therefore, likely to decline. But the outlook for continued low freights for American coal is less satisfactory. Present rates are largely accidental and temporary. There has been, for reasons perfectly understood in shipping circles, a great relative increase in the amount of foreign and domestic tonnage offering its services to American shippers. Freights have, in consequence, declined, and

though they are by no means so low for coal as for other exports, they are far below the point at which they normally stand. But such a situation cannot be permanent. How to continue a scale of freights which will permit our coal to go abroad is now the problem.

That it may be solved, there is every reason to believe. In the first place, the flourishing condition of our shipyards and the skill shown in the construction of our vessels fully warrant the opinion that a new and economical type of ocean-carrier, especially suited to the demands of the coal business, will be turned out. The ships built for the grain and ore trade on the Great Lakes show what may be expected from American ingenuity. Moreover, the recent address of Mr. Schwab before the meeting of the naval architects and marine engineers in New York reveals how great is the incentive for the Steel Corporation to promote the development of such a fleet of American vessels. There is a close connection between our powerful interests in steel manufacture and ship-building, on the one hand, and our coal exports, on the other. It is highly desirable that there be at hand a staple to provide a permanent supply of freight when ordinary shipments are short. Our manufactures do not go abroad in equal quantities at all seasons of the year, and exports of corn and wheat are subject to slack times. Coal, it is evident, would fill an exceedingly useful function as a resort in dull months.

While, however, there are thus encouraging prospects for foreign trade in American coal, one important difficulty has to be reckoned with. It will be far from easy, under the most favorable circumstances, for even a great combination to keep transportation charges down to a point which will permit coal exports unless return freights can be obtained. Our colliers ought to be able to count upon cargoes both ways. If, for instance, our vessels could return laden with Swedish iron ores, duty free, the problem of a coal trade in Northern Europe would be solved. In fact, it is not probable that any great expansion in our coal exports can be expected until some steps have been taken to provide bulky return freights. These can surely be obtained only by a reduction in our present customs duties. At whatever door we enter, in this whole question of developing foreign trade, that is the door where we invariably come out.

PROGRESS OF LABOR ARBITRATION.

A very important step toward the settlement of labor troubles in this country was taken on December 17, in the appointment of a permanent committee to consider methods of treating such difficulties as they may arise in the future. This was the result of a meeting of the National Civic Federation, which was in session in this city during the past week, and was attended by the leading representatives of organized labor and by a number of the largest employers of labor in the country, and had its proceedings reported from day to day in the press. The motion for a standing committee was made by Mr. Sargent, the chief of the Locomotive Firemen, and was supported by Mr. Gompers, Mr. Mitchell, and other well-known leaders of workingmen's organizations, as well as by Senator Hanna, Mr. Schwab, and other employers. The standing committee consists of an equal number from either side and a chosen number of citizens, who are neither employers nor employed, but whose reputation guarantees their impartiality, as well as their mental equipment and fitness for this kind of service.

Though holding, as we do, that this is the right road towards industrial peace, we do not expect that all labor difficulties will be put to rest, or that strikes will soon disappear from the land. In the nature of things, differences between employers and employed must arise. The progress of industry causes inequalities. The distribution of the joint product of labor and capital which is fair and satisfactory to both sides to-day, becomes unfair after a time. Prices change. The wages of any given period may bring to the wage-earner less of consumable goods after a while. The earnings of the employer may increase so that he ought to pay more. They may decline to a point where he must pay less, or stop altogether. Wages and profits are in a state of flux and reflux. Not only are they changing relatively to each other all the time, but some trades actually go out of existence. Canal-boating, for example, once the principal mode of transportation in the country, has disappeared from some of the States entirely, and in others lingers only in a comatose condition. The whaling industry, which once employed large fleets, is now barely alive. Already we are wondering whether the manufacture of submarine cables and overhead telegraph wires may not be superseded by a system of wireless electric communication.

Nature does not allow industry to stagnate. The relations of labor and capital have always been in a state of unrest, and always will be. The conflict between them will always continue, and, paradoxical as it may seem, ought to continue. Capital will grasp all that it can get, and labor must fight for its rights, or lapse into servitude. This is the testimony of the ages. The true interest of the human race lies in the equalization of opportunities and rewards, and to this end all public effort should be directed. That the movement inaugurated last week is in the right direction, may be inferred from the fact that it looks to the instruction and guidance of public opinion quite as much as to the settlement of disputes between employers and employed. If the gentlemen named as the standing committee accept the task assigned to them, they will assume a great responsibility, but the fruits of their labor will be of corresponding value to the country. It can hardly happen that a committee so constituted should fail in any given case to satisfy public opinion that its decision is the best and most equitable one possible under the circumstances. It is true that the decision so rendered will not be binding in law. This is not a plan for compulsory arbitration. It is a voluntary advisory tribunal, but its judgments, if accepted by public opinion as impartial and as based upon intelligent investigation, will be just as valid as those of a court of law, and as easily executed.

The plan proposed bears resemblance to the courts of conciliation and arbitration which prevail in the north of England. The history of those voluntary tribunals was compiled and published by the Department of Labor at Washington in its Bulletin of May, 1900, where the happy results may be studied. Of course such men as compose the standing committee appointed here cannot be expected to drop their own proper business and take up all cases of strikes or lockouts that arise, but they can organize a system of dealing with individual cases on the north-of-England plan, or devise one which they may think better suited to conditions in this country. Looking at the high character and authority of the names on the list, we shall be equally surprised and disappointed if the movement does not have very important and beneficent consequences.

EDUCATION AS A PUBLIC PERIL.

That Germany is over-educated was affirmed last week by the rector of the greatest German university, and he added that, in virtue of Mr. Carnegie's recent gift for a National University, America must guard against impractical ideals of education. "Mr. Carnegie's technical-school endowments showed that he was fully in harmony with the American spirit, but his latest proposal I am unable to commend"—so says the rector of the University of Berlin. Of course, such an opinion is more authoritative for Germany than for this country; and yet one may suspect that the great archæologist has merely yielded to a pessimism which is prevalent in higher academic circles throughout the world. Many a great specialist, under the weight of responsibilities and academic honors, repeats with a special unction Faust's monologue:

> "I have alas! Philosophy,
> Medicine, Jurisprudence too,
> And to my cost Theology,

> With ardent labor, studied through,
> And here I stand, with all my lore,
> Poor fool, no wiser than before."

It was this mood which M. Brunetière rediscovered, and renamed "the bankruptcy of science."

But Dr. Kekulé probably meant, not that Germany is infected with this Faust spirit, but that the social order has suffered material harm through the lack of correspondence between the educational system and the vital needs of the land. Whether he is right or wrong in this matter could be decided only by one who is thoroughly familiar with the recent course of industry and commerce in Germany. If the gymnasium, the real-schule, and the university have withdrawn from labor and industrial activity a proportion of intelligence and of energy which, under the deadening influence of higher education, has become atrophied, then education has indeed become a peril to the state, and the most highly organized school and university system in the world is missing its end. But, before accepting so depressing a conclusion, one would like to be assured that Dr. Kekulé is not merely suffering from a graceful pessimism which at a certain age affects nearly all archæologists and art critics.

It is curious to note in this connection that the bitterest complaint of the danger of over-education has come, not from Germany or France, each with its splendid system of free education, but from England, which has practically no educational system at all. When the question of doing something for secondary education was up in Parliament last summer, Mr. Harold E. Gorst, private secretary to his father, Sir John Gorst, Vice-President of the Committee of the Council of Education, wrote a little treatise, entitled "The Curse of Education." This put his own father in the position of administering a national curse, and was, every one felt, in a way an impropriety; but Sir John Gorst's friends and enemies alike recognized that, even if education were a curse, Sir John meant to make the curse as light as possible for England. Curtis observed in 'Prue and I' that it is the much travelled who most insist upon the worthlessness of travel in comparison with the pleasures of the imagination, and so it appears that it is the highly educated who are heard in dispraise of education.

Of course there is a certain justice in views of this kind. It is possible for a formal education to fall far short of the making of a citizen. One can hardly doubt that the reiterated complaints that the French Lycée depresses and even corrupts its pupils, contain a dose of truth. What should be said is this, that in America, at least, we are far from experiencing the perils of education. We are as yet in no danger of producing an overtrained class which despises labor and industry. Our colleges, year by year, give back to active business an increasing proportion of their graduates. If danger there be in our present system, the danger is that of under-education, of young men slipping through their college course with only a minimum of intellectual culture, and being returned to active life with no finer set of ideals and resources than those who have gone directly from the schools to business. If the college will honestly do its duty by these young men and send them out with disciplined minds, we need have no fear that college education is being overdone.

There is even less prospect that we shall be over-supplied with universities, or that we shall turn too many young men from active affairs to the disinterested search for truth. It is probably true that there are too many institutions which, with insufficient force and equipment, try to do university work. The remedy for this is the upbuilding of great university foundations of so obvious a superiority that the over-ambitious institutions will be forced back to their proper collegiate basis. It is reported that Mr. Carnegie's foundation at Washington will not compete with the present universities, but will rather be a foundation for free research. However that may be, one can see in the prospect of a university at Washington nothing but good, provided that the university is guided by the highest ideals, and is content to go ahead no faster than it can go well. The problem of the "peril of education" may be a practical one in Germany; here it has scarcely even the pale dignity of an academic rating.

RICHARDSON REDIVIVUS.

The publication of Richardson's novels in twenty small volumes—by Chapman & Hall in London, in New York by Macmillan—may indicate a coming revival of that popular favor which the "father of the English novel" enjoyed during his life, and which remained constant for more than half a century. At all events, it shows an interest somewhere, and provides an opportunity for novel-readers to make his acquaintance at first-hand, and determine for themselves whether he has anything to say to the twentieth century, or whether the judgment of the nineteenth shall be confirmed by a relegation of 'Pamela,' 'Clarissa Harlowe,' and 'Sir Charles Grandison' to the respectable catalogue of books that no gentleman's library should be without. The times are at least not unpropitious for a rescue of these mighty letter-writers from the dust of the top shelves. Curiosity about literary forms is abroad, and leisure increases. Richardson demands, first of all, leisure, for to gallop through his works is to miss all his quality. His distinguished contemporaries (English, French, and other) talked a great deal about him, in lofty strains of discriminating praise. Johnson, of course, talked more and more memorably than anybody else, and perfectly hit the nail on the head when he said: "You must read him for the sentiment, and consider the story only as giving occasion to the sentiment." This "reading for the sentiment" can never be done in haste.

But Richardson's subjects were perhaps more to blame for his long neglect than was his prolixity. The subject may be briefly stated as seduction—seduction possible, probable, imminent; this, at least, in his best books, 'Pamela' and 'Clarissa.' The sentiments which he most ardently and minutely reveals are those of maiden breasts agitated about the preservation of their virtue, and this even before any "naughty assailant of innocence" is clearly in view. Early in the nineteenth century, as everybody knows, this subject disappeared from polite letters. Two maiden ladies, Maria Edgeworth and Jane Austen, very properly pushed it aside, and Sir Walter Scott laid it under taboo. The great novelists of the mid-century touched it shyly, apologetically; and not till the last decade was it restored to undeserved prominence—restored, strangely enough, by ladies (some of them, we believe, spinsters). So, whether for good or ill, the taboo has been lifted, and Richardson's subjects are no longer on the list of things not to be mentioned.

It is, indeed, not the subject, but the famous "rendering of the human heart," that may stand as an obstruction between Richardson and the moderns. By the "human heart," in his case, was and is always understood the female organ. His principal men, "Mr. B." and "Lovelace," are heartless rascals; they go about to "ruin" women as men go about daily labor—methodically, diligently, but without a thrill. Caricatures of real men of any time, they survived long in fiction, and still survive in the novels of Mr. Hall Caine and Miss Corelli, whose aristocratic males constantly pursue plebeian females, who as constantly evade. But it was believed that of the heart of woman Richardson had fathomed every secret, revealing even to itself unclassified shades of emotion and sentiment. On reading 'Clarissa,' the modern mind may share this contemporary faith, but must qualify it by recognizing that, during a century and a half, the heart of woman has expanded and changed even as her external life has expanded and changed. To those who cannot involuntarily slip the shackles of modern knowledge and feeling, Richardson's heart studies must appear limited, tedious, even ridiculous, and it is because such unconscious abandonment is not a common accomplishment that critics may for ever be able to count on him as one of their exclusive joys. On a famous occasion, when Clarissa went to the woodhouse to look for a letter from Miss Howe, she reports to that resourceful ally that she heard a "rustling behind a stack of wood." Presently she saw a man, who turned out to be Lovelace. "I could not scream out," she writes, "(yet attempted to scream the moment I saw a man; and again when I saw who it was); for I had no voice; and had I not caught hold of a prop which supported the old roof, I should have sunk." Pamela writes to her parents how, when she was undressing in the seeming security of Mrs. Jervis's presence, she heard a noise in the closet: "I said, Heaven protect us, but before I say

my prayers, I must look into this closet. And so was going to it slipshod, when, O, dreadful! out rushed my master, in a rich silk and silver morning-gown." Pamela screamed, subsequently "fell into a fit," and, though she was a young and vigorous servant-girl, continued screaming and falling into fits for several days. Roughly speaking, these apparently inevitable consequences of the "sight of a man" (consequences not always dependent on suspicion of his evil intentions) serve to summarize Richardson's knowledge of what women were, and his notion of what they should be.

The quotations need no comment as illustrations of what we have said about the doubtfulness of resuscitation of Richardson's popularity. His place in literature has long been established, and his renown needs no bush. His personality is interesting, not for itself, but because it is so explanatory of his work. From his youth upward, to use his own phrase, he "kept his eye on the ladies"—a most chaste, if not a too discreet eye. From boyhood till old age he was surrounded by women prostrate in adoration. Mr. Gilbert's fictitious Bunthorne is a poor idol indeed beside that elderly, portly, rather pompous bookseller exacting worship from the humblest maids and the greatest ladies of England and of France. Lady Mary Wortley Montagu tried in her waspish way to sting him, but failed, and at last, in a burst of candor, admitted: "I eagerly read him, nay, sob over his works in a scandalous manner."

This new edition is a reproduction both of original texts and engravings, and includes the quaint explanatory title-pages, the author's criticisms of his characters, and his replies to criticisms and suggestions from his public. All that the general reader cares to know about the novelist's life, his high moral intentions, and the influence of his work on some great writers of France and of Germany, may be found in the pleasantly written introduction.

HAUPTMANN'S TRAGI-COMEDY.

BERLIN, December 14, 1901.

The dramatic and literary event of the season thus far has been the representation of Gerhart Hauptmann's "Der Rote Hahn," a tragi-comedy in four acts, at the Deutsches Theater, and the appearance of the play in book form. The demand for tickets for the first representation was enormous, and the curiosity of the public is not yet satisfied, as the continued crowding of the house shows. This general interest in a new play by Hauptmann is significant evidence of the honorable place which he has won for himself in Germany.

In view of the author's previous achievements, the play may be considered neither a failure nor a success. One reason for this lies near at hand. "Der Rote Hahn" is a sort of sequel of Hauptmann's successful comedy "Der Biberpelz," and shares the fate of most sequels in being inferior to the first work. The chief figure in both plays is Mrs. Wolff, now become, it is true, the wife of shoemaker Fielitz. The years of her widowhood and of her second marriage have, however, made no change in her character. From petty thieving in the first play she has progressed to the crime of arson in the second, but otherwise Hauptmann has succeeded in lending her no new interest. Her intellectual superiority to those about her, and the ease with which she makes them all puppets in her hands, are as evident in one play as the other. Except in the last part of "Der Rote Hahn," she acts in both plays from a kind of inner necessity which lifts her above trifling distinctions of *meum* and *tuum* and all considerations of right and wrong. If "Der Rote Hahn" was not to be a sort of copy of "Der Biberpelz," it was obvious that she must undergo some transformation; but Hauptmann's efforts in this direction have proved only partially successful. For this reason the play is necessarily disappointing.

The first act is a clever bit of exposition. The scene is the workshop of cobbler Fielitz, in some village near Berlin. The worthy pair are seated in the shop at the rising of the curtain. Mrs. Fielitz has already determined to burn the house for the sake of the insurance and to erect a modern structure on its site. Only the details of the plan need perfecting. A few practical suggestions from the husband, who is both fascinated and frightened by the scheme, make clear what is to come. The conversation between husband and wife suffers several interruptions. Wehrhahn, the stupid, conceited, and autocratic administrative head of the village, comes to try on a new pair of boots. Rauchhaupt and his idiotic son Gustav bring the iron cross for the grave of the lamented Wolff. Langheinrich, the village smith, meets them by appointment. The daughter Leontine joins the group to read the epitaph. Thus all the chief persons of the play appear in the shop in the course of the act, and give the spectator a clear impression of their individuality. All is life, movement, vigor. Though Fielitz declares to the end that he will have no part in his wife's plan, it is evident that the cleverly suggested temptations of a fine new shop and the long-desired "regulator" will yet prove too much for his weak virtue.

The second act is rather tiresome. Dr. Boxer (a Jewish physician of free-thinking proclivities, for whose presence in the play there seems no pressing necessity), the smith's helper, and later Langheinrich himself hold a long conversation under the shed of the smithy. From it we learn, to be sure, that the cobbler and his wife have gone to Berlin to buy the clock, and that the daughter has also left the house for the day; but the little that the first two-thirds of the act contains in the way of necessary information or helpful characterization is to be got only with difficulty from the desultory talk. Something happens, at least, in the last part of the act. The idiot boy, Gustav, who has a fondness for matches and fires, comes running in and imitates the tooting of the fireman's horn. When the others try to hold him back long enough to learn where the fire is, he rushes away, dropping a box of matches in his flight. We soon learn that fire has broken out in the Fielitz house, and the village firemen, of whom Langheinrich is the chief, hurry away to put out the flames.

On the evening of the first representation the applause of the audience at the end of the third act was rewarded by the appearance of the author on the stage. The applause was no meaningless compliment, nor was it unjustly bestowed. The act is full of dramatic movement and human interest. The scene is the office of Wehrhahn, some five hours after the outbreak of the fire. Mrs. Fielitz's plan has proved a brilliant success. The house has burned to the ground, and the suspicions of Wehrhahn have already fastened upon Gustav. He bullies the witnesses, and confirms himself every moment more in his own opinion, so that Mrs. Fielitz, on her entrance into the office after her return from Berlin, has her work already done for her. However much others in the room, such as Langheinrich, who has found a bit of fuse in the house, and Dr. Boxer, may suspect her, they venture on no comments to Wehrhahn. The boy is brought in by the police and his father sent for. With the coming of Rauchhaupt the scene approaches its climax. The idiot has been a burden heretofore, but now that he is about to be put in custody, the father's love and family pride awaken. He storms, threatens, implores, but all in vain. Gustav is led away, and the scene closes with Rauchhaupt's threat that he will yet fasten the guilt upon Mrs. Fielitz.

Every spectator waited for the rise of the curtain at the beginning of the fourth act, eager to see Hauptmann's solution of the problem which he had himself proposed. Whatever may have been his purpose in calling the play a tragi-comedy, it was at least clear that the name cut off all possibility of such an outcome as that of "Der Biberpelz," where Mrs. Wolff's cunning, fortified by Wehrhahn's impenetrable stupidity, was triumphant to the end. But this time even Wehrhahn is not wholly free from suspicion, while Langheinrich, Boxer, and others more than suspect, and Rauchhaupt is hot upon the trail. Hauptmann's solution is unsatisfactory, however, and the strength of the third act made the weak conclusion of the fourth doubly disappointing.

The scene is now an upper room in Langheinrich's house, where the Fielitz family is quartered temporarily. Opposite is the new house, very near completion. Mrs. Fielitz is an invalid, confined to her chair. The belief in her guilt is general in the village. Nevertheless, she has emerged in triumph from three separate investigations into the cause of the fire. Her intellectual superiority over the others is as manifest as ever, but the happy philosophy of earlier days and crimes is gone. She dreams of her own funeral and is inclined to pessimistic thoughts. Just what ails her is not so clear. Anxious she doubtless is, for Rauchhaupt has given her no rest, and comes again to-day to tell her that the net of suspicion is drawing closer about her and that punishment is near. It is difficult to believe that her conscience troubles her, for we see her still working, hand in hand with her precious son-in-law, to deceive her husband and to induce Rauchhaupt to sell his valuable piece of ground for a trifle. Such a tough old sinner cannot die from the pangs of a guilty conscience. Yet she does die quite unexpectedly a moment after the red cock (symbolic of its fiery origin) has been raised on the roof of the new house. It is difficult to ward off the suspicion that her death is not caused by apoplexy or a guilty conscience so much as by the *last act*, that dreadful disease of whose tremendous fatality Lessing speaks in his 'Dramaturgy.' Whatever may be its cause,

her death is both unexpected and unsatisfactory, and gives the play a weak conclusion.

Of minor excellencies of "Der Rote Hahn" it is unnecessary to speak. They are numerous and finely wrought out. The humor is natural and effective, the drawing of the characters is careful and true. Unfortunately, all this cannot outweigh the weakness of the last act.

CHARLES HARRIS.

Correspondence.

THE SQUIERS COLLECTION AND BISHOP FAVIER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your number of the 12th of September last, there is a note concerning the collection from China which is about to find its way into a museum of your metropolis. In the note there is reference to the part of Bishop Favier in the history of the collection, and the conduct of that well-known and estimable missionary may perhaps be somewhat misrepresented, owing to the summary way in which the affair is recounted. Would you do him the justice of publishing a brief account of it from his own pen, which, moreover, may have further interest for your readers than that of representing the writer's conduct in its true light? He writes under date of November 1, 1901:

"Yan-li-chan [French spelling; the letter is in French] had a rather fine house near my residence; condemned to death, and executed by Prince Tuan, his house was pillaged by the Boxers, who burnt it and ran away, on the 16th of August. Some Christians saved from the flames four cases containing some beautiful pieces of porcelain. I put them in my residence, where I had already a beautiful collection, got together during thirty years, as everybody knew. This collection, in which was to be seen, among other pieces, a superb vase given me by the Empress, had to be sacrificed to send a little money to the 15,000 or 20,000 Christians in the province, who were in the same state [of indigence] as those in the city. It was said that no one was left of Yan-li-chan's family, but I noted apart all that came from what belonged to him, to deduct it from the indemnity, or to repay the amount to his heirs if any should turn up. Mr. Squiers chose what pleased him, from my collection or from among the objects of Yan-li-chan. He paid the price exactly, giving me a cheque for £1,000 sterling, which I distributed immediately among the unfortunate Christians of the province. This is the fact.

"Upon my return to Peking, towards the end of March, 1901, I learned that a son of Yan-li-chan was still living. I had him looked up, and invited him to come to see me. He came a few days later, thanked me heartily for having protected some other houses which belonged to him, and for having repaired the breach in the wall surrounding the large house that was burned, in order that no one might appropriate the property. I asked him if there had been a treasure hidden in his father's house. He answered that his father never kept money at home, and, indeed, I do not think any was found. I told him that I desired to return him the price of the objects saved by us from the fire and sold, and, in spite of his opposition, I obliged him to accept the exact value of the objects, giving him a cheque upon the Hong Kong Bank, and so paying him in full, as I had done to other individuals or shopkeepers."

The last clause refers to the individuals whose property the Bishop had been obliged to make free with, for the support of those who depended upon him, during the panic which followed the taking of Peking.

The Bishop goes on to say that he is on the best of terms with his pagan neighbors, and that since the siege they have baptized 1,400 adults, and received the names of 4,000 more, asking to become Christians. He then continues:

"I regret that the accusations against me should come from America, for I love and admire that country of true liberty for all. The United States ministers, generals, and admirals have been on the best relations with me; some of them I have counted as real friends. I am also on good terms with American Protestant ministers. I am, therefore, persuaded that these accusations proceed only from the want of exact information. At all events, then, I shall retain my esteem for my accusers, for they have been deceived, not deceivers."

WILLIAM L. HORNSBY.

MACAO, CHINA, November 13, 1901.

Notes.

The Century Company will print for the New England Society of this city the addresses, sermons, and poems delivered before it from 1820 to 1885, inclusive, in two volumes.

We must make a summary clearance of miniature editions on our table like those of Georges Newnes (London) and Scribners (New York), viz., Milton's Poems, a longish little book in limp covers, more elegant in binding and the adornments of the text than in the mere printing, which is, however, legible, if compact; De la Motte Fouqué's 'Undine, and Aslauga's Knight'; and Tennyson's 'In Memoriam'—this last illustrated with decorative feeling by Alfred Garth Jones. From Dent-Macmillan we have, among the "Temple Classics," Charles Reade's 'Peg Woffington,' with Peg's portrait; 'Stories from Le Morte Darthur and the Mabinogion,' by Beatrice Clay, with not remarkable illustrations by C. E. Hughes; and, best of all, an anonymous prose terzina-for-terzina translation of Dante's 'Purgatory,' with arguments, and the Italian text confronting the English. In Mr. A. R. Waller's "Cloister Library" (Dent-Macmillan), somewhat larger than the foregoing, we have Sir Arthur Helps's 'Thoughts in the Cloister and the Crowd, and Companions of My Solitude,' annotated and indexed—a charming volume. John Lane makes beginning of an Anthony Trollope revival with 'Doctor Thorne' and 'Barchester Towers' in plump and quaint form, each introduced by Algar Thorold, and each running up into seven or eight hundred pages. Finally, Miss Wormeley's translations of Balzac's "Comédie Humaine" are brought out in a pocket edition by Little, Brown & Co., Boston—four volumes, at the present writing, rather faint of print, but otherwise taking.

The aftermath of children's books is still considerable—if we may apply that term to publications too late in reaching us to receive mention before the holidays. Extremely attractive is 'Queen Mab's Fairy Realm' (London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners), with its colored frontispiece and title-page, pen-and-ink illustrations (of good quality) by several hands, and excellent letterpress. "An original collection of tales from the literatures of England, Germany, France, and Spain," it is styled on the publishers' wrapper, but this does not imply that old favorites like Hauff's "Story of the Caliph Stork" and "Story of Little Muck" may not be found here. The rest are less familiar. The translations are somewhat lacking in simplicity and fluidity, but they will deprave no child's English. A very comely book, also, is Ellen Rolfe Veblen's 'The Goosenbury Pilgrims: A Child's Drama' (University of Chicago Press). It is a phantasy of Mother Goose's characters going abroad to see the world, but, while it is sprightly and cleverly written, we have failed to find it amusing. Children may differ with us, however. Frances S. Brewster's 'When Mother Was a Little Girl' (Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.) is a true story, mostly of life in western Massachusetts, but also telling of a trip out West, of a visit to Niagara Falls, and of civil-war times. The narrative is wholly unpretentious, and is likely to interest. It is well printed, and has several photographic scenic illustrations. By way of appendix are inserted specimens of Cousin Lucy's stories to the little girl—somewhat poetic renderings of classical mythology, with inventions in ornithology and entomology.

Real natural history is served up in Edward B. Clark's 'Birds of Lakeside and Prairie' (Chicago and New York: A. W. Mumford), with sixteen full-page illustrations in color. Mr. Clark has much to tell in a plain and familiar way of his observations of birds in Chicago, among hills and prairies, often with the camera. He is a wholesome companion for any boy or girl. The same author and publisher send us 'Bird Jingles,' a thin quarto with larger and more effective colored plates (likewise from stuffed specimens), and with rhyming characterizations correct in metre and of a pleasant humor. A part of the illustrations reappear in Mary Catherine Judd's 'A-B-C Book of Birds' (A. W. Mumford). Each plate is attended by an account of the bird, even to its scientific name, and by what the author calls "nonsense rhymes for little ones"; but they are really very sensible, and much above the average of verse for children—witness the witty line (of the Ibis): "That bill, it is so very long Your shortest note must be a song." The curious may compare Mr. Clark's lines on the whippoorwill with Mrs. Judd's. We heartily commend her book for holiday time and all times.

To the foregoing, Mr. Mumford adds a Bird Calendar for 1902, in six gray sheets, each showing a colored bird.

The interesting essays styled 'Animals of the Past,' by Frederic A. Lucas (McClure, Phillips & Co.), are somewhat in the style of newspaper articles for general readers. They are disconnected talks upon extinct birds, reptiles, and mammals, chiefly the gigantic, on what is known of them and how it was learned. The matter is mostly drawn from original descriptions or from the relics, and (the author knowing pretty well what has been discovered) is much more accurate than that of most writers who undertake the discussion of the fragmentary data relating to the fossil creatures from the bone beds, the caves, and the marshes. Comparatively few are discussed, consequently a good deal of the text relates to them but indirectly. For a definition of fossils the following is given: "Fossils are the remains, or even the indications, of

animals and plants that have, through natural agencies, been buried in the earth and preserved for long periods of time." This is instead of the etymological definition, "something that is or may be dug out of the earth," which has the advantage of making no restriction to animals and plants, making no mention of agencies, and placing no limits in time.

'Fowls of the Air' and 'Beasts of the Field' (Boston: Ginn & Co.) are attractive uniform volumes of sketches by William J. Long, which, in substance as well as illustrations, are somewhat suggestive of Mr. Seton-Thompson's work. The author has fished and hunted in Canada; and the side glimpses of his camp-life in the wilderness with the Indian guide Simmo, of trout-fishing, canoeing, and caribou-hunting, add not a little charm to his accounts of animals. His style is highly specific, with an enthusiasm in description that inclines to the superlative; and he sets the scenes of his little woodland dramas with good effect. He uses the names given to the animals by the Milicite Indians, and relates legends heard by him before the camp-fire. The book on mammals is superior to the one on birds. It shadows big game—caribou, bear, and moose—through their forest haunts, and makes intimate revelations of some of their habits and moods; and it enters into companionship with small animals like the squirrel, "Meeko, the Mischief-Maker," and the white-footed mouse, "Tookhees, the 'Fraid One," who repay camp bounties by their confidence. Other interesting sketches discuss the otter, the weasel, and the lynx. Mr. Long's experience with both birds and mammals seems to have been rich in uncommon incidents; and specialists, who hesitate to accept unreservedly the records of laymen, may regard some of them as questionable. The books are dedicated to the teachers of America who are striving to reveal "a vast realm of nature outside the realm of science, and a world of ideas above and beyond the world of facts."

Mr. J. D. M. Ford's 'Spanish Anthology' (Silver, Burdett & Co.) is an excellent little book, likely to prove serviceable in the class-room, and of interest to any one qualified to read it. The immense field of Spanish lyric poetry, with its surface eloquence and underlying mysticism, affords an exceptional opportunity to the poetical flower-gatherer. Mr. Ford has been equal to the opportunity. He has perused the "Biblioteca de Autores Españoles" and other scattered sources with great diligence, and has culled a selection of lyric poetry which, within the limits of space, adequately represents the development of Castilian song. The historical and metrical introduction is concise and skilfully managed. The notes are well done, with enough biographical and critical matter to assist the student in getting some notion of the perspective of Peninsular poetry in its relation to European literature in general. In view of the recent and sudden increase of interest in the Spanish language and literature, the book is especially timely, and on the same account the care with which it has been done is the more to be commended.

'How to Make Money in the Printing Business' has a pleasing sound. It reminds one of those alluring advertisements of boyhood days—"Buy a $3 press and make Big Money printing cards, bill-heads, etc., for your friends!" Many craftsmen, no doubt, will get this book in the despairing hope of finding out what they never have been able to learn by experience. A facetious one will probably lay it down and remark that the best way, after all, if not the only way, to make money in the printing business is to get a few good plates of high denominations, and run night and day until the Secret-Service people conclude you have made enough. The book contains many excellent observations of the axiomatic kind, and the careless printer is repeatedly warned, by anecdote and illustration, of the pitfalls between him and success. The paper, unfortunately, is of the heavy-weight order, due to an excess of mineral ingredients, and indifferent presswork gives the type the appearance of having made money for its owner for some years. The Lotus Press publishes this book.

Nothing betrays more forcibly the passing away of the sailing ship than that new literature which deals exclusively with adventures on Atlantic "liners" and steam "tramps." In 'The Derelict,' which gives the name to a series of nautical tales (Scribners), Mr. Cutcliffe Hyne tells exclusively of incidents relating to steam-driven vessels. Sea terms and the technical lingo of the sailing ship are ignored. In their place we have the vernacular of the "smoking-room" and the argot of Scotch engineers. In this case the dialect is softened so as to be comprehensible to a man of average intelligence. 'The Derelict' tells of what may befall, at sea, a steamer, its passengers and crew. The stories are pleasantly related, but they hardly attain to the level ascribed them by an English critic, who says that, "in his tales of the sea, in his pictures of life on reckless traders, in his types of dare-devil seamen, Mr. Hyne is only equalled by Rudyard Kipling."

The compilers of '365 Breakfast Dishes' (Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.) have wisely shared responsibility. Mrs. Lincoln, Mrs. Lemcke, *Table Talk*, the Boston Cooking School Magazine, and others have contributed to the polyglot production. To which one shall be ascribed the recipe for "Oysters à la poulette," on page 66? Direct accusation will probably meet with prompt denial, for of all the weird combinations of which this particular dish has been made the victim, the one in the present volume is the most inadequate. *Table Talk* of Philadelphia is boldly accused of being responsible for many of the recipes; but whether this is the outcome of malice, or homage to local pride, it is difficult to determine. The recipes contained in the volume must be looked upon as mere hints, capable of development at the hands of an experienced cook, but bewildering to the untrained young housewife, to whom such a compilation should be the more helpful.

Prof. S. P. Langley contributes to the *National Geographic Magazine* for December an entertaining diary, with illustrations, of a recent visit to Tahiti, with incidental description of a "fire-walk." The pit containing the stones was "about 9 feet by 20 feet, by 18 inches deep," and, at the time of the exhibition, "the upper stones were none of them red-hot on top; the lower ones, two layers deep, however, could be seen to glow between the others, but they were only near red-hot in the centre." A number of persons followed the priest in his walk, some of them whites, who stopped "long enough to lean over and lightly and quickly touch the hottest stones with their hands. Mr. Ducarron walked to the centre, and stood there shifting his feet (he had on thin shoes) from stone to stone for about ten seconds before finding it too hot to stay." Professor Langley secured one of the stones, which was found to be very porous, and "so non-conductible that a small fragment could be held in the fingers like a stick of sealing-wax while the other end was made red-hot in a blow-pipe. This non-conductibility is evidently the principal cause of the success of the fire-walk 'miracle.'" Some facts in regard to the incomplete survey of the boundary of Texas by J. H. Clark in 1859-'62 are given by M. Baker, who urges a resurvey "before the discovery of oil or mineral shall provoke a boundary dispute." In a note on the census it is shown that "the most literate element of the male population of the United States is the native white of foreign-born parents. Ninety-eight of every 100 men twenty-one years of age or over, who were born in this country of white foreign parents, can read and write!"

Some of the human problems connected with the geography of South America are discussed by Dr. F. P. Moreno in the *Geographical Journal* for December. The remains scattered throughout the continent he holds to indicate, not only that man has existed there from a very remote period, but also that, contrary to the general belief of anthropologists, the founders of the old civilizations of Peru and Bolivia are older than the ancestors of the Pueblos. "I remember that the science of palæontology has demonstrated that the pampean mammals migrated from south to Mexico and the United States, and it is not impossible that men may have taken the same northward route." Other articles are upon recent surveys of the proposed Sudan-Abyssinian frontier, and upon the mapping of Africa, in which the training of native topographers, to do in the unexplored parts of Africa a work similar to that performed by the native Indian surveyors for Central Asia, is urged. A short account of Lhasa is illustrated by some interesting pictures, one being the copy of a photograph, by a Nepalese, of the palace of the Grand Lama, a truly stupendous structure, with walls probably over 300 feet high.

Germany occupies the principal place in the Consular Reports for December, the new insurance law being printed in full. The most important provisions, as concerns this country, consist in the placing of all foreign insurance companies under control of a special bureau of the Imperial Government, and therefore "on a uniform and much broader basis than hitherto." It is stated that, in the three years before the Spanish war, the value of Hamburg exports to Cuba averaged about half a million dollars. In 1900 Hamburg shipped "goods to the value of over $2,000,000," and the North German Lloyd proposes to have a bi-monthly service from Bremen to Cuba, beginning next February. (All Germany's exports to Cuba for the fiscal year amount to $3,400,000.) Some facts are given in regard to "weather shooting" in France and Italy; and a largely increased output of gold in Madagascar is noted, which has caused a rush of gold-seekers to the mines.

At the forty-ninth annual meeting of the Wisconsin State Historical Society on De-

cember 12, the titles in its library were 226,646, about half of them of bound volumes. The last year's increase was 6,712 books and 5,628 pamphlets. A collection of works on a single specialty, the Mormon question (2,300 titles), has also been deposited in the library, and may remain in permanence. The Society has only the binding fund of $30,000 and the antiquarian fund of $5,000 invested, but it receives by direct appropriations $20,000 a year from the State. As the beginning of an art department it has just received $4,000, the avails of jewels presented by Mrs. Mary M. Adams, whose husband, Charles Kendall Adams, has been for the last seven years President of the University of Wisconsin. Obliged by ill-health to resign his office, Dr. Adams and his wife have united in giving to the museum of the Historical Society their pictures, marbles, bronzes, and other articles of *virtù*, the accumulations of a lifetime. The market value of this farewell gift has been estimated at $60,000.

Cornell joins the list of college calendars, but, though latest, we cannot pronounce it most tasteful or artistic. It is more distinctly than the others for home consumption. In size, Vassar outstrips all, and Hulda Parton's colored emblems of the four seasons compare favorably with Bryn Mawr's.

—The Massachusetts Historical Society, it is pretty well known, is the oldest society of its kind in America. Its membership is by its charter limited to one hundred citizens of Massachusetts, while its practice is to have not more than fifty corresponding and ten honorary members, neither class numbering residents of Massachusetts. Its honorary list is, moreover, strictly confined to historical writers, American or European, who have achieved an international reputation or brought out some work of rare and exceptional value. To place a name on its honorary roll is, therefore, on the part of this society, much what the "crowning" of an historical production is on the part of the French Academy. Until its late meeting the honorary roll of the Massachusetts society had latterly contained but seven names. David Masson, Theodor Mommsen, W. E. H. Lecky, Carl Schurz, S. R. Gardiner, James Bryce, and Sir George Otto Trevelyan. After careful consideration, extending over several months, it was at the last meeting of the Society, on the 12th of December, unanimously voted to place on the honorary roll the name of Pasquale Villari of Florence. The long and honorable record of Dr. Villari, and the international reputation of his Life of Savonarola, afford ample grounds for the distinguished compliment thus conferred.

—Unusual interest attaches to a handsome volume just issued from the press of the Free Academy at Norwich, Conn., and the handiwork of the pupils of that institution and the Art School in composition, illustration, presswork, and binding. It is a reprint for the third time of the Journal of Madam Sarah (Kemble) Knight, who rode on business from Boston to New York in 1704, returning in December, substantially over the route now known in railroad parlance as the Shore Line. She was a widow, a woman of affairs, well bred and connected, intelligent and humorous, courageous, given to putting down her experiences in verse above the average of her time; and this record of her adventures and of settlements and manners along her way was highly rated for its historical value as soon as discovered. It makes also very good reading, and brings the writer nearer to us as flesh and blood than is often the case with her contemporaries of two centuries ago. Her observations on slavery in Connecticut are curious. She found the people "too Indulgent (especially y^e^ farmers) to their slaves, sufering too great familiarity from them, permitting y^m^ to sit at Table and eat with them, (as they say to save time),"—this may have been President Roosevelt's pretext for entertaining Booker Washington—"and into the dish goes the black hoof as freely as the white hand." She tells of a farmer who fell out with his slave over a broken promise. "But at length they put the matter to Arbitration and Bound themselves to stand to the award of such as they named—w^ch^ done, the Arbitrators having heard the allegations of both parties, Order the master to pay 40^s^ to black face, and acknowledge his fault. And so the matter ended: the poor master very honestly standing to the award." To the single erratum acknowledged by the makers of this highly laudable product of the printer's craft, we presume two more should be added: On page 27, Madam "Billings" should obviously be "Belcher," and on page 30, in the tenth line, "now" should be "more." The edition is limited to 210 copies. It may be had of Dodd, Mead & Co., or Messrs. Scribner.

—The qualified approval with which we noticed Dr. E. E. Sparks's 'Expansion of the American People' must be further modified in the case of Mr. James K. Hosmer's 'Short History of the Mississippi Valley' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Mr. Hosmer has had, apparently, the laudable purpose of condensing into one small volume the history of the region whose acquisition the approaching centenary of the Louisiana purchase is shortly to celebrate. His range is certainly wide. He begins with prehistoric times, and ends with some remarks about the evils of Trusts and the possible benefits of Governmental control of railroads. In between, he chats about the early explorations, the Ordinance of 1787, the settlement of Kentucky and Tennessee, the Louisiana cession, Burr's conspiracy, and the Civil War. The style, though over-picturesque, is entertaining and readable, but there is a dearth of substance. Not only does the volume contain nothing new, but the substantial information presented hardly exceeds the veriest commonplaces of the school-books. Large areas of the subject are either passed by altogether, or merely glanced at, while the treatment of the remainder suffers everywhere from excessive generalization. The history of the Mississippi valley is certainly easier to handle connectedly than is the history of the occupation of the Atlantic seaboard, which thus far has pretty effectually resisted every attempt to set it forth with unity, and it is, moreover, a subject which we shall probably hear a good deal more about in the next few years; but Mr. Hosmer's work, though likely, we fancy, to be considerably read, need not deter any one else from entering upon a similar undertaking.

—In their 'Select Documents of English Constitutional History' (Macmillan) Prof. G. B. Adams of Yale and Prof. H. Morse Stephens of Cornell furnish a useful handbook for teachers and students. Unlike the previous compilations of Stubbs, Prothero, and Gardiner, this volume is comprehensive, and it also differs from the same predecessors by dispensing altogether with introduction and prefaces. Apart from four pages of general preface, it contains documents only; and as the selections chosen number 276, the average space allotted to each is not considerable. In many cases compression has been secured by a process of abridgment (for example, the Reform Act of 1832 is cut down to the very moderate compass of thirteen octavo pages), while sometimes (witness the Education Act of 1870) the editors are content to give so meagre a version of the measure that only its essential features are indicated. We are describing the expedient whereby it becomes possible to present so many state papers, or their essence, within such narrow limits of space, and we do not in the least object to what might be called by a hostile critic "mutilation." The book is simply designed to help those who are beginning the study of English constitutional history by putting before them the most important texts. There can be no objection to translating passages from Latin or French for the help of such readers, or to giving them no more than the salient features of a modern Act of Parliament. The editors carefully disclaim all rivalry with Stubbs, Prothero, and Gardiner, to whose introductions they accord the praise that is their due and from whose works they have drawn considerable material. "It is to be hoped," says the preface, "that one of the results of using this compilation with undergraduate classes will be to attract attention to the interest and importance of the study of documents, so that more advanced students will turn to the more full and elaborate editions of these distinguished scholars." The date 1485 marks the division of labor, Professor Adams taking in charge the documents of the mediæval period, and Professor Stephens assuming a similar responsibility for the centuries which lie on this side of Henry VII. Both editors have exercised the power of choice with great judgment, and their book will contribute much to the sound teaching of constitutional history.

—'The Monastery of San Marco,' by Miss G. S. Godkin (Dutton), is a small but beautifully printed volume which contains six essays upon the most celebrated Dominicans of Florence and the cloister where their lives were led. Savonarola, naturally, is the outstanding figure, around whom are clustered St. Antonino, Fra Angelico, and Fra Bartolommeo. The establishment of the monastery and the sequel to Savonarola's martyrdom are the subjects of separate chapters, but the writer's interests may be said to be almost wholly biographical. To her Savonarola appears in his most exalted mien as the prophet of holiness amid a perverse people. "Where he failed, the fault was theirs; inasmuch as he succeeded, the glory was his." Nor can she admit that he was led by selfishness or ambition to use his power wrongly. "The more we read of the evidence of those who knew the great Frate intimately, and of his own writings and private correspondence, the more we feel disposed to acquit him of any

preconceived designs of meddling in politics." Of the other friars who are noticed, St. Antonino is the least familiar, and he is given, probably on that account, more prominence than either Fra Angelico or Fra Bartolommeo. The concluding essay contains a sketch of the monastery as it is to-day, a "national monument" and a museum. This choice and gracefully written book will perhaps be most useful to those who know not Florence, though readers who are already familiar with the city and its history can hardly fail to be attracted by Miss Godkin's sympathetic description of San Marco as it was in the days of its fame and influence.

—Nearly twelve years ago, on its first publication, we welcomed 'Italian Characters in the Epoch of Unification,' by Countess Evelyn Martinengo Cesaresco; we are glad now to call attention to a new edition, revised and enlarged, of this admirable work (London: Unwin; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons). The revisions are slight, but the new chapter, on Duke Sigismondo Castromediano, adds a figure of strange interest and of real importance to this collection of portraits. Countess Cesaresco introduces heroes whom the world outside of Italy knows too little about; indeed, all of them, except Manin and Ricasoli, who enjoyed international celebrity during their lifetime, cannot be studied in English at all except through her book. The Italian struggle for independence was particularly rich in remarkable individuals. It formed a great contrast in this respect to the German Liberal movement—the very memory of whose leaders has been cast into oblivion by Bismarck, the personification of anti-Liberalism—and to the French Revolutionists of 1848, whose personality has grown dim. In Italy, besides the great leaders—Cavour, Garibaldi, Victor Emanuel, Mazzini—there sprang up a group of patriots, differing widely among themselves in station, in idiosyncrasy, in action, and in fortune, but alike in essential nobility of character and in charm. Countess Cesaresco describes, in addition to the three already mentioned, Settembrini, the Neapolitan victim of Bomba's rigor; Martinengo, the Brescian aristocrat; the Poerio brothers; Constance d'Azeglio, the Piedmontese *grande dame*, whose 'Souvenirs' place her among the shrewdest and wittiest women of her time; Mameli, the boy-poet, killed at Rome; Ugo Bassi, the priest-patriot, shot by the Austrians; Nino Bixio, an Italian naval version of Col. Roosevelt of the Rough Riders; and the Cairoli brothers, the last of whom became Prime Minister of King Humbert. Countess Cesaresco writes of these men with enthusiasm; she draws her portraits with unusual skill; and she is able, thanks to her personal relations, to supply many interesting details not to be found elsewhere in print. If the originals of these 'Characters' had been Greeks and Romans, every schoolboy, as the late Professor Child aptly remarked, would know their names and glory in their deeds.

RIDGEWAY'S EARLY AGE OF GREECE.

The Early Age of Greece. By William Ridgeway, M.A., Disney Professor of Archæology in the University of Cambridge. In two volumes. Vol. I. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1901.

The study of classical archæology has done much in recent years towards filling the chasm between the historical and the heroic periods of ancient Greece. The boundaries of the historical period have been pushed further back, and much of the mist of the mythical age has been dispelled. A quarter of a century ago, many scholars, under Max Müller's influence, believed the story of the Trojan War to be only a form of the Dawn myth, in which the powers of the East and the West were contending for the possession of the beautiful Dawn. In 1879 a serious refutation was needed of the view that the treasures of gold and art found at Mycenæ were due to Celtic invaders of Greece in the third century of our era; and some of the decorations of the Mycenæan tombs were attributed by reputable archæologists to Byzantine workmen, although in the preceding year Sir Charles Newton had called attention to remains of the same culture on other early sites. The extensive collection of Mycenæan pottery found at Ialysus in Rhodes, and presented by Ruskin to the British Museum, until then had been allowed to lie in obscurity in the basement. But the archæologists of to-day have a more precise knowledge of the art and culture of the Mycenæan age than their predecessors had thirty years ago of the art and culture of the sixth century B. C., although we are still ignorant of the names of the Mycenæan leaders. That these had a script, we now know, and scholars sooner or later will decipher it. The Homeric story, instead of being drawn from the imagination with no basis but a strife for the Dawn, is found to be in accordance with very real facts. Troy and Mycenæ, the city of old Priam and the fortress of the "king of men," Agamemnon, existed at the same time, with similar culture as represented in the poems, and deserve the epithets which the Homeric poet applied to them.

A generation ago, archæologists contended that the poet must have drawn from his imagination his accounts of works of art, for he could have seen nothing so splendid; while now they say that the objects described by the poet are so far inferior to those which have been found on Mycenæan sites that he must have lived in an age of decadence. Scholars no longer find half their old amusement in Schliemann's belief that Agamemnon was a real person, and led the army against Troy. They are aware that some of the thousands of inscribed tablets which have been found in Crete within the last two years may contain definite contemporary evidence with regard to the Trojan war, though the fall of Cretan Cnossus seems to have preceded that of Troy. We may yet find a letter from Agamemnon to Idomeneus of Crete, or a report from the army in the field. No one can safely predict what we may not learn about early Greece from the Cretan explorations, and most cautious scholars are reserving the statement of their theories for a more complete knowledge of facts. The exploration of Crete has only begun, and we still await from Dörpfeld the final publication of the results of the excavations on the site of ancient Troy.

Much, indeed, is already known definitely with regard to the early age of Greece, and future discoveries are not likely to affect materially the main conclusions of the book before us. This book does not aim, like the excellent 'Mycenæan Age,' by Tsountas and Manatt, to which we called attention four years ago, to give either a complete picture of the early age of Greece for the benefit of the ordinary intelligent reader, or a systematic account of the results of recent excavations. It is rather a technical book, intended primarily for the author's peers—historians, archæologists, and philologists—though its style is never heavy, and it contains much matter of general interest. It is "an attempt to aid in the solution of some of the chief problems of early Greek history by the employment of the inductive method." The first volume treats of the monumental, traditional, and linguistic aspects of the subject, while "the second volume . . . will chiefly deal with institutions and religion." The first chapter, of eighty pages, treats of the remains and their distribution; the second, more than 200 pages, and nearly a third of the work, discusses the question, Who were the makers of the Mycenæan civilization? The third chapter is devoted to the Homeric age, and the following discuss the early home of the Achæans, the early iron age, the round shield; inhumation, cremation, and the soul; the brooch, iron, and the Homeric dialect. That these topics are not exactly coördinate is clear, and some points are brought up for discussion more than once. The treatment of monumental evidence is eminently satisfactory. The enumeration of the sites where Mycenæan objects have been found, and the statement of the principal discoveries, are clear, concise, and complete. The discussion of the old great trade routes from northern to southern Europe is excellent, and is accompanied by the interesting observation that amber beads are found in comparatively poorly furnished graves along these routes, and the remark that the invaders from the north, whether in small parties or in larger hordes, naturally followed the roads by which traders had gone. The chapters on the development of the brooch and on cremation are also instructive.

The author, however, never allows his main thesis to remain long hidden from view, and the whole work is composed to support this: The Mycenæans were Pelasgians; the Achæans who overcame and succeeded them were Celts, who came from Jutland by way of central Europe. Remains of vast fortresses, magnificent palaces, and great tombs, with objects of gold and terracotta vases of like technic, are found in Argolis, Laconia, Attica, Bœotia, Thessaly, Crete, Cyprus, and the other Greek islands, the Troad, and Italy, and all testify to the existence in the second half of the second millennium B. C. of a powerful race which developed its civilization from that of the stone age. This civilization reached its highest perfection in the Argolid, where still remain the ruins of Mycenæ, Tiryns, Midea, and the Argive Heræum. It seems to have been developed from within, though naturally under the influence of the other peoples with which it came in contact. In Attica and on the islands, says our author, it passed gradually into that of the classical period; in Cyprus it lasted longest, continuing down to the sixth century B. C.; while in Greece generally it came to an end between 1200 and 900 B. C. No coins or inscriptions in the ordinary Greek alphabet have been found with the objects which are called Mycenæan.

The author's Pelasgians, to whom he ascribes the Mycenæan civilization, include Athenians, Arcadians, Helots of Sparta, Cretans, the Penestæ of Thessaly, Thracians, Illyrians, Ionians of Asia Minor, and Trojans, while the Lycians and Carians, the Etruscan artists, and probably some of the dark-haired Libyans, are of the same stock. The suggestion is mentioned as not unlikely that the early home of the founders of the race was in Somaliland. The Achæans, on the other hand, are Celts, Gauls, or Germans (for these are not to be distinguished) from the north. The Cimmerians of southern Russia, as well as those of Homer, were of the same race. Probably, also, according to our author, the Aryans of the 'Rig Veda' journeyed from the Cimbric Chersonese—going from the valley of the Danube across southern Russia, up the Oxus, and so into northern India. Even the Philistines may have been Celts or Achæans, as were the Umbrians of Italy. Brennus and his Gauls were but a later wave pouring down from the north. In Greece "only a handful" of Achæans came down into Peloponnesus—not enough to impose upon the conquered population the language of the conquerors. The Achæans do not seem to have controlled Athens at all; that remained Pelasgian. No violent change followed the Achæan invasion. Atreus was chosen to succeed Eurystheus and took peaceable possession of Mycenæ, while his grandson Menelaus married Helen, the daughter of Tyndareus, King of Sparta, and succeeded him. This marriage of Menelaus, by the way, is compared with that of Capt. John Smith and Pocahontas, neglecting the facts that John Smith did not marry Pocahontas, and that Rolfe, who did, failed to secure thereby a kingdom and palace. The Achæan lords are supposed to have "merged into their subjects as the Normans in England were absorbed into their Saxon subjects." The old Pelasgian bards were retained by the new chieftains, and sang the praises of the Achæans in their own Pelasgian tongue. Our author holds the dactylic hexameter to be Pelasgian; the Achæan literature had not advanced beyond the ballad. Thus, also, under the Achæan rulers Mycenæan art sank to the so-called Dipylon stage.

Professor Ridgeway is a scholar of vast erudition and equal independence and originality of thought. He seems to give "chapter and verse" for all his statements; he recapitulates his arguments frequently, and enumerates the inferences *seriatim*, almost in the style of the late Boston Monday lectureship. But while he seems to be exact in his treatment of the monuments, he is very careless in his treatment of literary evidence. The present reviewer knows of no other work of like scholarship and importance which is so untrustworthy in this respect. So serious a charge must be substantiated, and reference may be made to three passages which, in the book before us, are reprinted exactly from a paper published in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies* for 1896. Two of these passages are important bases for the author's argument, yet his misinterpretations are what his countrymen would call "howlers." On page 110 we read: "That such [pedigrees] were part of the lore imparted by the elders to the younger, is shown by the words of Nestor, who tells how Tydeus [*sic*] had discoursed to him—πάντων Ἀργείων ἐρέων γενεήν τε τόκον τε." But in this passage ἐρέων does not mean *telling*, but *asking;* Peleus (not Tydeus) when Nestor came to Phthia to enlist Achilles for the Trojan war, had delighted in "asking him of the race and descent of all the Argives," *i.e.*, of course, of those who were going on the expedition. Peleus was glad to learn that his son would be associated with the sons of his old comrades Tydeus and Telamon, but gives to Nestor no genealogical lore.

Again, on page 172: "In Homer the Pelasgi had been but recently driven out from it [*i. e.*, Thessalian Larissa], for among the allies of the Trojans are 'the tribes of the Pelasgians, who used to dwell in Larissa and those who dwelt in Pelasgic Argos.'" Here, in addition to a false reference (for Iliad ii., 237, read ii., 840, 681), is a combination of errors. "Those who dwell in Pelasgian Argos" are not Trojan allies, but are Achilles's own forces, having no connection with the previous part of the quotation, which in the original follows 60 verses later; and the translation "used to dwell," from which the inference is drawn that they dwelt in Larissa no longer, is entirely unfair, for the imperfect is the tense which is used throughout the Catalogue of the Ships for the inhabitants of the several regions. Yet at least three times afterward is this argument referred to as proof.

On page 90: "The still older testimony of Hesiod makes the Pelasgians Arcadian in origin." But in the passage referred to, Hesiod says only, "Sons were born to Lycaon [an Arcadian hero], whom Pelasgus begat." Here one might suspect a slip of the pen, transposing Arcadians and Pelasgian; but four pages farther on we read: "Hesiod was Ephorus's source for the doctrine that their origin was from Arcadia"; and on page 113 this becomes the statement of "Hesiod . . . about the Pelasgian occupation of Peloponnesus." Half-a-dozen similar misinterpretations of Homer, Pindar, Strabo, and Diodorus Siculus might be adduced, none of them passages as to which scholars have or can have any doubt as to the true meaning.

The author's main thesis is so much opposed to all linguistic evidence yet at hand that it requires for its support a much firmer foundation than he has laid. To say that the Achæans were Celts, and then make this term include not only Celts, Teutons, and Cimmerians, but also the Aryans of India, and possibly the Philistines of Syria, is, except for the last, only a change of nomenclature from the ordinary term Indo-Europeans, and the change brings us little advantage; it names the great family, which no one doubted, but does not designate a special division. The novelty of the view consists in part in leaving the language of Homer and of Athens only slightly influenced by the invasion from the north, and making it really not an Indo-European language at all. One of Professor Ridgeway's worst abuses of literary evidence is with regard to the Carians (page 194); reference is made to Strabo and to Kretschmer as supporting the very opposite of their views. He says that "few readers, after hearing Strabo's evidence, will require further proof that Carian was closely related to Greek. It is plain that it stood to literary Greek much as Lowland Scotch or the Somerset dialect does to cultivated English." Yet Strabo speaks of the Carians as foreigners Hellenizing, and Kretschmer holds that the Carian language was not Indo-European at all.

The author's disposition toward the long genealogies which are found in Pausanias and Apollodorus may be learned from the following characteristic sentence: "The Heræum records must have existed for many generations before Hellanicus completed his work in the fifth century B. C.; and they would thus extend back far beyond the coming of either Dorian or Achæan, to the days of Proetus of Tiryns," *i. e.*, to 1300 B. C.

The work before us contains such a mass of erudition, and so many suggestive and stimulating observations and hypotheses, that the reviewer is far from advising scholars to disregard it. They should read and study it, by all means, but they should verify its references, and not accept a statement as proved simply because the author has set at its close his Q. E. D.

FOUR NOVELS.

A Modern Antæus. By the Author of 'An Englishwoman's Love-Letters.' Doubleday, Page & Co.

The World's Delight. By Mary J. H. Skrine. John Lane.

The Wooing of Sheila. By Grace Rhys. Henry Holt & Co.

Sons of the Sword. By Margaret L. Woods. McClure, Phillips & Co.

The new work of the writer whose first attempt so stirred the literary world, is a curious mixture of good and bad. Side by side with neat epigrams, we get whole passages that are either bombastic or obscure. Idyllic descriptions of nature are followed by scenes so realistic that we miss the pleasing veil of the French language. The hero, Tramp by nickname and by nature, is an attractive child, and grows up, we are repeatedly assured, into an attractive man; but in the process his qualities become fundamentally changed. For instance, we learn that in his childish days "an unadorned view of facts was the thing most difficult for his mind to attain." As a man he is almost painfully truthful. His twin-sister, though less minutely drawn, is a more lifelike character. The villain, who lets the hero bear the blame of crime committed by himself, is distinctly commonplace; so also is the girl who shares his guilt. We get one really interesting figure in Lady Petwyn, the hard-riding old châtelaine, with her biting tongue and her soft heart. The narrow-minded business man is well portrayed in the hero's father. Otherwise, all the characters serve chiefly to prove the Tramp's extraordinary powers of charm, and to the unconvinced reader their effusions seem rather maudlin. Indeed, the book would gain materially by the omission of padding in dialogue and description, no less than by a change in the painful and unsatisfactory ending.

'The World's Delight' is not written for children, after whom it is named, but about them. The twelve stories, though of unequal merit, have one and all a delicate charm, and display a genuine love and comprehension of their subject. It may be said that the writer's pathos is inferior to her humor, and that therefore she is more successful in painting the pleasures

of the rich child than the sorrows of the poor one. Yet throughout the volume, as a shrewd and sympathetic exponent of the universal "delight," she makes an appeal to every older heart.

'The Wooing of Sheila' is a sweet, wholesome story. It is a melodrama, but none the worse for that, and its pathos is often true and real. The motherless Irish girl in her lonely mountain cottage, guarded only by her lover and by a half-witted old tramp, perhaps too much recalls the impossible fairy princess; yet we love her just the same. Again, if the chivalry of the "wooing" both before and after marriage seems inconsistent with the hero's passionate and untrained character, still it is always a pleasure to read about Bayards. A feeling for nature in all its forms, whether the beauty of scenery or the loyalty of dogs, is one of the most pleasing features of the book.

Again and again one is constrained to quote Victor Hugo's epigram on Napoleon. "Toujours lui, lui partout," is as true to-day as when it was first written, and there has hardly been a moment for over a hundred years when some one has not been occupied with the Little Great Man. Mrs. Woods's 'Sons of the Sword' is well timed to receive the attention it deserves. As a scholar and the daughter and wife of scholars, Mrs. Woods has traced with a masterly pen that crisis in Napoleon's career which first brought him in contact with England's bravest men, as represented and led by Sir John Moore. The rapid French march across the Guadarrama, the English retreat which events proved to have been so wise—above all, the personal effect of Napoleon on all who came near him—these are described in a manner full of vivid historic interest. The reader will merely regret that this interest should be veiled in a thin disguise of fiction. As a piece of history the book is thrilling; as a piece of psychology or imagination it leaves us cold. The plot, consisting mainly of the love of an English officer for a young Irish "détenue," is a tissue of coincidences too strange even for the most credulous. Of character-drawing or situations to excite our sympathies, there is such a lack that we wonder if the same hand can really have written the 'Village Tragedy.' This cannot be because the present is an historical novel, for Mrs. Woods knew how to stir our hearts with 'Esther Vanhomrigh.' May it not rather be that the figure of Napoleon Bonaparte is always so overwhelming that all other stories, even of love, and all other characters, even of brave hero and charming heroine, seem dwarfed and meagre by comparison?

PERSONAL RECOLLECTIONS OF JOHN M. PALMER.

Personal Recollections of John M. Palmer. Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co. 1901. Pp. 631.

John M. Palmer, lawyer, major-general in the civil war, Governor of Illinois, United States Senator, and candidate of the Gold Democrats for President, was the contemporary and associate of that notable group of public men of the civil-war period who have given eminent distinction to their State, such as Lincoln, Douglas, Trumbull, Grant, and Logan; and this work of his last years, which was completed a short time before his death, presents some most interesting pictures of the times in which its author bore a part. Interwoven with the narrative are the political papers, Governor's messages, and orations which illustrate his convictions upon the important policies of the war era—papers invariably written with the full courage of convictions which were never conventional after the party standards.

He was born in Kentucky in 1817, but, unlike Lincoln, had as good schooling as the country then afforded, and, moreover, was the son of a father who was a diligent reader of good books. The father, when the son was fourteen years old, migrated to Madison County, Illinois, not far from Alton, under the impulse of his hatred of slavery—a sentiment which the son applied to his political action as soon as he became a participant in public affairs. He was admitted to the bar at the age of twenty-two, upon motion of Stephen A. Douglas, his friendship with whom was interrupted by the anti-Nebraska issue, upon which Palmer broke with the old Democratic party to become active in the formation of the Republican party. At the Philadelphia Republican Convention in 1856 he nominated Lincoln for the Vice-Presidency; and at Chicago, in 1860, he was an influential factor in making Lincoln the candidate for President.

Amid all his activities in public matters there is no evidence that he had any military tastes or studies in those early years, unless two thwarted ambitions for war service—the one when, a boy of fifteen, he was eager to go to the Black Hawk war, where Lincoln obtained his scanty military reputation; and the other, an attempt to take part in the struggle of the Texans for independence—afford indications of such fitness. Nevertheless, in April, 1861, upon his return home from legislative service, he received notice that he had been elected colonel of the Fourteenth Regiment of Illinois volunteers. In July his regiment was ordered into active service in Missouri, and in the following January he commanded a division of six full Indiana regiments, and thus was plunged into the responsibilities of a general officer while he had never seen a collection of armed men. Yet he made one of the best of the volunteer officers, receiving high commendation from his superiors, and commanding the cordial respect of regular army officers who led brigades under him. In the early battles along the Mississippi he acquired a necessary acquaintance with the defects and virtues of his green troops; he was intrusted with an important movement across Tennessee for the occupation of Nashville, where he made Andrew Johnson's acquaintance; at Stone River in January, 1863, he led a division of three brigades, and was in the thick of battle; and at Chickamauga in October his command stoutly resisted the assaults which disorganized the larger part of Rosecrans's army.

The reports made to the Washington authorities by Assistant Secretary of War Charles A. Dana caused the relief from further command in the Army of the Cumberland of Palmer's corps commander, Crittenden. This action was resented by Palmer in an indignant letter, asking his own release from the same army upon the ground that gross injustice had been done to the entire corps by "the misrepresentations made by fugitives from the battlefield," a comment which he says was aimed at the Washington visitors, whom he looked upon as mischievously bringing to the armies of the West the malign political influences which had wrought incalculable harm to the Army of the Potomac. Palmer's resignation was promptly accepted by Halleck and Stanton (under the inspiration, as the General thought, of the Washington visitors), but Rosecrans made this endorsement upon his letter: "wholly disapproving the acceptance of the resignation of this prudent, brave, and valuable officer," and President Lincoln announced to Stanton: "I do not want him to resign unless there be some reason unknown to me." Instead of being allowed to drop from active service, he was, under Thomas's influence, promoted to the command of Thomas's old corps, the Fourteenth, which he led with distinction through the early stages of the campaign against Atlanta; but in August, 1864, upon some warmly debated question of seniority between him and Schofield, he was at his own request relieved from further part in the campaign. Soon after his withdrawal from this command he was requested by Lincoln to take charge of the Department of Kentucky. His answer was: "I have commanded troops in the field during my military service, and I don't want to go to Kentucky and spend my time quarrelling with politicians." The President replied: "Go to Kentucky; keep your temper; do as you please, and I will sustain you."

This interview took place in the early morning before the customary press of visitors. Mr. Lincoln was in an office chair being shaved. He said to Palmer: "You are home folks and I must shave. I cannot do so before Senators and Representatives, but I thought I could do so before you." The conversation turned from Kentucky affairs to the general problems of the war. Gen. Palmer remarked, in the good-natured badinage of friendship: "Mr. Lincoln, if I had known at Chicago that this great rebellion was to occur, I would not have consented to go to a one-horse town like Springfield and take a one-horse lawyer and make him President." Mr. Lincoln pushed the barber from him, and said, in an excited manner: "Neither would I, Palmer. If we had had a great man for the Presidency, one who had an inflexible policy and stuck to it, this rebellion would have succeeded and the Southern Confederacy would have been established. All that I have done is, that I have striven to do my duty to-day with the hope that when to-morrow comes I shall be ready for it."

The Department of Kentucky was full of thorny business, and its management required much diplomacy, and more resolution and imperturbable good nature; all of which qualities Palmer supplied. His endeavor to administer affairs with legal conservatism tempered by humane common sense was almost involuntarily changed by a dramatic occasion. Rumor came to his ears that the slaves far and near were flocking to Louisville, with the understanding that, on the coming 4th of July, 1865, the General of the Department was to set them free. The General did his best to contradict the report, but the multitudes came and assembled in a grove near the city, where they expectantly awaited their deliverer. At the

importunity of disquieted citizens, he drove to the grove for the purpose of reasoning with the negroes. His arrival was hailed with unbounded enthusiasm, and he was borne upon the shoulders of the crowd to a platform, where, as he contemplated their faces, his conservative resolution began to be shaken. He opened his proposed address with the words: "My friends, you are substantially free"; but the qualifying adverb was not heeded. "There went up a shout which could be heard a mile, and terms were applied to me that were only proper when used with reference to the Supreme Being. Then I determined to drive the last nail in the coffin of the institution, even if it cost me the command of the department, and I said, 'My countrymen, you are free, and while I command this department the military forces of the United States will defend your right to freedom!'" Three weeks later an order from the Adjutant-General's Office substantially ratified Gen. Palmer's decision, and slavery in Kentucky practically ended on the 4th of July, 1865.

As Governor and Senator, Gen. Palmer forcibly pointed out in his messages and speeches the dangerous encroachments upon the Constitutional rights of the States which were being made by national centralization, and, after the Chicago fire, wrote dignified letters of remonstrance to President Grant against the sending of United States troops for the enforcement of order to which the militia and police were fully equal. His term of service in the Senate from 1891 to 1897 showed him to be the same independent and fearless advocate of what he deemed to be sound principles of popular government that he had been in former places of honor and trust. He was a representative supporter of President Cleveland's general policy, and, when the Democratic party was taken captive by Populists, he remained unmoved by any of the delusions of the hour, and was glad to lead the forlorn hope of the Gold Democrats, who effected much in inducing the country to hold fast to sound money and other sober policies.

Some Architectural Works of Inigo Jones: A Series of Measured Drawings and Other Illustrations, together with Descriptive Notes, a Biographical Sketch, and List of his Authentic Works, by H. Inigo Triggs and Henry Tanner, Jun. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: John Lane. 1901. 14in.x19in.; pp. xiv, 36; ills. in the text, 40; plates, 40.

Inigo Jones has always been a figure of commanding interest for the historian of English art. Even in the eighteenth century, three volumes illustrating his designs were published. The nineteenth, especially in its latter half, pursued the story of his life with eagerness, and gave us, in Wyatt Papworth's paper on him in the monumental 'Dictionary of Architecture,' a list of his works so accurate that the minute analysis of the present authors has been able to discover in it no errors and but few omissions. The Rev. J. W. Loftie, in his 'Inigo Jones and Wren,' offered a sympathetic sketch of his career, while Mr. Reginald Bloomfield, in his recent 'History of Renaissance Architecture in England,' has added much to our knowledge of the man and his work. It has been left, however, to the opening year of the twentieth century to present between the covers of a single volume the sum of our knowledge of the man who, in the words of one of his most recent critics, was to architecture what Milton was to poetry—the first in England to accomplish great creations with art, spirit, and taste, according to the traditions of the Italian Renaissance.

Jones was of humble origin, the son of a clothworker of Smithfield, where he was born in 1573. His early years were spent in obscurity. Certain it is that he had a talent for drawing and painting, and that he obtained, from some noble patron, money enough to enable him to make long journeys. In his own words; "Being naturally inclined in my younger years to study the arts of design, I passed into foreign parts to converse with the great masters thereof in Italy, where I applied myself to search out the ruins of those ancient buildings which, in despite of time itself and the violence of barbarians, are yet remaining." This first visit to Italy was made at the end of the sixteenth century. He remained in that country for several years, and, on leaving it, entered the service of Christian the Fourth, King of Denmark. It was not until the year 1604, when Jones was in his thirty-first year, that he came into any prominence in England, and even then not as an architect, but as the contriver of the scenery of a masque ordered by James the First. This was the first time he was thus employed, and it was also the commencement of that artistic collaboration with Ben Jonson that lasted, in spite of growing discord, for so many years. James was so well pleased with the result of his scene-deviser's work that, a few months later, we find Jones at work on the *mise en scène* of three plays given in the hall of Christ Church, Oxford—an occasion said to have been the first on which shifting scenery was used in England.

Brilliant as were the results that Inigo Jones achieved in devising the settings of masques, it is not with that evanescent aspect of his work that our authors are concerned; and, as his architectural talents had but slight scope for their exercise for the next nine years, they pass somewhat rapidly to his second visit to Italy. It was in the summer of 1613 that he made his start, proceeding first to Vicenza to study the works of Palladio, by the severely masculine style of which he was greatly influenced. The copy of Palladio's 'Architecture' which Jones carried with him on his journey is preserved at Worcester College, Oxford. It is enriched with notes and criticisms in his handwriting, which show not only the places he visited, but the thoroughness with which he studied the works of the Italian masters. Returning to England early in 1615, he assumed the duties of Surveyor of the Works, and entered upon that career of architectural design which has placed his name so high upon the roll of English artists.

It is a curious fact that, in the long list of buildings given by Triggs and Tanner as definitely ascertained to be of Jones's designing, not one has an earlier date ascribed to it than that of the return from his second Italian journey. In other words, so late was he in finding opportunity to apply his skill to that art which gave him lasting fame that he had reached his forty-second year. With the long line of his works extending from this time until his death, in 1652, when he was seventy-nine years old, the book is occupied. Its text consists chiefly of a statement of such facts as are known about them, and especially about Jones's relation to them. Its plates are devoted to an exposition of them and their details, chiefly in the form of carefully measured drawings, sometimes as perspective sketches in pen and ink, and in a few instances as photographs. The drawings are well made, and exhibit all that is characteristic in the work with the greatest clearness. The perspective sketches crisply rendered in black and white will appeal strongly to the laymen, while the details, and especially the sections of mouldings drawn to a large scale, will be of both value and interest to architects. While not pretending to be a complete record of the existing works of Jones, or, indeed, of any one of them, the drawings contained in the book exhibit very acceptably many of his most important buildings. The Banqueting Hall at Whitehall is shown by a series of measured drawings, and details so excellent that one regrets the absence from them of a good plan of the building. Raynham Hall and Wilton House, two of Jones's most interesting and characteristic works, are well presented, and many minor buildings or parts of buildings are included among the plates.

In brief, the book is one which, in so far as it may influence opinion, is likely to add to the reputation of Inigo Jones as a master of the art of proportion. The more one studies the book and its drawings and the architecture of the period as a whole, the more readily will he agree with the authors that the buildings designed by Jones still remain conspicuous for their noble conception, and that in their sense of proportion they stand (at least in England) without serious rivals. Nor is it possible to dissent from the proposition that no architect, with perhaps the exception of Brunelleschi, ever had so great a share in changing the architecture of a nation. We might, indeed, fully understand the transition which the buildings of England underwent from the time of Elizabeth to that of the Stuarts had we none to study save those by Inigo Jones.

The Quaker: A Study in Costume. By Amelia Mott Gummere. Philadelphia: Ferris & Leach. 1901.

It is not often that the covers of a book are successfully designed to express its contents; but the volume before us, clad in sober gray, with its back of soft ooze leather of the same quiet and delicate shade, is a triumph of Quaker simplicity and daintiness.

Mrs. Gummere's record of Quaker fashions shows clearly that conservatism has been the guiding principle of their sumptuary laws. The custom of wearing the face smooth was universal at the time when the Quakers were beginning to establish their rules for dress and demeanor; hence their "testimony," later, against beards. Take away its elegant superfluities from the costume of Charles I. in Van Dyke's portrait in the Louvre, and you have as residuum the Quaker dress of George Fox. A feather is all that differentiates their hats; while the absence of a collar from the Quaker coat is due merely to the fact that the charming lace collars of the period could not be worn over a collar of cloth. Take away the laces, and what was a con-

cession to the necessity of fashion becomes a mark of austerity and a cause of persecution. When Penn was asked by the King to define the difference between their religious beliefs, the Quaker replied: "The difference is the same as between thy hat and mine; mine has no ornaments." The vast difference between their manners is illustrated by another anecdote, though the point of it does not appear to have struck Mrs. Gummere (p. 68): "Charles II. once granted an audience to the courtly Quaker William Penn, who, as was his custom, entered the royal presence with his hat on. The humorous sovereign quietly laid aside his own, which occasioned Penn's inquiry, 'Friend Charles, why dost thou remove thy hat?' 'It is the custom,' he replied, 'in this place for one person only to remain covered.'" The epithet "courtly" might have been reserved for an occasion on which it was more fairly earned by the honest Quaker.

Even the plain bonnet, whose associations are for us so austere, was originally an early Victorian Paris creation; it dated from those grim days when the fashions were made for elderly people and the young had to fall into line—witness the youthful Victoria arrayed in a bonnet that, again minus a feather, might have been worn in Quarterly Meeting. "Not a pleat of the bonnet as now worn by the plainest Friend; not a turn of the shawl, not a flare of the coat, nor a roll of the hat brim, but had its origin at some remote day in Paris" (p. 190). That we have not seen the last of persecution in honor of an out-of-date Parisian confection is proved by an astonishing announcement in the Philadelphia *Ledger* for November 1, 1899, which we quote from Mrs. Gummere's book:

"Miss May Oller of Waynesboro, who lately returned from a trip to the Holy Land, has been expelled from the Antietam German Baptist Dunkard Church for discarding the plain bonnet. . . . At a meeting of the church authorities in July, Miss Oller was notified that she must return to the wearing of the bonnet, and that she would be given until October to put away her hat. . . . Although the defence was set up that the annual meeting had made the wearing of a hat or bonnet discretionary, Miss Oller's expulsion was ordered by a large majority."

In the interests of such martyrs as Miss Oller, copies of Mrs. Gummere's book ought to be distributed freely among the "Dunkards."

On page 207 Mrs. Gummere describes the "Calash" invented by the Duchess of Bedford (to her shame) in 1765, and gives 1840 as probably the last date for its appearance. But we have seen a calash, identical with that given in the illustration, on an Atlantic liner not ten years since, and worn by a lady who declared that it was an essential feature in her travelling equipment.

The scandal that was caused by the introduction, in the Society, of the "umberella" is pervaded by the same exquisite logic that we have met with in the history of the bonnet and coat-collar. There still lives a lady in Philadelphia who, in her girlhood, received a present of an umbrella.

"She carried the novel gift with great pleasure and delight, but so new and unknown was the article that the meeting to which she belonged became alarmed, and the overseers dealt with the worldly-minded father. During the controversy one woman Friend said to the girl: 'Miriam, would thee want that held over thee when thee was a-dyin'?' That, of course, settled the matter, and the offending umbrella was relegated to seclusion."

This, then, is the secret of the Quaker dress: it was not meant to be a uniform, but was merely the prevailing mode, with all the superfluous adornments left out. The Quaker bonnet no longer expresses shades of orthodoxy by the width of its brim or the cut of its crown. Once, you could have distinguished four or five separate sorts of Quakers by a glance at their bonnets. It may be that the doctrines also are becoming more uniform—and in fact Philadelphia has this winter beheld Hicksites and Wilburites holding a peace meeting in common; at any rate the few plain bonnets that are left will hardly survive their wearers. The Quaker costume is not yet obsolete, but the next generation will not be likely to meet it, even in the streets of Philadelphia. What Mrs. Gummere says (p. 227) of the bonnet applies to all the details of the orthodox dress:

"The study we have been making shows us how contrary to the true spirit of Quakerism the technical Quaker bonnet really is. Adopted in the days of decadence of spirituality, when life was easy and time permitted infinite attention to details, the bonnet became literally a snare, a fetish, a sort of class distinction, at one time almost as exclusive in its work as the mark on the forehead of the high-caste Brahmin. That day is effectually past; the modern Quakeress has now but the tradition to preserve, the outward shell, and must address herself to far greater moral problems. She must, nevertheless, like Charles Lamb, who loved the Quakers, endeavor to 'live up to that bonnet.'"

Mrs. Gummere's book is a work that, less than fifty years ago, would probably have caused her prompt expulsion from the Society. To-day it will be read with interest even by the most orthodox Quaker. As a real contribution to the minor antiquities of the Victorian era, it will appeal to a far wider audience. The full-page illustrations are excellent reproductions of old portraits, and there are numerous sketches of the details of Quaker costume.

The Foundations of American Foreign Policy, with a Working Bibliography. By Albert Bushnell Hart. Macmillan. 1901.

The substance of this book has already appeared in the shape of articles in *Harper's Magazine* and elsewhere; and republications, as a rule, do not call for review. The present interest of the subject treated, however, to say nothing of the historical knowledge and literary ability of the author, justifies a more extended notice than our space would usually permit. It can hardly be said that Professor Hart's presentation of history appeals to those who contend that the war with Spain destroyed, or obscured, certain ideals which have been cherished by the nation. He very properly rebukes those who have talked of the "isolation" of the United States, showing that our rulers have, from the beginning, had much diplomatic intercourse with those of foreign nations. This intercourse has generally been occasioned by controversies arising in the Western Hemisphere; but that was because our interests lay here. He shows that the expansion of the country has been incessant and prodigious, and that the Louisiana Purchase was opposed by arguments similar, in sound at least, to those recently urged against the purchase of the Philippines. And he shows, we must confess, that our rulers have often been influenced by no ideal higher than national glory or aggrandizement, and frequently by partisan or sectional feeling.

This, however, is not what we want to know. Professor Hart makes out a long list of "armed interventions," chiefly by officers of our navy, most of which are of no more importance than the battles of the kites and the crows. He insists that the United States for more than a hundred years has been a great colonial Power, meaning that it has received many immigrants, and has poured its population into many Territories where local governments did not exist. He points out that the Indians have been dispossessed, and that the general Government has ruled the Territories without asking the consent of their inhabitants. All this is undeniable, but is the conquest of the Philippines to be compared with this process? Professor Hart does not think that there will be any immigration of white people to the Philippines; the climate forbids. We cannot go there, and we do not want the Filipinos to come here. We have had no "colony" of this kind before. It can never repay us its cost; if there is any profit in the transaction, it consists in a mere increase of territory and a doubtful increase of prestige. "Who can doubt," the author exclaims, "that the purpose of the American people is not only to make the nation felt as a world Power, but also to spread Western civilization eastward?" If it is to be spread by fire and sword, by conquest and extermination, a great many intelligent Americans will doubt it.

The difference between colonization of this kind and that which we have hitherto practised is occasionally recognized by Professor Hart himself. In the Philippines, he says, the few must rule, exercising power conferred by a distant administration, but that system means a change in American standards of government and human rights.

"We must give up our fine contempt for other nations which rule with an iron hand; we must abandon the principle that 'all just government depends on the consent of the governed'; we must look on the colonial status as permanent, and not a stage on the way to statehood; we must begin to settle difficult questions of religion and worship by orders from Washington; we must surround our colonial governors with bodyguards, and arrest insurgent leaders; we must either yield part of our protective policy, or give up the principle for which our forefathers fought in the Revolution—that colonies exist for their own benefit, and not for the advantage of the mother country; we must yield our practice of free intercourse between the parts of our empire, or else we must admit Chinese to the continent."

We cannot be persuaded that any of the historical events which Professor Hart describes involved or implied such revolutionary changes as these. None of them, whether they involved violations of the Constitution or not, ever caused the Supreme Court to make a decision which at least half of the legal profession regards as fundamentally altering the Constitution. The Mexican war was as inconsistent with the ideals of the Declaration of Independence as anything could be, but it did not require us to give up these ideals. In their place Professor Hart has nothing to offer but the glorification of force. Unrighteousness, he frankly declares, may exalt a nation. Our

aggressions, "even when unrighteously undertaken," have brought to the nation increase of territory and prestige. Yet he tells us that the Mexican war was waged to extend slavery, and led straightway to the civil war. Such increase of territory, we contend, was a curse. As to the "prestige" gained by it, the less we boast the better.

To observe that the diplomacy of our Government has been determined by a regard for our interests tends to obscure important distinctions. Every ruler professes to act out of regard to the interests of his subjects; no one ever heard of a diplomat who declared his policy to be inimical to the interests of his country. We must disregard such professions, and inquire what, as a matter of fact, are the true interests of a people. To this inquiry Sumner and Lowell gave a clear answer, and one good for all time. Had the people of the Northern States possessed real courage, had they listened to Lowell and Garrison, there would have been no war with Mexico, no consequent aggrandizement of the slaveholding power, and slavery might have been peaceably abolished. It seems like turning back the hands on the clock of progress to maintain that the brown man has no rights that the white man is bound to respect; a generality beside which those of the Declaration glitter with renewed brilliance. We cannot exclude the principles of righteousness from the conduct of national affairs; we cannot serve God as individuals and mammon as American citizens. With all his cynicism, when it comes to the last analysis, Professor Hart recognizes that our interests are to be tested by righteousness, justice, and reason; that no form of American doctrine "means that the United States is to do whatever may seem good to it in America." Had he recognized these principles at the outset, his presentation of history would have been of a different character.

The Life and Letters of Gilbert White of Selborne. Written and Edited by his Great-Grand-Nephew, Rashleigh Holt-White. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1901. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. xvi, 330, and ix, 300. Illustrated.

At last we make the acquaintance of the Selborne Naturalist in "an authentic account of his career." The book is a very important and comprehensive addition to the literature of Selborne. For the most part, the volumes are composed of letters of an intimate personal character, and they throw a great deal of light on our subject, his village and neighborhood, his friends and neighbors, his college and church, his farm, farming, and the farmers, his publishers and publishing, and on his contemporaries, Linné, Pennant, Lever, Forster, Montagu, and others. His 'Natural History' is already well known, but these pages contain omitted portions of some of the letters and other matter of cognate interest. There is much concerning White's family and relatives; filled with pedigree, the first chapters are rather dry; once through with them, the interest is secure. There is little or nothing concerning his childhood, except that he was brought up by hand; it is only while in college that the data become more abundant through correspondence, and so continue to the end. Portraits of kindred are given, but none of the central figure. After the reading, the latter may be pictured as short in stature, moderately stout, like relatives, from good living; marked by smallpox; using an ear-trumpet later in life, and not much given to dress, as is becoming in a naturalist, or his account-books would have shown it; and he "had no silk-breeches and stockings to make a wedding-visit in." Possibly his likeness would resemble that of the vicar in the frontispiece. That he did not marry because of unrequited affection is denied, and we are left to conclude he was a bachelor because he preferred to be. An apparent avoidance of remark on his unmarried condition may be due to something yet untold. The insolent charge of concealing his income that he might continue to profit by aid from his college, made in 'The Colleges of Oxford,' edited by Andrew Clark, 1891, is effectually and finally disposed of.

The world knows Gilbert White as a naturalist. As a clergyman he probably was of no especial prominence. Thoughts for ever running upon his natural history would not conduce to sermon-building, and would be less interfered with by machine prayers. His calling in those days, however, is not to be judged by modern standards. Mulso, himself of the cloth, says in a letter; "There does not lie so much spiritual power and efficacy in the clergy of the Church of England now [1779] as did formerly. The itching ears of the vulgar and the republican principles of the Times make all the members of our church looked upon with an evil eye." In the profusion of his advice, we see more evidence of the clergyman than in its character. With this in mind, our author's dropping the "Rev." usually prefixed to the name in favor of Gilbert White the naturalist, appears quite appropriate, and will raise no objection. There are excellent illustrations of familiar features and views in Selborne and at Oxford. The book is a desirable acquisition in any library containing the classic 'Natural History of Selborne.'

The True Thomas Jefferson. By William Eleroy Curtis. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1901. Pp. 395.

This latest addition to the series of so-called "true" biographies has in general the characteristics of its predecessors. There is the same interesting collection of facts—few of them, to be sure, particularly new or even unfamiliar, but gaining a peculiar significance from a somewhat novel grouping. Whatever one's opinion of the importance of the result, one can but praise the industry of the author in searching out so many details of Jefferson's personal life, and his industry in marshalling his material in support of his particular view. For while these biographies, by their special claim to "truth," profess an absence of bias, one needs to read but a little way in most of them to discover that there is, after all, something of an axe to grind. There is the assumption that previous writers, however ample their information or good their intentions, have not, after all, told quite the whole truth, and that there is another side which it is important to bring out. The other side, of course, is chiefly made up of the foibles of life, the personal limitations and idiosyncrasies, the political inconsistencies, the moral weaknesses and defects. The public have been told often enough of the great things which the fathers did: what the public need now is to be told about what the fathers failed to do, how they carried themselves from day to day, when they breakfasted, dined, and rode out, how much they spent for this and that, and wherein they departed from the conventional moral path.

Mr. Curtis's journalistic powers have found a particularly good opportunity for exercise in the case of Jefferson. No American public man has rivalled Jefferson in inconsistency and contradictoriness. A doctrinaire in politics and a voluble theorizer about everything that fell within his ken, his performance as a statesman and a man fell often so far short of his professions as to expose him to the charge of charlatanism. By education and taste an aristocrat, and surrounded most of his life with the appearance if not the substance of wealth, he could yet ostentatiously assume for a time, as President, the attitude of a low-grade bourgeois, offend the diplomatic corps by his rudeness, and set up an ideal of "Jeffersonian simplicity" of which practically his whole public and private career was an open contradiction. He was a strict-constructionist in theory, and an elaborate expounder of the notion of popular government, yet he bought Louisiana because it was "necessary," planned for the Territory a government dependent on the Executive alone, and salved his conscience with idle talk about a Constitutional amendment. No President ever professed greater love for his country or more jealous regard for its welfare, yet none ever made national interests more completely subordinate to his theoretical ideas as to what ought to be done. With all his extraordinary methodicalness, he seems to have been essentially incapable of attending to many interests at once, and to have failed altogether to comprehend the significance of administrative machinery. Even in his personal relations he was governed by personal likings and antipathies which too often ran counter to his theories and professions, while his "Anas" represent a perversity and moral warp unparalleled among American public men.

All this and more Mr. Curtis brings out, generally with a wealth of incident and authority. He takes us into Jefferson's family and social life, and shows us how he failed as a farmer, how much his wine cost him, how he did his own marketing in Washington, and how he met the probably exaggerated charge of laxity in his relations with women. On the other hand, he exhibits Jefferson as the champion of religious liberty in Virginia, the friend and correspondent of scholars and men of affairs at home and abroad, and the founder of a unique university. As we have said, there is nothing new about it, but the mosaic is decidedly entertaining, and not without value even for the sober historian. One cannot help questioning, however, whether this kind of biography is any "truer" than that with which it apparently invites comparison. The permanent influence of a man in his sphere is the important thing to be made clear, after all, rather than the respects in which, largely because of his greatness in other directions, a minute examination of his career makes him out extremely human. Mr. Curtis's biography is a succession of views of the moment, and, while it does not increase our respect for Jefferson, it does not so very greatly detract from it.

The volume is attractively got up and the full-page cuts are clear and well executed. The arrangement of the matter, though usually systematic, is occasionally somewhat arbitrary; Jefferson's opinions and practice in regard to slavery, for example, finding place in the chapter on Jefferson as a lawyer. The statement (p. 65) that "William and Mary is the oldest college in America, although Harvard graduated the first class," will not, of course, go unchallenged. Finally, the absurd classical names intended to be given to new Western States were suggested, not in connection with the Louisiana cession (p. 184), but with Jefferson's plan for the organization of the Northwest Territory, in 1784.

The Science of Penology. By Henry M. Boies. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1901.

The murder of President McKinley has aroused passions and called forth opinions which indicate the importance of the subject here treated. The episode has indeed been a lesson in penology, not only because it has directed attention to the causes of crime, but also because it has revealed the criminal impulse in hosts of people who thought it a meritorious act to declare that the assassin should be put to death by the mob. It would be unfortunate were no improvement in the administration of justice to result from this conspicuous crime; and when the foolish outcry over "stamping out anarchy" has subsided, the timeliness of Mr. Boies's book should be recognized. The anarchist murderer having been disposed of, the causes of crime, the laws defining it, and its prevention by the intelligent treatment of criminals and those who are likely to be criminals, are subjects demanding immediate consideration.

Without going so far as to agree with Mr. Boies that there is a complete science of penology, we can at least maintain that knowledge is far in advance of practice. For years the county jail has been a shame and reproach, undefended and indefensible, but it is everywhere maintained. Here criminals, tramps, paupers, imbeciles, persons charged with crime, but who may be innocent, and witnesses charged with no crime, of all ages, are poured in and stirred together; a seething vat of moral and physical filth. As Mr. Eugene Smith has said, the prison turns out more direct results in the shape of confirmed criminals than any other agency "within the range of experience or devised by the folly of man." Let those who are so hot to stamp out anarchy consider the responsibility of Government in this matter.

Equally irrational and condemned by experience is the system of determinate sentences. It happens every day that men are released from prison who will at once resume the practice of crime. The authorities know that this will be so, but the law ignores it. There are criminals who have been convicted a hundred times—it is said that one of this class was sentenced one thousand times. Yet it is almost impossible to persuade the Legislature to adopt the system of indeterminate sentences, or to induce the judges to apply it when it has been introduced. It has been demonstrated that "first offenders" can in most cases be taught to refrain from crime, but the customary treatment confirms them in it. Yet some progress has been made by two or three of our States in establishing systems of probation and parole. If these systems can be properly administered, the severity of the scourge of crime will soon be appreciably mitigated. Such administration can take place only when the appointment of those charged with the care of criminals ceases to be the perquisite of party managers.

Mr. Boies contends earnestly that crime is a manifestation of disease; that the disease should be treated like physical ailments, and that it is curable. Relying on Mr. Brockway's classical results, he maintains that criminality is at least as curable as consumption, and can as well be prevented. In presenting this theory, he follows the methods of physiology, and treats penology under the titles of Diagnostics, Therapeutics, and Hygienics. While this method has a scientific aspect, it occasions some repetition, and it is doubtful whether our knowledge of the subject is so complete as to justify the use of the term science. It is easy to show that certain depraved and degenerate human beings will, in all probability, become criminals; but they do not constitute the criminal class. At law, a criminal is one who violates a penal statute, and such violations are common among all classes. If we adopt the standard of Jesus, and hold every one guilty who dallies with the impulse to sin, the criminal class becomes very comprehensive. On the other hand, if we call criminals only those convicted of crime, we leave out many people who ought to be included. The children of the rich are, perhaps, in proportion to their numbers, as likely to turn out bad citizens as the children of the poor; and it is well known that many rich men have obtained wealth by methods which bring poor men to jail. Before penology becomes an exact science, the term "criminal" must be more precisely defined than it has been hitherto.

Mr. Boies lays great stress on the importance of preventive measures in the case of children, and protests vigorously against their imprisonment. Those who are essentially depraved must be confined, but it should be in special reformatories. His exposition of the methods by which criminals should be identified and classified is especially interesting. The system of schools, reformatories, asylums, and prisons, adapted to the requirements of different classes, which he advocates may be taken as the ideal toward which reforms should be directed. Such a system, however, implies a degree of wisdom on the part of legislators, and virtue on the part of rulers, which seems unattainable under party government as we know it. Yet our politicians are not heartless, and if the professedly religious members of society would interest themselves in the extirpation of crime, they could obtain the reforms which our criminal law demands. Mr. Boies has done good work in calling public attention to many abuses, and in explaining the proper remedies. His book ought to be carefully read by all who have to do with framing and administering the laws relating to crime, and it should be consulted by every one interested in reformatory work.

Dragons of the Air: An Account of Extinct Flying Reptiles. By H. G. Seeley, F.R.S. D. Appleton & Co. 1901. 8vo, pp. xiii, 239; illustrated.

The pterodactyles were neither reptiles, birds, nor mammals, but to some extent a mixture of the three, in which each has lost its identity. More than a dozen genera have been discovered, in sizes ranging from a couple of inches to twenty feet in spread of wings. They flew like birds or bats, but, unlike the case of bats, the skinny flying membrane was stretched from the body to a single much elongated wing finger. Theirs was true flight, not mere sailing like that of flying squirrels, or the so-called flying lizards and frogs. Their geological record begins below the Lias in the Rhætic, or possibly in the Muschelkalk, and continues to the Upper Chalk of the Secondary Rocks, where it is lost. Throughout their course the pterodactyles were little affected by evolution or even by degeneration, unless it may be in the loss of the tails or of the teeth in some of the later genera. The enormously developed wing finger characterized the group from the first; its ancestral history is unknown. According to our present knowledge, the pterodactyles had no ancestors and left no descendants. They are related to the birds as a parallel, not a transitional, group between them and the reptiles; their relations to the Mammalia are such as to bring them more nearly than the birds intermediate between mammals and reptiles. Before the wing finger was developed, in all probability the ornithosaur was a four-footed animal, with affinities such as might have come from some progenitor of the Dinosauria, an extinct group commonly placed between birds and reptiles, or by some said to represent a common ancestral stock.

From the teachings before us, the relations of the great groups of animals are parallel, like the rays of the solar spectrum or the fingers of the hand, rather than successive; there is no evidence of approximation of mammals to birds, and birds give no evidence that their ancestors were reptiles such as now exist on the earth. Nature does not by transition pass one type of animal into another group by slow accumulation and summing up of differences; the occurrence of mammals, birds, and reptiles, distinct early in the secondary epoch, favors parallelism; and the mammalian characters, or the resemblances to other kinds of animals shown by pterodactyles, are to be regarded as inheritances from a time when there was a common stock from which none of the groups had been distinctly elaborated. The cause of the start into existence of the Ornithosauria was the patagial membrane, which in turn may have been the cause of the chief skeletal differences separating the pterodactyles from birds. The type ceased to adapt its organization and modify its structures to suit the altered circumstances forced upon it by revolutions of the earth's surface; consequently it became extinct.

Some of these ideas do not favor the building of genealogical trees, but, if growth of the vital organs modifies the distinctive form of any vital organ, brain, or lungs, and, as a consequence of modification of the internal structure due to changes of food and habit, brings a new group of animals into existence, as the author holds, he has not made the necessity of parallelism in evolution or origin of the great groups from the same stock about the same time sufficiently obvious.

The volume is in every way an excellent

monograph. The style is popular enough for any student of nature, whether in comparisons of bone and bone or in discussion of general relations in zoölogy and geology; and, unobscured by technicalities, the scientific character of the essay does not impair the interest. Professor Seeley is one of the best authorities on the subject.

The Old Testament and the New Scholarship. By John P. Peters, Ph.D., Sc.D., D.D. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1901. Pp. xii + 328.

This book gives an excellent idea of the attitude towards the value and authority of the Old Testament, and indeed of the Bible generally, possible for a Broad Church Episcopalian. Dr. Peters is an archæologist of position, and has been a close student of the higher criticism, which he accepts in the large. Of some of its more recent and minutely verbal results he has admittedly his doubts, and it is evident that the modern rehabilitation of the Homeric poems has shaken him as to still more. He is also a Trinitarian Christian in the exact sense, accepts the incarnation and the general doctrine of the person of Christ, and regards, apparently, the record of the life of Jesus in the Gospels as sound and historical. For him New Testament criticism is fairly over, and that of the Old may in time swing back similarly into greater approximation to former positions. A great gulf thus separates him from the attitude most prominent in Cheyne's 'Encyclopædia Biblica.' On the other hand, he does not accept a doctrine of the inspiration and authority of the Scriptures which would satisfy the Princeton school. The Bible, he holds, is the record of God's speaking to man, and not the word of God itself. There is only one word of God, Christ. As a consequence, he has a comparatively free hand in dealing with the Biblical texts, and finds a human side—which, he contends, was a necessary side—all through them. Canonicity, for him, means that a book for ages has corresponded and responded to the needs of humanity; inspiration, that it has been given the power so to do. The Church is a living and inspired witness that Jesus is the Word of God, and it presents the Bible as written evidence of the same. Yet Dr. Peters makes no mention of Apostolic Succession, and the Church does not figure with him as the almighty She.

This position, then, he has to justify against the modern higher criticism, or with its assistance, as he would prefer to say. His book divides into four parts. The first deals with the doctrine of Scripture: what inspiration means and the Church teaches as to it; what is the bearing on it of the doctrine of the incarnation and of the use of the Old Testament by Jesus. The second is an application of the idea of evolution to the Bible—the evolution in the religion of Israel and especially in the Messianic hope. There is great freshness of thought and thoroughness of scholarship in this part. The third is a lengthy study, much by way of specimen, of the book of Psalms. The latter half will have interest mostly for Episcopalians, and will seem to others rather dragged in, as it is an account of the origin of the Prayer Book version and an examination of its present-day suitableness. Fourth, comes a review of the results of archæology. Here, above all, Dr. Peters is at home; and in dealing with early Semitic writing materials, the Semitic script, stone worship, the ark of the Covenant, and the book of Daniel, he develops an easy familiarity and width of detail, combined with a certain refreshing and well-balanced shrewdness and common sense.

This last addition to "The Churchman's Library" has evidently passed through a lecture stage, and still suffers somewhat in consequence in the way of diffuseness. But its usefulness for its intended readers is probably not seriously impaired by that, and for any one who seeks with a tolerably good critical and archæological conscience to hold fast to the kernel of Christianity, a better *apologia* could not easily be commended. Without either unctuousness of tone or straining of argument, Dr. Peters has very fairly met the difficulties which centre round the doctrine of the Bible. His method is excellent and his spirit, except towards Presbyterians, is irreproachable. A fragment of criticism: the Egyptian origin of the Phœnician alphabet can hardly now be called "the most commonly accepted opinion." It is even beginning to drop out of the encyclopædias, and there are few specialists that do it reverence. Further, the Ka'ba at Mecca is not the same as the sacred stone there. The Ka'ba is the square building, the House of God; the Black Stone is built into its southeast corner.

The Civil War and the Constitution, 1859-1865. By John W. Burgess. (The American History Series.) 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

Prof. Burgess's volumes are readable, though they do not add much to our knowledge of the events covered. They are, we presume, intended as a résumé of the history of a period already pretty thoroughly explored by others. As such a résumé, they are not likely to be censoriously criticised. The title seems to us to be misjudged, for there is little about the Constitution in the book, except the twenty pages of chapter xxviii. on the "Interpretation of the Constitution under the Stress of the Military Events of 1862 and 1863." Indeed, the two volumes are almost altogether occupied with the war itself and the events which led up to it. As a whole, it is history of the kind so much in fashion at the present time, written *currente calamo* and "strenuously," in a tone the very opposite of what at one time the "dignity of history" was supposed to demand, and occasionally encroaching perilously on the confines of a journalistic style. Thus, we are told (vol. i., p. 39) of John Brown that he was "a notorious dead beat," who left his family to shift for themselves while he was "careering around reforming things"; and it is suggested that the reason why Brown gave no account of his plans or expenditures to those who supplied him with funds was because he "had gotten into his first paying business, and he was determined not to have it ruined by publicity."

For absolute accuracy of statement we do not usually look to writers of this school. In his account of the *Trent* affair (vol. i., p. 271), Prof. Burgess says that "there is not much doubt that the British principles, practices, and decisions" seemed to warrant the conclusion that Capt. Wilkes was justified in thinking that a belligerent had the right "to visit any neutral vessel on the high seas in search of contraband of war, and to seize the persons and papers of diplomatic representatives of Governments at war with his Government." It was, on the contrary, because there was no precedent, practice, or decision in either country which justified Capt. Wilkes that Mason and Slidell were surrendered. In the same way (vol. ii., p. 298), where our author is speaking of the violations of neutrality by England, he mentions the fact that in the *Alexandra* case Baron Pollock quoted both Kent and Story in support of the proposition that it is not a breach of neutrality by a state for its citizens to sell contraband of war to belligerents, as if he thought that this absolutely undisputed fact had some important bearing on the questions raised by the escape of the Confederate cruisers. In the same volume, at p. 295, he declares that the British contention that "Parliament was the exclusive interpreter of *the principles of international law* for the British executive" was "sound jurisprudence"—thus leaving the judicial branch of the Government out of view altogether. If it had been sound jurisprudence, we certainly should never have succeeded before the Geneva tribunal.

A Ribbon of Iron. By Annette M. B. Meakin. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. Pp. 320, 21 illustrations.

In this clearly printed and handy volume Miss Meakin recounts the experiences of herself and mother in making the journey over the Trans-Siberian Railway from Moscow to Vladivostok and thence to Japan, during the summer of 1900. They crossed the Trans-Baikal region before regular passenger trains were running, and reached Vladivostok just after the Chinese war had broken out in Mantchuria. The ease and safety with which unprotected women, unable to talk Russian, could make the journey at such a time, speaks volumes for the courtesy of Russian officials and the perfection of Russian Governmental control. Such are the police arrangements throughout Siberia and Turkestan that ladies can travel everywhere as safely as in the United States, while upon the regular trains over the Siberian Railway the conveniences of travel are exceptionally good. In view of the lugubrious impressions generally received from the English accounts of Siberia, the reader will be surprised, in following our author's charming story, to find himself, at Tomsk, in a university town of the first order, with faculties, museums, and libraries which compare well with those of Europe—indeed, the library has some treasures of which only two others in the world can boast. These, with the imposing buildings and numerous scholarships for indigent students, are among the many tokens of the broad-minded patriotism of the wealthy Siberian merchants and miners who have largely contributed the funds from which the University has been built. The botanical gardens at Tomsk have a high standing.

Among the side excursions were one to

Minusinsk and one to the great prison at Alexandrovsk, in the vicinity of Irkutsk. At Minusinsk the wonderful museum, with its unrivalled collection of bronze relics, was explained to the visitors by its learned founder, Mr. M. Martianoff, and its equally learned curator, Mr. Felix Cohn, both of whom were originally exiles, but have been so attracted by the beauties of the situation and the salubrity of the climate that they have voluntarily chosen Siberia as their permanent residence. Until one has been through Siberia in the summer season, he can have no adequate appreciation of the attractiveness, not only of the civilization, but also of the climate and the scenery. Indeed, almost every small town has its museum; its impressive church, with its still more impressive church music; its library, and its cultivated people. Shortly before Miss Meakin was in Blagovestchensk, Saint-Saëns's difficult opera of "Samson and Delilah" was rendered by a local musical society. During the latter part of their journey, our travellers were accompanied by a celebrated tenor soloist who was going to Vladivostok to fill an engagement with a first-class opera company. The opera-house in Irkutsk is fully equal, in size and equipment, to any we have in the United States.

The information which Miss Meakin received concerning the massacres of the Chinese at Blagovestchensk, and the general operations of the Russians in Mantchuria, being obtained from hearsay evidence after leaving the region, is somewhat misleading. She represents the massacre as "inhuman" and "brutal," following the current reports which appeared in English papers, though she received the account herself from eye-witnesses. Her witnesses, however, did not see all the facts. The full truth is, that the Russians were taken perfectly by surprise by the attack of the Chinese upon them in Mantchuria, and were utterly unprepared for it. To such an extent did the Russians confide in the good will of the Chinese that, as Miss Meakin herself says, they had completely denuded the place of soldiers, sending them down the river for general service. The opening of fire by the Chinese spread immediate consternation such as can be appreciated only by one who was in the midst of the scenes which followed. The expulsion of the Chinese from the Russian side seemed to be a military necessity of the most imperative order, for, owing to the suddenness of the attack, it was natural to believe that no Chinaman could be trusted, and that if the Chinese remained the city would be between two fires. The Chinese were therefore ordered across the river, and would for the most part have crossed in safety had not the Chinese themselves opened fire upon the rafts containing their countrymen. To one familiar with the conditions in Mantchuria at that time, it is clear that the last thing which the Russians wished to occur was the breaking out of hostilities between them and the Chinese. War is, indeed, hell, as Gen. Sherman truly said. But in this case it was the Chinese who forced its terrible alternative upon the Russians, and it was but the "fortunes of war" which they suffered by their own invitation.

Patterson's Nautical Encyclopedia. Revised and enlarged edition. Cleveland, O.: The Marine Review Publishing Co. 1901.

Paasch's 'From Keel to Truck,' upon which 'Patterson's Nautical Encyclopedia' is frankly admitted to have drawn largely, has a reason for being in that it gives marine terms in three different languages, English, French, and German; but it is difficult to understand what want Mr. Patterson's book is intended to supply. The title of encyclopædia suggests an ample well from which the greenhorn may freely quench his thirst for knowledge. Applying this test at random to the five parts into which the work is divided, we obtain peculiar results. If we wish, for example, to learn what a "Pacific iron" is, we see, in Part I., that "stun'-sail-boom irons are known sometimes as 'Pacific Irons' "; the fact being that a Pacific iron is a thing by itself and never confounded with anything else. Part II. tells us that "a 'cap scuttle' is a framing composed of coamings and head ledges, raised above the deck, with a flat or top which shuts closely over into a rabbet"—a statement almost bewildering in its lucidity. In Part III. we read that the Index Correction is "the adjustment of the index glass of the quadrant, octant, or sextant, which consists of making the index glass perpendicular to the plane of the arc" (this would have been news to the immortal Bowditch); in Part IV., that "circulating or condensing water is that which is run through a surface condenser to absorb the heat from the exhaust steam"; and in Part V., that " 'Jimmy Legs' is a nickname for the master-at-arms."

These answers bespeak the dictionary rather than the encyclopædia, and they assume, on the user's part, either a tolerably wide acquaintance with the several subjects considered (Seamanship, Ship-building, Navigation, Marine Engineering, and Man-of-war phrases), or else the same optimistic spirit which, with a light heart, undertakes French in ten lessons. The novice would lose time and patience in chasing the evasive key to his riddle from one definition to another, while the expert would instinctively turn to the less pretentious treatises, by well-known authorities, in which each branch is dealt with soberly and thoroughly. As a dictionary of sea terms the book has, possibly, some value, although it is not free from errors and from expressions which are, to say the least, novel. Few sailors know what an anchor shaft is (p. 43); few would call a rowlock a thole-pin (p. 79); none ever heard of a main boom sail (p. 167); some have seen a horizontal donkey boiler (p. 413); and all would wish, in 1901, an Arctic chart of more recent date than 1875.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Benedix, Roderick. Der Prozess. American Book Company. 30 cents.
Bradford, Charles. The Wild Fowlers. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Canterbury, William, Lord Archbishop of. A Relation of the Conference between William Land and Mr. Fisher the Jesuit. Macmillan. 8s. 6d.
Chubb, E. W. English Words. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 75 cents.
Clear, Claudius. Letters on Life. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.75.
Cochrane, A. D. Banking. London: Effingham Wilson.
Douay, Gaston. An Elementary French Reader. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Ford, S. V. R. The Methodist Year Book, 1902. Eaton & Mains. 10 cents.
Green, J. R., and Roberson, George. Studies in Oxford History, chiefly in the Eighteenth Century. Oxford (Eng.): Oxford University Press.
Harnack, Adolf. What is Christianity? London: Williams & Norgate; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Jenkins, T. A. Alphonse Daudet: Selected Stories. American Book Company. 50 cents.
Kerley, C. G. Short Talks with Young Mothers. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Lodeman, A. Germany and the Germans. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Mairet, Jeanne. L'Enfant de la Lune. American Book Co. 35 cents.
"Our Accursed Spelling": What to Do with It. Oak Park (Ill.): E. O. Vaile.
Peloubet, F. N. The Teachers' Commentary on the Acts of the Apostles. Henry Frowde.
Pollock, Channing. Behold the Man. Washington: The Neale Publishing Company.
Queen Mab's Fairy Realm. London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners. $2.50.
Rhoades, L. A. Schiller's Die Jungfrau von Orleans. D. Appleton & Co.
Skrine, F. H. Life of Sir William Collson Hunter. Longmans, Green & Co.
Stokes, Susan. Ten Common Trees. American Book Company. 40 cents.
Storm, Theodor. Immensee. Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
Strong, Josiah. The Times and Young Men. The Baker & Taylor Co.
Terry, M. S. Moses and the Prophets. Eaton & Mains. $1.
Veblen, Ellen R. The Goosenberry Pilgrims: A Child's Drama. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
Watts-Dunton, Theodore. Christmas at the Mermaid. (Flowers of Parnassus.) John Lane.
Webb, C. H. With Lead and Line along Varying Shores: Poems. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.10.
Weulersse, G. Chine Ancienne et Nouvelle. Paris: Armand Colin. 4 fr.
Wilson, B. T. Ye Mountaineer. F. Tennyson Neely Company.

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ERRATA.

Page 3, col. iii., line 23. For "prosperous" read "populous."

Page 25, col. i., line 28 from bottom. For "Caucasians" read "Caucasian."

Page 91, col. i., line 10. Omit "not."

Page 111, col. i., line 5. For "Etas-Unis" read "Etats-Unis." Line 15: For "trouvent" read "trouveront."

Page 114, col. ii., line 33 from bottom. For "II." read "11."

Page 115, col. i., line 16. Omit "The diarist . . . " to end of paragraph.

Page 116, col. i. Omit last sentence of first notice ("By John Champe Carter," etc.).

Page 177, col. ii., line 22 from bottom, and col. iii., line 6. For "Squier" read "Squiers."

Page 188, col. iii., line 17 and 34. For "professional" read "professorial."

Page 199, col. iii., lines 34 and 17 from bottom. For "Squier" read "Squiers."

Page 206, col. i., line 22. For "Gorynia" read "Gournia."

Page 224, col. iii., line 23. For "W." read "Mr."

Page 320, col. ii., line 36. For "seventy-two" read "eighty-eight."

Page 357, col. i., line 36. For "aula" read "anta."

Page 396, col. iii., line 8. For "Dent-Lippincott" read "Dent-Macmillan."

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